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ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY
in Practice

IVANO-FRANKIVSK

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Навчальний посібник “English Lexicology in Practice” складається із розробок семінарських занять з лексикології для студентів освітнього рівня бакалавр спеціальностей 035 Філологія, 014 Середня освіта і відповідно спеціалізацій 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська, 014.021 Англійська мова та зарубіжна література, що мають сприяти якісному самостійному оволодінню студентами програмою цієї навчальної дисципліни. Посібник охоплює питання для обговорення на практичних заняттях, лінгвістичні терміни, глосарій, різноманітні види вправ та завдань, а також рекомендовану літературу для самостійного опрацювання.

Друкується за ухвалою вченої ради факультету іноземних мов
Прикарпатського національного університету імені Василя Стефаника

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PREFACE

The materials in this book developed out of a course in English Lexicology that I have taught at the university in Ivano-Frankivsk over the last fifteen years. It is intended not only to assist students who begin in the study of Lexicology through observing, analysing and interpreting language phenomena but also to arouse curiosity about English words and about language in general, especially among those who are specialised in linguistics.

The book contains extended outlines used at eight seminars, all of them dedicated to the problems lectured: Lexicology as a branch Linguistics; Etymology of English Words; Morphological structure of a word. Affixation; Word-formation in modern English: Conversion, Compounding, Shortening and other word-formation processes; Semasiology, Development and change of the semantic structure of a word; Homonyms. Synonyms. Antonyms; Phraseology. Each section follows a regular pattern:

A. Items for discussion.

B. Key terms.

C. Glossary with definitions of essential linguistic terms to help the student better understand the points discussed.

D. Suggested questions and activities covering various problems to revise the topic accomplished by a multiple choice test. It also contains a wide range of exercises and plenty of examples they are meant to practise for undertaking analysis of English words. They all are suitable for the use both in class and for self-study.

E. Reading matters. You may choose some good references from the list of suggested literature at the end of each section and find it useful being further engaged in the theory of English Lexicology.

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Ivano-Frankivsk
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SEMINAR 1

LEXICOLOGY. GENERAL PROBLEMS AND TERMINOLOGY

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The object of Lexicology. Basic terms and notions.
2. Links of Lexicology with other branches of Linguistics: phonetics, grammar, stylistics, history of the language.
3. The structure of English Vocabulary.
4. Specific features of the present-day English word-stock.

B. KEY TERMS: *language units, words, phraseological units (idioms), phrasal verbs, morphemes, synchronic method of study, diachronic method of study, typical context, collocation, collocability (combinability), language relationships (paradigmatic and syntagmatic), word-families, synonymic sets, synonyms, homonyms, antonyms, lexical (semantic) fields, thematic groups, hyponymy, meronymy, stylistic layers.*

C. GLOSSARY

LEXICOLOGY is the part of linguistics that deals with the properties of words and the vocabulary of a language.

GENERAL LEXICOLOGY treats of general laws, characteristics of the word irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.

SPECIAL LEXICOLOGY devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given tongue.

HISTORICAL LEXICOLOGY deals with the history of the vocabulary of the language showing its change and development in the course of time.

DESCRIPTIVE LEXICOLOGY deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

COLLOCATION is a relationship observable between the items when they are arranged in texts, spoken or written.

SYNTAGMATIC RELATIONSHIPS is a type of textual relationships between words that are observed within a chain (a concrete utterance).

PARADIGMATIC RELATIONSHIPS are relations between different words that are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary, i.e. on the systematic nature of a language.

HYPONYMY is the lexical relation corresponding to the inclusion of one class in another. The meanings of the names of species (hyponyms) are included in the meaning which functions as the generic term (the hyperonym).

MERONYMY is the semantic relation between a lexical item denoting a part and that denoting the corresponding whole.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Define the notion of Lexicology. What language does the term “lexicology” come from?
2. What are the objects of studies by English Lexicology?
3. How would you define the difference between General Lexicology and Special Lexicology?
4. What methods of scientific research do Historical Lexicology and Descriptive Lexicology employ?
5. Speak on the links between Lexicology and Phonetics, Lexicology and Grammar, Lexicology and Stylistics, Lexicology and History of the language.
6. What kind of system does English vocabulary present?
7. How are syntagmatic linguistic relationships different from paradigmatic ones?
8. What are the specific features of the present-day English word-stock?

EXERCISES

1. Examine the following definitions of “lexicology”. What do they agree on as the scope of lexicology? And where they disagree?
 1. An area of language study concerned with the nature, meaning, history and use of words and word elements and often also with the critical description of lexicography. (*McArthur, T. (ed.) (1992) The Oxford Companion to the English Language*)
 2. The study of the overall structure and history of the vocabulary of a language. (*Collins English Dictionary 1998*)
 3. A branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning and use of words. (*Longman Dictionary of the English Language 1991*)
 4. The study of the form, meaning, and behaviour of words. (*New Oxford Dictionary of English 1998*)
 5. Lexicology is a subset of semantics, the study of meaning. (*Madsen, R. Lexicology: A Textbook for TEFL Students 2022*)

2. Give what you think are the typical collocations for the words in the following structures.

- false (adj.) + N
- fundamental (adj.) + N
- spend (v) + object N
- behave (v) + adj.
- boost (v) + N
- adj. + trauma

3. Fill in the grid. Indicate normal collocations with a tick (✓), doubtful or unusual ones with a question mark (?), and unacceptable ones with a cross (×).

	a laugh	a smoke	an experience	a trip
take				
make				
have				
do				

4. How do everyday words denoting size collocate with single nouns?

	problem	amount	shame	man
large				
great				
big				
major				

- ✓ = collocates
- ? = questionable
- × = does not

5. Give the opposites of *light* and *rough* in English.

- light bag* /
- light wind* /
- light colours* /

- rough sea* /
- rough texture* /

rough area /

rough person /

rough diamond /

rough calculation /

6. Construct the hyponymy tree with the superordinate term. Can you identify any lexical gaps or where you need to use the same term on more than one level? What are the most general words that you have included? What are the most specific?

container tomato hammer bench day vehicle

7. For each of the following sets of words, say what the principle is that groups them into a set. Is the principle one of a common meaning, related forms of a lexeme, or something else (please specify)?

