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Издание предназначено для аудиторной и самостоятельной внеаудиторной работы студентов III курса, обучающихся по специальности «Романо-германская филология» и изучающих английский язык как основной, направлено на системно-функциональное описание лексики современного английского языка и ставит своей целью не только представить лексику как обозримую и упорядоченную подсистему английского языка, но и вскрыть закономерности ее функционирования, подчеркнуть специфику лексических единиц английского языка в сопоставлении с соответствующими лексическими единицами родного языка.

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Издание предназначено для аудиторной и самостоятельной внеаудиторной работы студентов III курса, обучающихся по специальности «Романо-германская филология» и изучающих английский язык как основной. Оно составлено в соответствии с учебной и базовой программами для данной специальности.

Курс рассчитан на 8 семинарских занятий, которые объединены в 3 модуля. Каждый учебный модуль содержит основные цели и задачи (включая требования к компетентности студентов); теоретический материал для каждого семинарского занятия (разбит на узловые вопросы и снабжен списком ключевых понятий); практические задания и упражнения в соответствии с предложенными на рассмотрение теоретическими вопросами семинара; список основной и дополнительной литературы к каждому модулю; вопросы и задания для самоконтроля за усвоением материала в конце каждого модуля.

Предлагаемые в издании задания и упражнения призваны помочь студентам глубже усвоить теоретический материал, ознакомить их с основными особенностями лексического строя английского языка, обеспечить сознательный подход к практическому овладению лексикой, научить самостоятельно работать с Интернет-ресурсами, электронными словарями и базами данных, предотвратить некоторые типичные ошибки в речи и способствовать развитию языковой догадки. Оно позволит подготовить студентов к более успешному восприятию других теоретических курсов на английском языке – стилистики, истории языка, теории и практики перевода и т.д., а также способствовать развитию навыков научно-исследовательской работы.

MODULE 1. ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY AND LEXICOGRAPHY. **ETYMOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY**

Aims This module aims to introduce students to the study of lexical units from both lexicological and lexicographical perspectives, to provide students with knowledge of the fundamentals of the etymological organization of the vocabulary.

Learning outcomes On successful completion of this module a student should be able to:

- demonstrate an understanding of the difference between lexical units;
- outline major stages in the development of the English language;
- give examples of Latin, French, Scandinavian borrowings in the English language;
- define the term “native English vocabulary”;
- analyze the type and the degree of assimilation of the borrowed elements in the English vocabulary;
- demonstrate an understanding of the main problems of lexicography;
- relate lexicography to lexicology and language teaching;
- compare linguistic dictionaries.

Module Key Terms.

morpheme

word

set expression

diachronic lexicology

synchronic lexicology

derivational morpheme

lexicography

linguistic dictionaries

entry

item

headword

borrowing

international words

etymological doublets

word origin

Indo-European roots

two-faceted unit

descriptivism

thesaurus

specialized dictionaries

restricted dictionaries

glossary

Seminar 1

Lexicology. Etymology. General characteristics of the English Vocabulary

Topics for Discussion

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.
2. Lexical units. Lexical naming units. Lexicalization.

3. Etymological structure of the English vocabulary (native lexical units+borrowed lexical units). Native English Vocabulary.
4. Foreign elements in Modern English. Latin, Scandinavian and French borrowings.
5. Reasons for borrowings and assimilation of loan-words.
6. Etymological doublets
7. International words. “Translator’s false friends”.

Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. **Lexicology** is a branch of linguistics, the science of language. There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely the **synchronic** (*Gr. syn* — ‘together, with’ and **chronos** — ‘time’) and the **diachronic** (*Gr. dia* — ‘through’) approach. With regard to **special lexicology** the synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time, for instance, at the present time. It is special. **Descriptive lexicology** deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time.

The diachronic approach in terms of Special Lexicology deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time. It is special Historical Lexicology that deals with the evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by. The distinction between the synchronic and the diachronic study is merely a difference of approach separating for the purposes of investigation what in real language is inseparable. The two approaches should not be contrasted, or set one against the other; in fact, they are intrinsically interconnected and interdependent: every linguistic structure and system actually exists in a state of constant development so that the synchronic state of a language system is a result of a long process of linguistic evolution, of its historical development. A good example illustrating both the distinction between the two approaches and their interconnection is furnished by the words *to beg* and *beggar*. Synchronically, the words *to beg* and *beggar* are related as a simple and a derived word, the noun *beggar* being the derived member of the pair, for the derivative correlation between the two is the same as in the case of *to sing* — *singer*, *to teach* — *teacher*. When we approach the problem diachronically, however, we learn that *beggar* was borrowed from Old French and only presumed to have been derived from a shorter word, namely the verb *to beg*, as in English agent nouns are commonly derived from verbs with the help of the suffix *-er*. (R.S.Ginzburg)

2. The units of a vocabulary or **lexical units** are two-facet elements possessing form and meaning. The basic unit forming the bulk of the vocabulary is the word. Other units are morphemes that is parts of words, into

which words may be analysed, and set expressions or groups of words into which words may be combined.

3. Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language is far from being homogeneous. It consists of two layers - **the native stock of words** and **the borrowed stock of words**. Numerically the borrowed stock of words is considerably larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30 % of the total number of words in the English vocabulary but the native words form the bulk of the most frequent words actually used in speech and writing. Besides the native words have a wider range of lexical and grammatical valence, they are highly polysemantic and productive in forming word clusters and set expressions.

Compare the approaches:

1) "In linguistic literature the term **n a t i v e** is conventionally used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes — the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes."

2) "The native element comprises not only the ancient Anglo-Saxon core but also words which appeared later as a result of word-formation, split of polysemy and other processes operative in English." (R.S. Ginzburg)

3) Professor A. I. Smirnitsky relying on the earliest manuscripts of the English language available suggested another interpretation of the term **n a t i v e** — as words which may be presumed to have existed in the English word-stock of the 7th century. "So the 7th century AD Old English may be regarded as native English vocabulary. It consisted of words of common Endo-European and Germanic roots, borrowings from Celtic, continental and early insular borrowings from Latin." (L.M. Leshchova)

4. **Borrowed words** (or loan words or **borrowings**) are words taken over from another language and modified according to the patterns of the receiving language. In many cases a borrowed word especially one borrowed long ago is practically indistinguishable from a native word without a thorough etymological analysis (street, school, face). When analysing borrowed words one must distinguish between the two terms - "**source of borrowing**" and "**origin of borrowing**". The first term is applied to the language from which the word was immediately borrowed, the second - to the language to which the word may be ultimately traced e.g. *table* - source of borrowing - French, origin of borrowing - Latin; *elephant* - source of borrowing - French, origin - Egypt. The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other.

5. All borrowed words undergo the process of **assimilation**, i.e. they adjust themselves to the phonetic and lexico-grammatical norms of the language. **Phonetic assimilation** comprises substitution of native sounds and sound

combinations for strange ones and for familiar sounds used in a position strange to the English language, as well as shift of stress. **Grammatical assimilation** finds expression in the change of grammatical categories and paradigms of borrowed words, change of their morphological structure. **Lexical assimilation** includes changes in semantic structure and the formation of derivatives.

6. The words *shirt* and *skirt* etymologically descend from the same root. *Shirt* is a native word, and *skirt* is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonemic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: they both denote articles of clothing. Such words as these two originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning are called **etymological doublets**

Tasks and Exercises

1. Explain why the word *blackboard* can be considered a unity and why the combination of words "*a black board*" doesn't possess such a unity.
2. Open the site www.etymologic.com and play the Etymological game. Be ready to describe the etymology of the most interesting words.
3. Read the following jokes. Explain the etymology of the italicized words. If necessary consult a dictionary.

1) He dropped around to the *girl's* house and as he ran up the steps he was confronted by her *little* brother.

"Hi, Billy."

"Hi," said the *brat*.

"Is your *sister* expecting me?"

"Yeah."

"How do you know that?"

"She's gone out."

2) A *man* was at a theatre. He was sitting behind *two women* whose continuous chatter became more than he could bear. Leaning forward, he tapped one of them on the *shoulder*:

"Pardon me, madam," he said, "but I can't *hear*."

"You are not supposed to — this is a private conversation," she hit back

3) Sonny: *Father*, what do they *make* asphalt roads of?

Father: That makes a *thousand* question you've asked today. Could give me a little peace? What do you *think* would happen if I had asked my father so many questions?

Sonny: You might have learnt how to answer some of mine

4. Translate the following into Russian and state from what languages the following words and expressions are borrowed from.

Bon mot, persona grata, beau mond, enfant terrible, ottava rima, leit-motiv, coup-d'etat, Blitzkrieg, khaki

5. Arrange the words from the columns so that they form double or triple synonymous series. State the difference in meaning and in use between words in each synonymous series. State which synonym is more formal.

| <u>Native English words</u> | <u>French borrowings</u> | <u>Latin borrowings</u> |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. guts | 1. flame | 1. lassitude |
| 2. ask | 2. sacred | 2. felicity |
| 3. fire | 3. courage | 3. ascend |
| 4. house | 4. attire | 4. conflagration |
| 5. kingly | 5. mount | 5. consecrated |
| 6. weariness | 6. mansion | 6. interrogate |
| 7. rise | 7. question | 7. regal |
| 8. happiness | 8. royal | |
| 9. holy | | |
| 10. clothes | | |

6. Analyse the following words from the point of view of the type and degree of assimilation. State which words are: a) completely assimilated; b) partially assimilated; c) non-assimilated.

Prima-donna, caftan, city, mazurka, table, street, they, century, sky, wall, stimulus, reduce, present, hors d'oeuvre, ballet, cup, police, distance, garage, machine, fiancé.

7. Comment on the different formation of the doublets and on the difference in meaning, if any.

Balm - balsam, suit - suite, senior - sir, legal - loyal, skirt - shirt, major - mayor, pauper - poor, history - story, catch - chase.

8. Read and translate the sentences, pick out all international words (mind the pronunciation)

1) This is only a hypothesis, nothing has been proved yet. 2) "City hotel" is a euphemism for "prison". 3) When did the catastrophe occur? 4) Arrange the words in alphabetical order. 5) The words "physician" and "physicist" are often misused.

9. Compare the meanings of the following Russian and English words.

Exposure – экспозиция

accurate – аккуратный

Penalty – пенальти

audience – аудиенция

Distance – дистанция

intelligent – интеллигентный

Film – фильм

scene – сцена

Novel – новелла

repetition – репетиция

10. Correct the mistakes in the translation.

Датский флот – the Dutch fleet, политика правительства – the politics of the government, аккуратная одежда – accurate clothes, сценарий фильма – the scenery of the film, химики и физики – chemists and physics, марка мобильного телефона – the mark of the mobile phone, дверь на сцену – a scene door, интеллигентный человек – an intelligent man.

11. The following are loan translations (calques). What do they actually mean in English? How and when are they used?

The moment of truth (Sp. el momenta de la verdad); with a grain of salt (L cum grano salis); underground movement (Fr.L. mouvement souterrain); that goes without saying (Fr. cela va sans dire).

Recommended Literature

1. Антрушина, Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. English Lexicology. Лексикология английского языка, 2004. – с.6-12, 44-78.
2. Лещева, Л.М. Слова в английском языке. Курс лексикологии английского языка, 2001. - с.9-20, 26-35.

Seminar 2

English Lexicography

Topics for Discussion

1. Lexicography. The history of British and American lexicography.
2. How modern dictionaries are made. Some problems of lexicography.
3. Classification of dictionaries.
4. The most popular British and American dictionaries.
5. Modern trends in English lexicography. Electronic dictionaries.

**Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions
of Principal Concepts**

1. **Lexicography**, that is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, is an important branch of applied linguistics. Lexicography has a common object of study with lexicology, both describe the vocabulary of a language. The essential difference between the two lies in the degree of systematisation

and completeness each of them is able to achieve. Lexicology aims at systematisation revealing characteristic features of words. It cannot, however, claim any completeness as regards the units themselves, because the number of these units being very great, systematisation and completeness could not be achieved simultaneously. The province of lexicography, on the other hand, is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. (Arnold I.V.)

2. **The most burning issues of lexicography** are connected with the selection of head-words, the arrangement and contents of the vocabulary entry, the principles of sense definitions and the semantic and functional classification of words.

In the first place it is the problem of how far a general descriptive dictionary should admit the historical element. In fact, the term "current usage" is disconcertingly elastic, it may, for instance, be stretched to include all words and senses used by W. Shakespeare, as he is commonly read, or include only those of the fossilised words that are kept in some set expressions or familiar quotations, e. g. *shuffled off this mortal coil* ("Hamlet"), where *coil* means 'turmoil' (of life). For the purpose of a dictionary, which must not be too bulky, selection between scientific and technical terms is also a very important task. (Arnold I.V.)

The number of meanings a word is given and their choice in this or that dictionary depend, mainly, on two factors: 1) on what aim the compilers set themselves and 2) what decisions they make concerning the extent to which obsolete, archaic, dialectal or highly specialised meanings should be recorded, how the problem of polysemy and homonymy is solved, how cases of conversion are treated, how the segmentation of different meanings of a polysemantic word is made, etc. There are at least three different ways in which the word meanings are arranged: in the sequence of their historical development (called **historical order**), in conformity with frequency of use that is with the most common meaning first (**empirical or actual order**), and in their logical connection (**logical order**). (Ginsburg R.S)

3. Linguistic dictionaries may be divided into different categories by different criteria. According to the nature of their word-list we may speak about **general dictionaries**, on the one hand, and **restricted**, on the other. The terms *general* and *restricted* do not refer to the size of the dictionary or to the number of items listed. What is meant is that the former contain lexical units in ordinary use with this or that proportion of items from various spheres of life, while the latter make their choice only from a certain part of the word-stock, the restriction being based on any principle determined by the compiler. To *restricted dictionary* -

r i e s belong terminological, phraseological, dialectal word-books, dictionaries of new words, of foreign words, of abbreviations, etc.

As to the information they provide all linguistic dictionaries fall into those presenting a wide range of data, especially with regard to the 'semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered (they are called **explanatory**) and those dealing with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, e.g. only in relation to their etymology or frequency or pronunciation. These are termed **specialised** dictionaries.

All types of dictionaries, save the translation ones, may be **monolingual** or **bilingual**, i.e. the information about the items entered may be given in the same language or in another one.

It is important to realise that no dictionary, even the most general one, can be a general-purpose word-book, each one pursues a certain aim, each is designed for a certain set of users. Therefore the selection of material and its presentation, the language in which it is couched depend very much upon the supposed users, i.e. whether the dictionary is planned to serve scholarly users or students or the general public.

Thus to characterise a dictionary one must qualify it at least from the four angles mentioned above: 1) the nature of the word-list, 2) the information supplied, 3) the language of the explanations, 4) the prospective user.

4–5. **Modern trends in English lexicography** are connected with the appearance and rapid development of such branches of linguistics as corpus (or corpus-based) linguistics and computational linguistics. Corpus linguistics deals mainly with compiling various electronic corpora for conducting investigations in different linguistic fields such as phonetics, phonology, grammar, stylistics, graphology, discourse, lexicon and many others. Corpora are large and systematic enterprises: whole texts or whole sections of text are included, such as conversations, magazine articles, brochures, newspapers, lectures, sermons, broadcasts, chapters of novels, etc. A well-constructed general corpus enables investigators to make more objective and confident descriptions of usage of words, to make statements about frequency of usage in the language as a whole, as well as comparative statements about usage in different varieties, permits them to arrive at a total account of the linguistic features in any of the texts contained in the corpus; provides investigators with a source of hypotheses about the way the language works. The recent development of corpus linguistics has given birth to **corpus-based lexicography** and a new corpus-based generation of dictionaries. For example, the **Cobuild English Dictionary** used the Bank of English - the corpus of 20 million words in contemporary English developed at the Birmingham University. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English and the Oxford Advanced Learner's.

Dictionary of Current English used the British National Corpus. The British National Corpus is a very large (over 100 million words) corpus of modern English, both spoken and written. The Corpus is designed to represent as wide range of modern British English as possible. The written part (90 %) includes, for example, extracts from regional and national newspapers, specialist periodicals and journals for all ages and interests, academic books and popular fiction, published and unpublished letters and memoranda, school and university essays, among many other kinds of text. The spoken part (10%) of the British National Corpus includes a large amount of unscripted informal conversation, recorded by volunteers selected from different age, region and social classes in a demographically balanced way, together with spoken language collected in all kinds of different contexts, ranging from formal business or government meetings to radio shows and phone-ins. The use of corpora in dictionary-making practices gives a compiler a lot of opportunities; among the most important ones is the opportunity: 1) to produce and revise dictionaries much more quickly than before, thus providing up-to-date information about language; 2) to give more complete and precise definitions since a larger number of natural examples are examined; 3) to keep on top of new words entering the language, or existing words; changing their meanings due to the opened (constantly growing) monitor corpus; 4) to describe usages of particular words or phrases typical of particular varieties and genres as corpus data contains a rich amount of textual information — regional variety, author, part-of-speech tags, genre, etc.; 5) to organize easily examples extracted from corpora into more meaningful groups for analysis and describe/present them laying special stress on their collocation; 6) to treat phrases and collocations more systematically than was previously possible due to the ability to call up word-combinations rather than words and due to the existence of mutual information tools which establish relationships between co-occurring words; 7) to register cultural connotations and underlying ideologies which a language has.

Some of lexicographical giants have their own electronic text archives which they use depending on the type of dictionary compiled. For example, the Longman Corpus Network is a diverse, far-reaching group of databases consisting of many millions of words. Five highly sophisticated language databases form the nucleus of the Network: the Longman Learners' Corpus (comprised of 10 million words of writing in English by learners of the language from over 125 different countries); the Longman Written American Corpus (comprised of 140 million words of American newspaper and book text); the Longman Spoken American Corpus (a unique resource of 5 million words of everyday American speech); the Spoken British Corpus (gives objective information for the first time on what spoken English is really like and how it differs from written British

English); and the Longman/ Lancaster Corpus (with over 30 million words it covers an extensive range of written texts from literature to bus timetables).

Among the on-line dictionaries there are the following: the Oxford English Dictionary Online, the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary, the Cambridge Dictionaries Online (including Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms, Cambridge Dictionary of American English, etc.), the American Heritage Dictionary of the English language and many others. Each dictionary has its own benefits and differs, sometimes greatly, in the interface, material available, contents area, number of options, organization of entries, search capabilities, etc. from other dictionaries of such kind.

The Oxford English Dictionary Online, for instance, contains the material of the 20-volume Oxford English Dictionary and 3-volume Additions Series. Besides more revised and new entries are added to the online dictionary every quarter. The Oxford English Dictionary Online is characterized by the following main features: 1) the display of entries according to a user's needs, i.e. entries can be displayed by turning pronunciations, etymologies, variant spellings, and quotations on and off; 2) the search for pronunciations as well as accented and other special characters; 3) the search for words which have come into English via a particular language; 4) the search for quotations from a specified year, or from a particular author and/or work; 5) the search for a term when a user knows only meaning; 6) the use of wildcards if a user is unsure of a spelling; 7) the restrictions of a search to a previous results set; 8) the search for first cited date, authors, and works; 9) the case-sensitive searches; and some others.

Tasks and Exercises

1. Make sure you know the meaning of the following terms:

| | |
|--------------|---|
| encyclopedia | a book, or a set of books, giving information about every branch of knowledge, or on one subject, with articles in the ABC order; |
| dictionary | a book, listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and origin; |
| concordance | the complete vocabulary of some classical author; |
| glossary | a list of explanations of obsolete words, dialectal or technical terms given at the end of a book or a text; |
| thesaurus | a collection of words and phrases grouped together according to similarities in their meaning; |
| headword | the first word, in heavy type, of a dictionary entry; |
| entry | the headword, together with its article |

2. Choose one word out of the following list: *head, hand, arm, body, thing, to go, to take, to be* and analyse its dictionary entry and its semantic structure as presented in the following dictionaries:

- 1) V.Muller's Anglo-Russian Dictionary;
- 2) The Concise Oxford English Dictionary;
- 3) The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by L.S.Hornby

3. Characterise the following dictionaries and state their type

- 1) The Concise Oxford Dictionary, edited by H.W.Fowler and F.G.Fowler-Oxford (COD);
- 2) Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (OALD) by A.S.Hornby;
- 3) Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary;
- 4) Anglo-Russian Dictionary by V.Muller;
- 5) English Pronouncing Dictionary by D.Jones.

4. Using <http://www.sle.sharp.co.uk/JustTheWord> search for the word *beauty* and get a detailed description of the company which this word keeps in modern day English, write out the most frequent collocations

5. With the help of the Internet make up short descriptions of the most known English language corpora:

Bank of English, British National Corpus, Lund Corpus of Spoken English, Corpus of Contemporary American English, Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English.

Recommended Literature

1. Лещева, Л.М. Слова в английском языке. Курс лексикологии современного английского языка, 2001. - с.136-154.
2. Суша, Т.Н. Лингвистические основы лексикографии, 1999. – 110с.

Module 1

Test Yourself Questions

1. What are the main problems of lexicology?
2. What is the smallest meaningful unit of language?
3. What accounts for numerous and different definitions of the term “word”? Compare various definitions.
4. What are the main differences between studying words syntagmatically and paradigmatically?
5. How large is the English lexicon? How large is the lexicon of a native speaker? How large is your lexicon?

6. What is the difference between the terms “source of the borrowing” and “origin of the word”?
7. What are the main factors determining the degree of assimilation?
8. What is the influence of borrowings on the English vocabulary?
9. What is the proportion between native and borrowed elements in the English vocabulary?
10. How are native words subdivided according to their origin?
11. What semantic groups do the native words of the Indo-European origin include?
12. What are the main semantic groups of the native words of Common Germanic origin?
13. What characteristic features do native words possess?
14. What languages contributed mostly to the development of the English vocabulary?
15. How are Latin borrowings subdivided according to the period of borrowing?
16. What are the main periods and characteristic features of French borrowings?
17. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?
18. What are the relations between lexicography and lexicology?
19. What are the outstanding names in the history of British and American lexicography?
20. By what criteria can linguistic dictionaries be classified? What are the main types? Characterize each type.
21. What are the main problems of lexicography?
22. What information is contained in the dictionary entry?
23. How many meanings constitute the semantic structure of the word? How are they explained?
24. What meaning comes first in different dictionaries? Explain the difference, if any.
25. What specialized dictionaries do you know?

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MODULE 2.

SEMASIOLOGY AND PHRASEOLOGY

Aims This module aims to provide students with an understanding and critical awareness of the main issues in semasiology and phraseology, to explore a range of theoretical and practical approaches to the principal terms “word meaning”, “connotational meaning”, “semantic structure of the word”, “polysemy”, “homonymy”, “paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations”, “phraseological unit” in the English language, to examine the principles of change of meaning and types of word groups in English, to focus students’ attention on professionally oriented aspects of English to contribute to their preparation for scientific research and teaching practice.

Learning outcomes On successful completion of this module a student should be able to:

- define the term “word meaning”;
- analyze the semantic structure of a polysemantic word;
- understand the importance of context in order to identify meaning and/or make the right choice of word(s);
- demonstrate an understanding of the difference between connotational and denotational meanings;
- analyze the type and the degree of motivation in motivated words;
- compare paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between language units;
- give examples of different types of synonyms and homonyms;
- explain the difference between word groups and phraseological units;
- demonstrate an understanding of the main problems of phraseology.

Module Key Terms.

semasiology

meaning

semantics

ideational approach

referential approach

functional approach

transference

polysemy

homonymy

direct/ figurative meaning

homographs

hyponymy

paradigmatic relations

syntagmatic relations

hyponym

hyperonym

lexical valence

grammatical valence

idiom

phraseological unit

denotational meaning

connotational meaning

metaphor

semantic triangle

motivation

referent

extension/generalization

primary / secondary meaning

central/ peripheral meaning

homophones

lexical homonyms

stylistic synonym

ideographic synonym

semantic field

lexical-semantic group

lexico-grammatical group

phraseological combinations

phraseological unities

phraseological combinations

semantic unity

Seminar 3 **Word Meaning**

Topics for Discussion

1. Word meaning. Different approaches to meaning.
2. Types of meaning.

3. Word meaning and motivation. Phonetic, morphological and semantic motivation.
4. Change of meaning. Causes, nature and results of semantic change.

Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions of Principal Concepts

1–2. In our country the definitions of meaning given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle: they all point out that **lexical meaning** is the realisation of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system. The definition stresses that semantics studies only such meanings that can be expressed, that is concepts bound by signs. The complexity of the word meaning is manifold. The four most important types of semantic complexity may be roughly described as follows: Firstly, every word combines lexical and grammatical meanings. E.g.: *Father* is a personal noun. Secondly, many words not only refer to some object but have an aura of associations expressing the attitude of the speaker. They have not only denotative but connotative meaning as well. E. g.: *Daddy* is a colloquial term of endearment. Thirdly, the denotational meaning is segmented into semantic components or semes. E.g.: *Father* is a male parent. Fourthly, a word may be polysemantic, that is it may have several meanings, all interconnected and forming its semantic structure. E. g.: *Father* may mean: ‘male parent’, ‘an ancestor’, ‘a founder or leader’, ‘a priest’. (I. V. Arnold)

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

Connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it may be used. There are four main types of connotations: stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive or intensifying. Stylistic connotations is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style (*slay* vs *kill*), evaluative connotation may show his approval or disapproval of the object spoken of (*clique* vs *group*), emotional connotation conveys the speaker's emotions (*mummy* vs *mother*), the degree of intensity (*adore* vs *love*) is conveyed by expressive or intensifying connotation.

The interdependence of connotations with denotative meaning is also different for different types of connotations. Thus, for instance, emotional connotation comes into being on the basis of denotative meaning but in the course of time may substitute it by other types of connotation with general emphasis, evaluation and colloquial stylistic overtone. E.g. *terrific* which originally meant 'frightening' is now a colloquialism meaning 'very, very

good' or 'very great': *terrific beauty, terrific pleasure*. Fulfilling the significative and the communicative functions of the word the denotative meaning is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of language. The expressive function of the language (the speaker's feelings) and the pragmatic function (the effect of words upon listeners) are rendered in connotations. Unlike the denotative meaning, connotations are optional.

4. The term **m o t i v a t i o n** is used to denote the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other.

When the connection between the meaning of the word and its form is conventional that is there is no perceptible reason for the word having this particular phonemic and morphemic composition, the word is said to be **n o n - m o t i v a t e d** for the present stage of language development. Every vocabulary is in a state of constant development. Words that seem non-motivated at present may have lost their motivation. The verb *earn* does not suggest at present any necessary connection with agriculture. The connection of form and meaning seems purely conventional. Historical analysis shows, however, that it is derived from OE (*ze-earnian* 'to harvest'. In Modern English this connection no longer exists and *earn* is now a non-motivated word. (I.V. Arnold)

5. There are two kinds of association involved as a rule in various semantic changes namely: a) similarity of meanings, and b) contiguity of meanings. **S i m i l a r i t y o f m e a n i n g s** or **metaphor** may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other. The word *hand*, e.g., acquired in the 16th century the meaning of 'a pointer of a clock or of a watch' because of the similarity of one of the functions performed by the hand (to point at something) and the function of the clockpointer. **C o n t i g u i t y o f m e a n i n g s** or **metonymy** may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. This can be perhaps best illustrated by the use of the word *tongue* — 'the organ of speech' in the meaning of 'language' (as in *mother tongue*; cf. also *L. lingua, Russ. язык*). The word *bench* acquired the meaning 'judges, magistrates' because it was on the *bench* that the judges used to sit in law courts.

Results of semantic change can be generally observed in the changes of the denotational meaning of the word (**restriction** and **extension** of meaning) or in the alteration of its connotational component (**amelioration** and **deterioration** of meaning). **E x t e n s i o n o f m e a n i n g** may be illustrated by the word *target* which originally meant 'a small round shield' (a diminutive of *targe*, cf. *ON. targa*) but now means 'any-

thing that is fired at' and also figuratively 'any result aimed at'. We can observe **restriction** and specialisation of meaning in the case of the verb *to glide* (OE. *glidan*) which had the meaning 'to move gently and smoothly' and has now acquired a restricted and specialised meaning 'to fly with no engine' (cf. *a glider*). Examples of amelioration are OE *cwen* 'a woman' > ModE *queen*, OE *cniht* 'a young servant' > ModE *knight*. The reverse process is called **pejoration** or **degradation**; it involves a lowering in social scale connected with the appearance of a derogatory and scornful emotive tone reflecting the disdain of the upper classes towards the lower ones. A similar case is present in the history of the word *clown*: the original meaning was also 'peasant' or 'farmer'. Now it is used in two variants: 'a clumsy, boorish, uncouth and ignorant man' and also 'one who entertains, as in a circus, by jokes, antics, etc'. Causes, nature and result of semantic changes should be regarded as three essentially different but closely connected aspects of the same linguistic phenomenon.

Tasks and Exercises

1. Using a dictionary determine the direct meaning of the underlined words, which are used here in their figurative metaphorical meanings.

1. Art is a vehicle of propaganda. 2. Raise the bonnet of the car. 3. Don't fumble for excuses. 4. He's always ready to shove the responsibility on others. 5. It will soil his reputation. 6. There is a snag in your argument 7. You have a fertile imagination.

2. Group the following words into motivated/non-motivated and define the type of motivation.

Sunrise, ding-dong, to hiss, a gardener, to grunt, a beaver, a workaholic, to discuss, a horse-fly, chicken, unanswerable, red, a driver, a killjoy, to crane (one's neck), a dollar

3. Determine the denotative and connotative meanings in the following pairs of words.

Muzzle vs face, fat vs plump, obstinate vs mulish, infant vs kid, beg vs implore, friend vs crony, fragrance vs reek, talent vs genius, gobble vs eat, money vs cash, odd vs queer, love vs adore

4. Each of the following groups of words might appear together in a thesaurus, but the words actually vary in connotation. After looking up any words whose connotation you are unsure of, write a sentence in which each word is used correctly. Briefly explain why one of the other words in the group should not be substituted.

1. Quiet, withdrawn, glum
2. Shrewd, clever, cunning

3. Strange, remarkable, bizarre
4. Thrifty, miserly, economical

5. Read the following paragraph and decide how the writer feels about the activity described. Note the choice of details and the connotative language that make you aware of the writer's attitude.

Needing to complete a missed assignment for my physical education class, I dragged myself down to the tennis courts on a gloomy afternoon. My task was to serve five balls in a row into the service box. Although I thought I had learned the correct service movements, I couldn't seem to translate that knowledge into a decent serve. I tossed up the first ball, jerked back my racket, swung up on the ball – clunk - I hit the ball on the frame.

6. Write a paragraph describing an activity that you liked or disliked without saying how you felt. From your choice of details and use of connotative language, convey your attitude toward the activity. (The paragraph in exercise 5 is your model.)

7. Trace the process of narrowing of meaning in the following words.
Starve, deer, hound, mare, meat, bread.

8. Try to give metaphorical or/ and metonymical meanings of the following words.
Dish, cup, oyster, slippery.

9. Define the type of transference which has taken place.

The wing of a bird – the wing of a building, the heart of a man – the heart of the matter, iron (metal) – iron (a hand-held implement that is heated (typically with electricity) to smooth clothes), the coat of a girl – the coat of a dog, to wear the crown every day – to succeed to the crown, green grass – green years, to be fond of old china – to travel to China.

10. Below are listed the original meanings of some simple words in Old English. As you see these meanings are different from those the words have now. Consult dictionaries and say what kind of semantic change was involved in the development of these words.

Bird, N- OE brid - nestling, fledgling; camp, N. - OE camp = battle, struggle, contest; deal, V. - OE daelan = share, distribute, take part; deer, N. -OE deor = animal, beast; dwell, V. - OE dwellan - lead astray, deceive, make a mistake; fair, A. - OE fzer = beautiful, pretty, sweet; fear, N. - OE faer - sudden attack, danger; fowl, N. - OE fuzol = bird; lord, N. - OE leaford - master; silly, A. - OE saliz = happy, blessed, holy

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Seminar 4

Polysemy and Homonymy in English

Topics for Discussion

1. Polysemy. Reasons for high polysemy in English. Sources of polysemy.
2. The use of lexical-semantic naming in English.
3. Meaning and context.
4. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word. Types of meaning (diachronic and synchronic approach to polysemy).
5. Homonymy. Sources of homonymy.
6. Classification of homonyms.
7. Polysemy vs. homonymy.

Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. **Polysemy** is very characteristic of the English vocabulary due to the monosyllabic character of English words and the predominance of root words. The greater the frequency of the word, the greater the number of meanings that constitute its semantic structure. Frequency - combinability - polysemy are closely connected. A special formula known as "Zipf's law" has been worked out to express the correlation between frequency, word length and polysemy: the shorter the word, the higher its frequency of use; the higher the frequency, the wider its combinability, i.e. the more word combinations it enters; the wider its combinability, the more meanings are realised in these contexts.

2–3. Polysemy is a phenomenon of language, not of speech. But the question arises: wouldn't it interfere with the communicative process? As a rule **the contextual meaning** represents only one of the possible lexico-semantic variants of the word. So polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because the situation and the context cancel all the unwanted meanings, as in the sentences: *The steak is tough. This is a tough problem Prof. Holborn is a tough examiner.*

By the term "**context**" we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualises the meanings, brings them out. The two main types of linguistic con-

texts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are **the lexical context and the grammatical context**. These types are differentiated depending on whether the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning. In **lexical context** of primary importance are lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words under consideration. The adjective *heavy* in isolation possesses the meaning "of great weight, weighty". When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena as *wind, storm*, etc. it means "striking, following with force, abundant", e.g. *heavy rain, wind, storm*, etc. In combination with the words *industry, arms, artillery* and the like, *heavy* has the meaning "the larger kind of something as *heavy industry, artillery*". In **grammatical context** it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. Consider the following examples: 1) *I made Peter study. He made her laugh. They made him work (sing, dance, write...)* 2) *My friend made a good teacher. He made a good husband.*

4. In polysemy we are faced with the problem of interrelation and interdependence of various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word. No general or complete scheme of types of lexical meanings as elements of a word's semantic structure has so far been accepted by linguists. The following terms may be found with different authors: **direct / figurative**, other oppositions are: **main / derived; primary / secondary; concrete/ abstract; central/ peripheral; general/ special; narrow / extended** and so on.

Meaning is **direct** when it nominates the referent without the help of a context, in isolation; meaning is **figurative** when the referent is named and at the same time characterised through its similarity with other objects, e.g. *tough meat* - direct meaning, *tough politician* - figurative meaning. Similar examples are: *head - head of a cabbage, foot -foot of a mountain, face - put a new face on smth*

Differentiation between the terms **primary / secondary; main / derived** meanings is connected with two approaches to polysemy: **diachronic and synchronic**. If viewed **diachronically** polysemy, is understood as the growth and development (or change) in the semantic structure of the word. The meaning the word *table* had in Old English is the meaning "a flat slab of stone or wood". It was its primary meaning, others were secondary and appeared later. They had been derived from the primary meaning. **Synchronically** polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language. In that case the problem of interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word

must be investigated from different points of view, that of main/ derived, central /peripheral meanings.

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

5–6. **Homonyms** are words which have the same form but are different in meaning. "The same form" implies identity in sound form or spelling, i.e. all the three aspects are taken into account: sound-form, graphic form and meaning.

The bulk of full homonyms are to be found within the same parts of speech (e.g. *seal*₁ *n* — *seal*₂ *n*), partial homonymy as a rule is observed in word-forms belonging to different parts of speech (e.g. *seal*₁ *n* — *seal*₃ *v*). This is not to say that partial homonymy is impossible within one part of speech. For instance in the case of the two verbs – *lie* [lai] – 'to be in a horizontal or resting position' and *lie* [lai] – 'to make an untrue statement' – we also find partial homonymy as only two word-forms [lai], [laiz] are homonymous, all other forms of the two verbs are different. Cases of full homonymy may be found in different parts of speech too; e.g. *for* [fo:] — preposition, *for* [fo:] — conjunction and *four* [fo:] — numeral, as these parts of speech have no other word-forms. Homonyms may be also classified by the type of meaning into **lexical**, **lexico-grammatical** and **grammatical homonyms**. (R.S.Ginzburg)

7. The most debatable problem of homonymy is the demarcation line between **homonymy and polysemy**, i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two or more phonemically different words. The criteria used in the synchronic analysis of homonymy are: 1) the semantic criterion of related or unrelated meanings; 2) the criterion of spelling; 3) the criterion of distribution. If homonymy is viewed diachronically then all cases of sound convergence of two or more words may be safely regarded as cases of homonymy, as, e.g., *race*₁ and *race*₂ can be traced back to two etymologically different words. The cases of semantic divergence, however, are more doubtful. The transition from polysemy to homonymy is a gradual process, so it is hardly possible to point out the precise stage at which divergent semantic development tears asunder all ties between the meanings and results in the appearance of two separate words. In the case of *flower*, *flour*, e.g., it is mainly the resultant divergence of graphic forms that gives us grounds to assert that the two meanings which originally made up the semantic structure of one word are now apprehended as belonging to two different words. There are cases of lexical homonymy when none of the criteria enumerated above is of any avail.

Tasks and Exercises

1. Copy out the following pairs of words grouping together the ones which represent the same meaning of each word. Explain the different meanings and the different usages.

Smart, adj

Smart clothes, a smart answer, a smart house, a smart garden, a smart officer, a smart repartee, a smart blow, a smart punishment

Sound, adj

Sound lungs, a sound scholar, a sound tennis-player, sound views, sound advice, sound criticism, a sound ship, sound whipping

Kick, v

To kick the ball, to kick the dog, to kick off one's slippers, to kick smb. downstairs

2. Read the entries for the English word "key" and the Russian «ключ» in dictionaries explain the difference in the semantic structure of both words, illustrate the semantic structure of the word "key" with a diagram.

3. Determine the main and derived meanings of the underlined words. Translate the sentences. Say whether lexical or grammatical context is predominant in determining the meaning of a word.

A. 1. Do not suspend the lamp from the ceiling, fix it to the wall. 2. The molecules of the substance remain suspended in the solution. 3. The law was suspended. 4. He was suspended from all international games for three years. 5. The Lords have the power to suspend non-financial legislation for two years.

B. 1. It's like having a loose cobra around the house. 2. You can get it loose or in packets. 3 To say so would be loose grammar. 4. Have the loose tooth out. 5. That would be rather a loose translation. 6. Fix the loose end to the wall. 7. Your shoe lace got loose. 8. There was some loose change in his pocket but nothing else. 9. He has loose manners.

C. 1. He gets up early. 2. The speaker called for an early settlement of the issue. 3. Do it at the earliest opportunity. 4. He wants an early answer. 5. Only a joint conference will bring about an early solution of the problem. 6. Early training tells. 7. The early bird catches the first worm.

D. 1. The steak is tough. 2. Don't worry, it won't get me down. I'm tough. 3. This is a tough problem. 4. He is for a tough policy. 5. Prof. Holborn is a tough examiner.

4. Explain, why the following concepts can be expressed in the English language by the words given in brackets.

1) Букет цветов, связка ключей, гроздь винограда (bunch), 2) отрываться (о двери), давать урожай (о земле), поддаваться искушению (yield), 3) брусок, засов, барьер (bar), 4) фальшивая монета, ложный шаг, вставные зубы, ложная тревога, неверный друг (false), 5) свалка, насыпь, глухой звук от падения тяжелого тела, демпинг (dump), 6) свита, шлейф, поезд, ход мыслей (train).

5. Prove that the meanings of the following polysemantic words are related. Comment on the semantic structure of the words from the synchronic (diachronic) point of view.

Hand, head, table.

6. Translate the following sentences. Find homonyms and define their types.

1. Excuse my going first, I'll lead the way. 2. Lead is heavier than iron. 3. He tears up all letters. 4. Her eyes filled with tears. 5. In England the heir to the throne is referred to as the Prince of Wales. 6. Let's go out and have some fresh air. 7. It is not customary to shake hands in England. If the hostess or the host offers a hand, take it; a bow is sufficient for the rest. 8. The girl had a bow of red ribbon in her hair.

7. Give homographs to the underlined words.

1. The sound of a cough close behind me made me turn my head. 2. The wound of Bucklaw was by no means fatal. 3. I'm tired of your rows. 4. "Bow to the Board", said Bumble. 5. He had to measure every minute changes of temperature.

8. Apply different criteria for differentiation between polysemy and homonymy in analysing the word *tap*.

9. Check your knowledge of English homonyms using Self-Study Homonym Quizzes (<http://a4esl.org/q/h/homonyms.html>).

10. Explain the basis for the following jokes.

1. Diner: Do you serve fish here?
Waiter: We serve anyone, sit down.

2. - Allow me to present my wife to you.
- Many thanks, but I have one.

3. -Where have you been for the last 4 years?
-At college taking medicine.
-And did you finally get well?
4. – Waiter, what do you call this?
– It’s bean soup, sir.
– I don’t care what it’s been. What is it now?
5. Professor: You missed my class yesterday, didn’t you?
Student: Not in the least, sir, not in the least

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Seminar 5

Semantic Relations of Words and Structure of the English Lexicon

Topics for Discussion

1. Ways of classifying lexicon.
2. Semantic relations in the lexicon.
3. The relations of inclusion.
4. Synonyms in the English language. Criteria of synonymy.
5. Types of synonyms. The dominant synonym. Euphemisms.
6. Antonymy.

Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. Modern English has a very extensive vocabulary. A question naturally arises whether this enormous word-stock is composed of separate independent lexical units, or it should perhaps be regarded as **a certain structured system** made up of numerous interdependent and interrelated sub-systems or groups of words. This problem may be viewed in terms of the possible ways of classifying vocabulary items. Attempts to study the inner structure of the vocabulary revealed that in spite of its heterogeneity the English word-stock may be analysed into numerous sub-systems the members of which have some features in common, thus distinguishing them from the members of other lexical sub-systems. Words can be classified in various ways. Here, however, we are concerned only with the semantic classification of words. Classification into monosemantic and polysemantic words is based on the number of meanings the word possesses. More detailed semantic classifications are generally based on the semantic simi-

larity (or polarity) of words or their component morphemes. The scope and the degree of similarity (polarity) may be different. (R.S.Ginzburg)

2. Words may be classified according to the concepts underlying their meaning. This classification is closely connected with **the theory of conceptual or semantic fields**. The members of the semantic fields are not synonyms but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component — the concept of colours or the concept of kinship, etc. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning. All members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and determine the meaning of its neighbours and is semantically delimited and determined by them. It follows that the word-meaning is to a great extent determined by the place it occupies in its semantic field. Semantic dependence of the word on the structure of the field may be illustrated by comparing members of analogous conceptual fields in different languages. Comparing, for example, kinship terms in Russian and in English we observe that the meaning *mother-in-law* is different from either the Russian *тёща* or *свекровь* as the English term covers the whole area which in Russian is divided between the two words. The same is true of the members of the semantic field of colours (cf. *blue* — *синий, голубой*), of human body (cf. *hand, arm* — *рука*) and others. (R.S.Ginzburg)

3. Another approach to the classification of vocabulary items into lexico-semantic groups is the study of **hyponymic relations** between words. By **h y p o n y m y** is meant a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, e.g., **vehicle** includes *car, bus, taxi* and so on; **oak** implies **tree**; relationship may be viewed as the hierarchical relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms. The general term (**vehicle**, tree, animal, etc.) is sometimes referred to as the classifier and serves to describe the lexico-semantic groups, e.g. Lexico-semantic groups (LSG) of vehicles, movement, emotions, etc. The individual terms can be said to contain (or entail) the meaning of the general term in addition to their individual meanings which distinguish them from each other (cf. the classifier **move** and the members of the group *walk, run, saunter*, etc.). It is of importance to *note* that in such hierarchical structures certain words may be both classifiers and members of the groups.

The more specific term is called **the hyponym** of the more general, and the more general is called **the hyperonym** or the classifier. A general problem with this principle of classification (just as with lexico-semantic group criterion) is that there often exist overlapping classifications. For example, *persons* may be divided into *adults* (man, woman, husband, etc.) and *children* (boy, girl, lad, etc.) but also into *national groups* (American, Russian, Chinese, etc.), *professional groups* (teacher,

butcher, baker, etc.), *social* and *economic groups*, and so on. Another problem of great importance for linguists is the dependence of the hierarchical structures of lexical units not only on the structure of the corresponding group of referents in real world but also on the structure of vocabulary in this or that language. This can be easily observed when we compare analogous groups in different languages. Thus, e.g., in English we may speak of the lexico-semantic group of meals which includes: *breakfast, lunch, dinner, supper, snack*, etc. The word *meal* is the classifier whereas in Russian we have no word for meals in general and consequently no classifier though we have several words for different kinds of meals. (R.S.Ginzburg)

4. **Synonyms** are words only similar but not identical in meaning. This definition is correct but vague. E. g. *horse* and *animal* are also semantically similar but not synonymous. **Synonyms** can be defined in terms of linguistics as two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable, at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, style, valency and idiomatic use. Additional characteristics of style, emotional colouring and valency peculiar to one of the elements in a synonymic group may be absent in one or all of the others. Synonyms are interchangeable under certain conditions specific to each group.

A further illustration will be supplied by a group of synonymous nouns: *hope, expectation, anticipation*. They are considered to be synonymous, because they all three mean 'having something in mind which is likely to happen'. They are less interchangeable than other groups because of more strongly pronounced difference in shades of meaning. *Expectation* may be either of good or of evil. *Anticipation*, as a rule, is a pleasurable expectation of something good. *Hope* is not only a belief but a desire that some event would happen. The stylistic difference is also quite marked. The Romance words *anticipation* and *expectation* are formal literary words used only by educated speakers, whereas the native monosyllabic *hope* is stylistically neutral. Moreover, they differ in idiomatic usage. Only *hope* is possible in such set expressions as: *hope against hope, lose hope, pin one's hopes on sth*. Neither *expectation* nor *anticipation* could be substituted into the following quotation from T.S. Eliot: *You do not know what hope is until you have lost it* (I.V. Arnold)

5. Taking into consideration the corresponding series of synonymous verbs and verbal set expressions: *hope, anticipate, expect, look forward to*, we shall see that separate words may be compared to whole set expressions. *Look forward to* is also worthy of note, because it forms a definitely colloquial counterpart to the rest. It can easily be shown, on the evidence of examples, that each synonymic group comprises a dominant element. This

synonymic dominant is the most general term of its kind potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group, as, for instance, *undergo* and *hope* in the above.

The **synonymic dominant** should not be confused with a **generic term** or a **hyperonym**. A generic term is relative. It serves as the name for the notion of the genus as distinguished from the names of the species — **hyponyms**.

Tasks and Exercises

1. Read the following passage. Compare the definitions.

By a **lexico-grammatical group** we understand a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possible characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning. These groups are subsets of the parts of speech, several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one part of speech. Thus English nouns are subdivided approximately into the following lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, collective names (for people), collective names (for animals), abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, proper names for people, toponymic names.

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

Semantic field is a closely knit sector of vocabulary characterised by a common concept (e.g. in the semantic field of space we find nouns (expanse, extent, surface); verbs (extend, spread, span); adjectives (spacious, roomy, vast, broad)). The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning, like the concept of kinship, concept of colour, parts of the human body and so on. The basis of grouping in this case is not only linguistic but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated, because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality.

Thematic (or ideographic) groups are groups of words joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things and events in objective reality. Contextual associations are formed as a result of regular co-occurrence of words in similar repeatedly used contexts. Thematic or ideographic groups are independent of classification into parts of speech. Words and expressions are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but according to their signification, i.e. to the system of logical notions (e.g. tree - grow - green; sunshine - brightly - blue - sky).

2. Arrange the following units into three lexical-semantic groups.

Affection, calmness, classes, classmate, contempt, course, curriculum, delight, drill, enthusiasm, envy, excitement, exercise, exhilaration, frustration, grammar, headmaster, homework, indifference, indignation, instruction, jealousy,

3. Give examples to illustrate the specific ways different languages cover the same semantic field.

4. State the hyperonym for the following words: birch, chestnut, lime, oak, willow, maple

5. Group the sentences into pairs so that in one sentence there should be a hyperonym (the more general term) and in the other - the hyponym (the more concrete term).

Model: The man was *murdered*. - The man was *poisoned*.

1. He gave her a ring with five emeralds as a birthday present. 2. The man was poisoned. 3. She looked at him. 4. He heard a nightingale singing. 5. He is an officer. 6. It's an old car. 7. She was wearing a black dress. 8. They built a boat. 9. The man was murdered. 10. She stared at him. 11. He is a colonel. 12. It's an old vehicle. 13. He gave her a ring with five precious stones as a birthday present. 14. They bought flowers in the shop. 15. She was wearing a dark dress. 16. She has got a child. 17. They built a yacht. 18. They bought lilacs in the shop. 19. She has got a daughter. 20. He heard a bird singing.

6. Arrange the following ideographic synonyms according to their degree of intensity

1) Longing, desire, wish; 2) alarmed, frightened, terrified; 3) accident, disaster, misfortune; 4) affliction, despair, sadness; 5) malicious, naughty, nasty, wicked

7. With the help of <http://www.thesaurus.com/> find synonyms to the following words and define the type of each synonym: to help, to begin, to see, to shout, to surprise, interesting, bad, drunk.

8. Find the synonymic dominant in the following groups of synonyms.

1. to glimmer - to glisten - to blaze - to shine - to sparkle - to gleam;
2. to glare - to gaze - to peep - to look - to stare - to glance;
3. to astound - to surprise - to amaze - to puzzle - to astonish;
4. strange - quaint - odd - queer;
5. to saunter - to stroll - to wander - to walk - to roam;

6. scent - perfume - smell - odour - aroma;
 7. to brood - to reflect - to meditate - to think;
 8. furious - enraged - angry;

9. Correct the mistakes in the translation and explain why they are often made.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1) Его вылечил доктор Тодд. | 1) It was Dr. Todd who treated him |
| 2) Когда вы сдаете экзамен по французскому языку? | 2) When will you pass your examination in French? |
| 3) Кто изобрел телефон? | 3) Who discovered the telephone? |
| 4) Он жил в гостинице под чужим именем. | 4) He lived under a pseudonym at a hotel. |
| 5) Заключение присяжных гласило: «Не виновен». | 5) The sentence of the jury was “Not guilty” |
| 6) Он давно отказался от этой мысли. | 6) He refused this idea long ago. |

10. Match the words in columns to find the right synonym for the euphemism.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------|
| Alternatively schooled | housework |
| Chronologically gifted | dishonest |
| Optically challenged | victim |
| Hair disadvantaged | uneducated |
| Survivor | old |
| Domestic art | blind |
| Morally different | bald |

11. Read the politically correct phrases for students:

- These days, a student isn't lazy. He's “energetically declined”.
- Your homework isn't missing; it's just having an “out-of-notebook-experience”.
- You don't talk a lot. You're just “abundantly verbal”.
- You're not late. You just have a “rescheduled arrival time”.
- It's not called gossip any more. It's “the speedy transmission of near-factual information”.
- The food at the University canteen isn't awful. It's “digestively challenged”

12. Find in group B opposite in meaning to those in group A

- A: save, accurate, bear in mind, prosperity, pride, dry, quickly, slender, rare, modest, brilliant, blur, prudence, generosity.
- B: wet, stout, arrogant, selfishness, lusterless, clear, inexact, wastefulness, humility, forget, poverty, ordinary, waste, slowly.

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Seminar 6 **English Phraseology**

Topics for Discussion

1. Phraseology: general characteristics
2. Lexical and grammatical valency in word groups.
3. Free word groups vs. phraseological units.
4. Classification of phraseological units.

Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. In lexicology there is great ambiguity of the terms **phraseology** and **idioms**. Opinions differ as to how phraseology should be defined, classified, described and analysed. The word "phraseology" has very different meanings in this country and in Great Britain or the United States. In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V.V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (A.I. Smirnitsky), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I.V. Arnold). N.N. Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact. O.S. Ahmanova insists on the semantic integrity of such phrases prevailing over the structural separateness of their elements. A.V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability. Difference in terminology ("set-phrases", "idioms", "word-equivalents") reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups. The term "set phrase" implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups. The term "idiom" generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units is idiomaticity or lack of motivation. The term "word-equivalent" stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words.

2. The range of **the lexical valency** of words is linguistically restricted by the inner structure of the English word-stock. This can be easily observed in the selection of synonyms found in different word-groups. Though the verbs *lift* and *raise*, e.g., are usually treated as synonyms, it is only the latter that is collocated with the noun *question*. The verb *take* may be synonymically interpreted as 'grasp', 'seize', 'catch', 'lay hold of, etc. but it is only *take* that is found in collocation with the nouns *examination*, *measures*, *precautions*, etc., only *catch* in *catch smb. napping* and *grasp* in *grasp the truth*.

The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures is termed **grammatical valency**. It should also be pointed out that the individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be described through its grammatical valency. Thus, different meanings of the adjective *keen* may be described in a general way through different structures of the word-groups *keen+N*, — *keen sight (hearing, etc.)*, *keen + on + N* — *keen on sports (on tennis, etc.)*, *keen+V(inf.)* — *keen to know (to find out, etc.)*. From this point of view word-groups may be regarded as minimal syntactic (or syntagmatic) structures that operate as distinguishing clues for different meanings of a polysemantic word.

3. The complexity of the problem may be largely accounted for by the fact that the border-line between **free** or variable **word-groups** and **phraseological units** is not clearly defined. The so-called free word-groups are only relatively free as collocability of their member-words is fundamentally delimited by their lexical and grammatical valency which makes at least some of them very close to set-phrases. Phraseological units are comparatively stable and semantically inseparable. Between the extremes of complete motivation and variability of member-words on the one hand and lack of motivation combined with complete stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure on the other hand there are innumerable border-line cases (R.S.Ginsburg.)

4. There are different ways of **classifying phraseological units** in English: semantic, structural, contextual, etymological (genetic), stylistic and others. The semantic classification was introduced by academician V.V. Vinogradov. It is based on the relation of the meaning of the whole unit and the meanings of its components, on the degree of semantic cohesion between the components of a phraseological unit. There are three types of phraseological units according to the given classification: phraseological fusions (idioms), phraseological unities and phraseological combinations.

In Professor Smirnitsky's classification structural and semantic principles are combined. He distinguishes three types of stable combinations in the language: idioms, phraseological units, traditional phrases. Professor Smirnitsky singles out two semantico-structural types of phraseological

units: one-summit phraseological units and two-summit (or multi-summit) phraseological units.

N.N. Amosova introduced the contextological principle of distinguishing phraseological units. Context is a combination of a semantically dependent word with an indicator. In her classification N.N. Amosova subdivides phraseological units into phrasemes and idioms.

If we regard a set phrase as a word equivalent and pay attention to the function it fulfills in speech, set expressions can be subdivided into: verbal, nominal, attributive, adverbial, conjunctive, interjectional, prepositional set phrases. Within the functional classes set expressions are often classified according to their structural type, which may be represented by their distributional formulas.

In A.V. Koonin's classification classes of phraseological units are distinguished on the basis of the function of phraseological units in the course of communication which is determined by their structural and semantic peculiarities. Koonin's structural-semantic-functional phraseological units are subdivided into: nominative, nominative-communicative, interjectional, communicative. According to the etymological principle set phrases may be divided into native and borrowed. The genetic classification (which is sometimes called "thematic") reveals the origin of the set phrase.

Tasks and Exercises

1. Complete the following sentences with appropriate verbs which are frequently collocated with the given nouns.

1. Although our company wants to expand rapidly, we must in mind that we have limited cash to do so.
2. It is important to..... into account all options beforea decision.
3. The Financial Director has the conclusion that we must reduce costs by 10%.
4. Finally, the Chairman his opinion about the matter. After we had listened to him, we were able to.....to an agreement.
5. Patricia an interesting suggestion at the meeting.
6. If we don't come up with new products, we the risk of falling behind our competitors.
7. Our chairman is too old for the job. Some of the directors have..... pressure on him to resign.

2. Listed below are some words with a very narrow range of combinability (1). Find words they go with to produce free word combinations in the second list (2).

(1) Aquiline *a*, be thwarted in *v*, catholic *a*, shrug *v*, tacky *a*, tick *v*, wistful *a*, wolf *v*.

(2) shoulders, profile, plans, paint, tastes, eyes, nose, food, aims, sympathies, mood, varnish, expression, watch, manner, ambitions, meter, interests

3. Using online Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English find all the words that are commonly used in combination with the nouns *tension, decision, beauty* and compare their lexical valency in the two languages.

4. What is the source of the following idioms?

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, Solomon's judgement, the sword of Damocles

5. Explain the meaning of the following combinations of words: a) as free word combinations and b) as phraseological units.

Be on firm ground, best man, the bird has flown, black ball, blow one's own trumpet (horn), break the ice, burn one's fingers, first night, keep one's head above water, meet smb. half-way, show smb. the door, run straight, touch bottom, throw dust in one's eyes, throw fat in the fire.

6. Read about one of the classifications of idioms and explain the difference between phraseological collocations, phraseological unities and phraseological fusions.

In his classification of V.V. Vinogradov developed some points first advanced by the Swiss linguist Charles Bally. The classification is based upon the motivation of the unit, i.e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its component parts. The degree of motivation is correlated with the rigidity, indivisibility and semantic unity of the expression, i.e. with the possibility of changing the form or the order of components, and of substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of phraseological units are suggested, phraseological combinations, phraseological unities, and phraseological fusions. The Phraseological Collocations (Combinations), are partially motivated, they contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand, meet the necessity, meet the requirements*. Phraseological unities are much more numerous. They are clearly motivated. The emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole as in *to stick (to stand) to one's guns*, i.e. 'refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition', implying courage and integrity. The example reveals another characteristic of the type, the

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

7. State which of the phraseological units are a) collocations (combinations) b) unities c) fusions

Bark up the wrong tree, air one's views, turn a blind eye to smth., to hit below the bolt, to lower one's colours, to make a mistake, once in a blue moon, to make haste, sharp words, to stick to one's guns, to know the way the wind is blowing, small talk, take the bull by the horns, pull smb's leg, cat's paw, lady's man, by heart, green room.

8. Read the following jokes, find and translate phraseological units.

- 1) Tom: What would you do if were in my shoes?
Tim: Polish them!
- 2) He: Don't you hate people who talk behind your back?
She: Yes, especially at the movies.
- 3) H: Arthur hasn't been out one night for three weeks.
F: Has he turned over a new leaf?
H: No, he's turned over a new car.

9. Check your knowledge of lexical collocations and idioms in English with the help of online collocation quizzes

<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/quizzes/quiznet/index.shtml>

10. Project work

1. Enter www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish, section "The Teacher" and listen to the way the teacher explains English idioms. Make up your own explanation by analogy (or just reproduce one of the teacher's)
2. Make up an art gallery of a few English phraseological units.

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Module 2
Test Yourself Questions

1. What is word meaning?
2. What semantic components constitute word meaning?
3. What is the difference between the referential and functional approaches to meaning?
4. What are the three types of motivation found in words?
5. What types of transference can you name?
6. What are the causes of polysemy?
7. Is polysemy an advantage or a disadvantage so far as the process of communication is concerned?
8. What are the two levels of analysis in investigating the semantic structure of the word?
9. How can one distinguish between the different meanings of a word and the different variations of combinability?
10. Which words do we call homonyms?
11. What are the main semantic relations in the lexicon?
12. What is understood by the term “semantic field”?
13. What paradigmatic relations do you know?
14. What are the criteria of synonymy?
15. How does the law of synonymic attraction read?
16. Prove that the “freedom” of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary.
17. What are the two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word groups?
18. How would you explain the terms “ grammatical invariability” and “semantic unity”?
19. What is the basis of the traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units?
20. What types of phraseological units does V.V.Vinogradov distinguish? What is the basic criterion he used?

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MODULE 3. MORPHEMIC AND DERIVATIVE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS. DIFFERENTIATION AND STRATIFICATION OF THE ENGLISH LEXICON

Aims This module has three principal aims: 1) to examine the major morphological features of English, using insights from more general linguistic theory, 2) to explore in theory and practice the types of word-formation in modern English, 3) to familiarize students with different ways of differentiation and stratification of the English vocabulary.

Learning outcomes On successful completion of this module a student should be able to:

- analyze morphological word structure;
- demonstrate an understanding of the difference between morphological and derivational analysis;

- differentiate between derived and compound words;
- demonstrate an understanding of the main problems of word-formation;
- explain the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation;
- explain the difference between language and dialect;
- compare the variants of the English language;
- analyze specific features of American English.

Module Key Terms

| | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| morpheme | the IC and UC method |
| part-of-speech meaning | derivational analysis |
| free morpheme | derivational base |
| bound morpheme | derivational pattern |
| affixation | conversion |
| the literary layer | dialect |
| the colloquial layer | the standard norm |
| the neutral layer | varieties of a language |
| professionalisms | territorial varieties |
| jargonisms | slang |

Seminar 7

Morphological Structure of English Words. Word-building

Topics for Discussion

1. Morphology. Morpheme. Types of meaning in morpheme. Classification of morphemes.
2. Morphemic and derivational analyses of English words.
3. Derivational structure of a word. Derivative types of words.
4. Conversion. Reasons for high productivity of conversion in English. Conversion of nouns and verbs. Substantivation.
5. Affixation. Prefixation. Suffixation.
6. Compounding. Classification of compounds.
7. Minor types of modern word-building: shortening, sound-imitation, reduplication, back-formation.

Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. The word is not the smallest unit of the language. It consists of morphemes. The **morpheme** may be defined as the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and which occurs in speech only as a part of a word. **Word formation** is the creation of new words from ele-

ments already existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation.

2–3. **Morphemic analysis.** The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. This method is based upon the binary principle, i.e. each stage of procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents (IC). Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to as Ultimate Constituents (UC). The analysis of word-structure on the morphemic level must naturally proceed to the stage of UC-s.

The analysis of the morphemic composition of words defines the ultimate meaningful constituents (UCs), their typical sequence and arrangement, but it does not reveal the hierarchy of morphemes making up the word, neither does it reveal the way a word is constructed, nor how a new word of similar structure should be understood. The morphemic analysis does not aim at finding out the nature and arrangement of ICs which underlie the structural and the semantic type of the word, e.g. words *unmanly* and *discouragement* morphemically are referred to the same type as both are segmented into three UCs representing one root, one prefixational and one suffixational morpheme. However the arrangement and the nature of ICs and hence the relationship of morphemes in these words is different — in *unmanly* the prefixational morpheme makes one of the ICs, the other IC is represented by a sequence of the root and the suffixational morpheme and thus the meaning of the word is derived from the relations between the ICs *un-* and *manly-* ('not manly'), whereas *discouragement* rests on the relations of the IC *discourage-* made up by the combination of the prefixational and the root-morphemes and the suffixational morpheme *-ment* for its second IC ('smth that discourages'). Hence we may infer that these three-morpheme words should be referred to different derivational types: *unmanly* to a prefixational and *discouragement* to a suffixational derivative.

The nature, type and arrangement of the ICs of the word is known as its **derivative structure**. Though the derivative structure of the word is closely connected with its morphemic or morphological structure and often coincides with it, it differs from it in principle. The basic elementary units of the **derivative structure of words** are: **derivational bases**, **derivational affixes** and **derivational patterns** which differ from the units of the morphemic structure of words (different types of morphemes). The relations between words with a common root but of different derivative structure are known as d e r i v a -

tive relations. The derivative structure and derivative relations make the subject of study at **the derivational level of analysis**; it aims at establishing correlations between different types of words, the structural and semantic patterns words are built on.

4. **Conversion** has been the subject of a great many linguistic discussions since 1891 when H. Sweet first used the term in his *New English Grammar*. Various opinions have been expressed on the nature and character of conversion in the English language and different conceptions of conversion have been put forward. The treatment of conversion as a morphological way of forming words accepted in the present book was suggested by the late Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky in his works on the English language. Other linguists sharing, on the whole, the conception of conversion as a morphological way of forming words disagree, however, as to what serves here as a word-building means. Some of them define conversion as a non-affixal way of forming words pointing out that the characteristic feature is that a certain stem is used for the formation of a different word of a different part of speech without a derivational affix being added. Others hold the view that conversion is the formation of new words with the help of a zero-morpheme.

Tasks and Exercises

1. Analyse the following words morphologically and classify them according to the part of speech they belong to:

post-election, appoint, historic, mainland, classical, letterbox, outcome, displeasure, step, incapable, supersubtle, illegible, incurable, adjustment, ladyhood, elastic, perceptible, inaccessible, partial, ownership, idealist, hero, long-term, corporate.

2. Check your knowledge of English suffixation and prefixation with the help of the quizzes http://www.prof2000.pt/users/tereza_n/abstr_n_1.htm, http://www.prof2000.pt/users/tereza_n/abstr_n_2.htm, <http://a4esl.org/q/h/vm/negprefix.html>,

3. Translate the word combinations and produce derivational analysis of the adjectives.

Unanswerable questions, a debatable point, inexplicable facts, inexcusable mistakes, incomparable things, inseparable friends, incurable diseases, activities punishable by law.

4. Read the following passage. Explain why the pair of words *love, n.* and *love, v.* do not present a case of conversion.

One should guard against thinking that every case of noun and verb (verb and adjective, adjective and noun, etc.) with the same morphemic shape results from conversion. There are numerous pairs of words (e. g. *love, n.* – *to love, v.*; *work, n.* – *to work, v.*; *drink, n.* – *to drink, v.*, etc.)

which did not occur due to conversion but coincided as a result of certain historical processes (dropping of endings, simplification of stems) when before that they had different forms (e. g. O. E. *lufu*, n. — *lufian*, v.). On the other hand, it is quite true that the first cases of conversion (which were registered in the 14th c.) imitated such pairs of words as *love*, n. — *to love*, v. for they were numerous in the vocabulary and were subconsciously accepted by native speakers as one of the typical language patterns.

5. Translate the sentences. What makes them difficult to translate?

Milk shakes taste sweet. Can meat and fruit. Serve the wine chilled. Automobile exhaust gases foul the air. But me no buts. She takes a five in shoes. Why shoulder the burden alone? Storks winter in the South.

6. Translate and classify the compounds, comment on their derivation.

A break-through, an out-of-towner, to go goose-fleshy, deep-rooted habits, a general fedupness, frost-bitten fruit, level-headed diplomats, ready-to-serve food, a do-or-die question, to frontpage the news, a countdown, to skindive, a busybody

7. Comment on the way the underlined words are formed.

1. After dinner, the woman cleared the table. 2. Finally, to quiet him, she said, she hadn't really meant it. 3. Don't baby him. 4. Underachievers should be expelled. 5. He soft-shoed into the room. 6. Vacuumclean the upholstered furniture. 7. A win in this match is a must. 8. Turn your oughts into shalls. 9. – Are you training for a race? – No, I'm racing for a train!

8. How many abbreviations can you decipher?

CIC, POW, NATO, CIA, UNO, BBC, PM, AP, i.e., p.h., p.t.o., EEC, Colo, cf., GDP

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Seminar 8

Differentiation and stratification of the English lexicon

Topics for Discussion

1. Stylistic classification of the English lexicon.
2. Formal and informal words
3. Varieties of the English lexicon.
4. American variant of the English languages.

Subject Matter Approaches and Definitions of Principal Concepts

1–2. Just as there is formal and informal dress, so there is **formal and informal speech**. One is not supposed to turn up at a ministerial reception or at a scientific symposium wearing a pair of brightly coloured pyjamas. Consequently, the social context in which the communication is taking place determines both the mode of dress and the modes of speech. The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, in other words, on the functional style it represents. The term *functional* style is generally accepted in modern linguistics. Professor I. V. Arnold defines it as "a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication". By the sphere of communication we mean the circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a lecture, an informal talk, a formal letter, an intimate letter, a speech in court, etc. All these circumstances or situations can be roughly classified into two types: formal (a lecture, a speech in court, an official letter, professional communication) and informal (an informal talk, an intimate letter). Accordingly, functional styles are classified into two groups, with further subdivisions depending on different situations.

Informal vocabulary is used in one's immediate circle: family, relatives or friends. But it should be pointed out that the informal talk of well-educated people considerably differs from that of the illiterate or the semi-educated; the choice of words with adults is different from the vocabulary of teenagers; people living in the provinces use certain regional words and expressions. Consequently, the choice of words is determined in each particular case not only by an informal (or formal) situation, but also by the speaker's educational and cultural background, age group, and his occupational and regional characteristics. Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three types: *colloquial*, *slang* and *dialect words and word-groups*. In general, **formal words** fall into two main groups: words associated with professional communication and a less exclusive group of so-called *learned words*. (Antrushina G.B.)

In accordance with the already-mentioned division of language into literary and colloquial, we may represent the whole of the word-stock of the English language as being divided into three main layers: **the literary layer, the neutral layer and the colloquial layer**. The literary and the colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups each of which has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. This common property, which unites the different groups of words within the layer, may be called its aspect. The aspect of the literary layer is its markedly bookish character. It is this that makes the layer more or less stable. The aspect of the colloquial layer of words is its lively spoken character. It is this that makes it unstable, fleeting. The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character.

That means it is unrestricted in its use. It can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity. It is this that makes the layer the most stable of all. The literary vocabulary consists of the following groups of words: 1. common literary; 2. terms and learned words; 3. poetic words; 4. archaic words; 5. barbarisms and foreign words; 6. literary coinages including nonce-words. The colloquial vocabulary falls into the following groups: 1. common "colloquial words; 2. slang; 3. jargonisms; 4. professional words; 5. dialectal words; 6. vulgar words; 7. colloquial coinages. 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, (non-literary) vocabulary. (Galperin I.R.)

3. Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial variants of a national language and local dialects. **Variants** of a language are regional varieties of a standard literary language characterised by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and grammar and by their own literary norms. **Dialects** are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities, they are set off (more or less sharply) from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. (Ginsburg I.R.)

There are distinguished variants existing on the territory of the United Kingdom (British English, Scottish English and Irish English), and variants existing outside the British Isles (American English, Canadian English, Australian English, New Zealand English, South African English and Indian English). British English is often referred to the written Standard English and the pronunciation known as Received.

4. **American English** is the variety of the English language spoken in the USA. The first wave of English-speaking immigrants was settled in North America in the 17th century. In this century, there were also speakers in North America of the Dutch, French, German, native American, Spanish, Swedish and Finnish languages. The vocabulary used by American speakers, has distinctive features of its own. There are whole groups of words which belong to American vocabulary exclusively and constitute its specific features. These words are called Americanisms. The first group of such words may be described as historical Americanisms, e.g. *fall* 'autumn', *to guess* 'to think', *sick* 'ill, unwell'. In American usage these words still retain their old meanings whereas in British English their meanings have changed or fell out of use. The second group of Americanisms includes words which are not likely to be discovered in British vocabulary. These words may be called proper Americanisms. They were coined by the early Americans which had to find names for the new environment (flora and

fauna) and new conditions of life, e.g. *redbud* - 'an American tree having small budlike pink flowers, the state tree of Oklahoma'; *blue-grass* - 'a sort of grass peculiar to North America'. Another group of Americanisms consists of words which may be described as specifically American borrowings. e.g. *ranch*, *sombrero* (Spanish borrowings), *toboggan*, *caribou* (Indian borrowings). One more group of Americanisms is represented by American shortenings. These are shortenings which were produced on American soil, but may be used in other variants of English as well, e.g. *dorm* (dormitory), *mo* (moment), *cert* (certainty).

Tasks and Exercises

1. Try to guess the meaning of the italicized colloquial words and expressions in the sentences. Then check it up using a dictionary.

1. Would you like *to go to the flicks* tonight? 2. There was a fearful mess in the room, and piles of unwashed *crocks* in the kitchen. 3. Don't look so *miz*. 4. Never heard anything so bloody *daft* in all my life. 5. They're different somehow than when I first *hang around* with them.

2. Suggest neutral synonyms to the poetic words.

Behold, deem, gore, array, lone, murky, ere, albeit.

3. Do the online exercise (edit the sentences by replacing the informal words or phrases with formal ones)

<http://www2.elc.polyu.edu.hk/CILL/eap/correction-big.htm>

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

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

5. Try to solve these problems.

a. If an American / a British man asks for a bill, is he more likely to be in a bank or a café?

b. If an American / a British man says that he works on the second floor, how many flights of stairs do you need to climb?

c. Which would surprise you more an American or a British man telling you that he wanted to go and change his pants?

d. Would an American / a British child get something hot or something cold if he/she asked for some potato chips?

e. Where would you take an American / a British guest who said they wanted to wash up?

6. Give the British equivalents. One-way or round trip? 2. Pass me the cookies. 3. It's in the trunk. 4. Open the drapes. 5. I had a blow out. 6. I hate waiting in the line. 7. We've run out of gas.

7. Read the passage. Discuss the influence over linguistic norms of Standard English exerted by cultures of different English-speaking countries.

Marriage Lines

In the culture of India, religion, caste, colour, region, and economic status traditionally play a major role in marriage arrangements. As a consequence, newspaper matrimonial advertisements are very different in style compared with the equivalent lonely hearts' items in the Western press, and use very different vocabulary. More importantly, many items which seem familiar need to be reinterpreted, if their correct sense in the Indian context is to be appreciated. A cultural reading of the vocabulary brings to light several points of semantic difference. • bride with a male child is a widow or divorcee with a son, mentioned in view of the priority given in Indian society to a male heir, whether natural or adopted. • divorcee is a strongly negative term, compared with its modern Western use. • full particulars would be an astrological reference — a request for a horoscope. • good-looking has to be seen in contrast with other phrases used in this context, such as exceptionally beautiful; it suggests 'average' rather than (as in the West) 'above-average'. • respectable, well-placed, and well-established carry implications of economic standing: a highly respectable family is a rich one. • stable charactered and sincere suggest loyalty and devotion to a marriage partner, despite a readiness to socialize with the opposite sex. • working girl and employed girl have mixed connotations, as some families will accept a bride who is working, whereas others will not.

8. Project work.

In a group of four students find video illustrating dialects or varieties of the English language and be ready to imitate them and to comment on them.

Module 3

Test Yourself Questions

1. What are the main ways of enriching the English vocabulary?
2. What do we mean by derivation?

3. What is the difference between frequency and productivity of affixes?
4. Which categories of parts of speech are especially affected by conversion?
5. What features of Modern English have produced the high productivity of conversion?
6. Into what groups and subgroups can compounds be subdivided structurally? Illustrate your answer with examples.
7. What are the two processes of making shortenings?
8. What minor processes of word-building do you know?
9. What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
10. What is the standard norm of the language?
11. What does the term 'Standard English' mean?
12. What variants of the English language do you know?
13. What variant of English is considered to be Standard English?
14. What variants of the English language outside the British Isles can be singled out?
15. What distinctive features does the vocabulary of American English have?
16. What does Canadian English have in common with: a) American English; b) British English?
17. In what way does the American variant of English differ from British English?
18. What are the spelling differences between American English and British English words?

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