1 *saunter, plod, pace, stroll, trudge*

2 *speak, speaks, spoke, speaking, spoken*

3 *teacher, coach, governess, guru, instructor, lecturer, pedagogue, schoolmaster, schoolmistress, trainer, tutor, supervisor*

4 *telephone, dial, number, answer, ring, engaged*

5 *rich, wealthy, well-off, loaded, well-heeled, a warm man*

8. Define the stylistic value of each of the following words (formal, neutral, colloquial, slang, etc.).

to betoken (to mean, to symbolize), vale (a valley), nitrate (a compound containing nitrogen), peacherino (a pretty girl), gravitate (to move towards somebody/something you are attracted to), hooky (a thief), trap (the mouth), treaders (shoes).

9. Classify the following words into groups, comprising the generic term (hyperonym) and the names of the species (hyponyms).

Acacia, ash, aspen, baobab, bed, birch, bookcase, buffet, buggy, bureau, bus, cabinet, car, carriage, cart, cedar, chair, chest, chestnut, chicken, cock, couch, cupboard, cypress, desk, dresser, duck, Earth, elm, eucalyptus, fir, fowl, furniture, goose, hen, highboy, Jupiter, maple, Mars, Mercury, mirror, motorcycle, Neptune, oak, palm, pheasant, pine, plane, planet, Pluto, poplar, rover, Saturn, sequoia, sideboard, sleigh, sofa, stool, sycamore,

swan, table, taxi, tree, truck, turkey, Uranus, van, vehicle, Venus, wagon, walnut, willow

10. Group the following words into chains according to their similarity in

a. grammatical meaning / b. lexical meaning

Model: boy's – ship's – friend's (grammatical meaning, possessive case)

Boy's, nearest, at, beautiful, think, man, drift, wrote, tremendous, ship's, table, near, for, went, friend's, handsome, thinking, boy, nearer, thought, boys, lamp, go, during.

TEST

1. The term "lexicology" comes from

- a) a French word
- b) a Latin word
- c) a Greek word

2. Define the superordinate term among the following hyponyms: *stalk, skin, flesh, seed, core*

- a) an orange
- b) an apple
- c) a hazelnut

3. Point out the generic term (hyperonym) in the following group of words: *rubbers, shoes, footwear, over-shoes, slippers, boots, felt-boots*

- a) shoes
- b) boots
- c) footwear

4. Lexicology as a branch of General Linguistics is connected with

- a) Phonetics and Grammar
- b) Stylistics and History of the language
- c) Phonetics, Grammar, Stylistics, History of the language

5. What systemic relationships are based on the linear character of speech?

- a) syntagmatic
- b) derivational
- c) paradigmatic

6. Special lexicology studies

- a) the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given tongue
 - b) the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development
 - c) the history of the vocabulary of the language showing its change and development in the course of time
7. Choose a set of words where syntagmatic relationships are observed
- a) bag, briefcase, handbag, purse, rucksack, suitcase
 - b) teacher, coach, lecturer, instructor, tutor, pedagogue
 - c) green leaves, green years, green fruit, green teacher
8. Choose a set of words where paradigmatic relationships are observed
- a) hand, handy, handwriting, handwritten, handful, handball
 - b) heavy sky, heavy bag, heavy rain, heavy heart, heavy supper
 - c) white light, white crow, white night, white lie, white man
9. Identify a paradigmatic group: *dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, dogged, dog-biscuit*
- a) a thematic group
 - b) a word family
 - c) a semantic field
10. Identify a paradigmatic group: *two, between, double, pair, couple, brace, dialogue, bicycle, twins*
- a) a thematic group
 - b) a word family
 - c) a semantic field

E. READING MATTERS

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SEMINAR 2

ETYMOLOGY OF ENGLISH WORDS

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Genuine English words.
2. Causes and ways of borrowing.
3. Borrowings from Latin, Greek Scandinavian, German, French, Italian and other languages.
4. Assimilation of loan words.
5. Degree of assimilation.
6. Translation and semantic loans.
7. Etymological doublets.
8. International words. “False friends” of an interpreter.
9. The influence of borrowings on the phonetic, morphological and lexical systems of English.

B. KEY TERMS: *lingua franca, etymology, genuine (native) words, borrowings (loan words), assimilation, types of assimilation, completely assimilated borrowings, partly assimilated borrowings, non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms), translation loans, semantic loans, etymological doublets, international words, false friends of the interpreter (pseudo-international words, false cognates).*

C. GLOSSARY

ETYMOLOGY is a branch of Lexicology that studies the origin and history of words.

LINGUA FRANCA is a common language for non-native speakers, it is a language of international business, research and everyday communication.

ASSIMILATION is used to denote a particular or total conformation to the phonetic, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic structure.

TRANSLATION LOANS are words or word combinations which are formed from the material of a given language but after the foreign pattern by means of literally morpheme-for-morpheme (word-for-word) translation.

SEMANTIC LOAN is used to denote the development in a loan word of a new meaning under the influence of a related word in another tongue.

ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS are two or more words which were derived by different ways from one and the same basic original word.

INTERNATIONAL WORDS are words of identical origin, which occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowing from the same ultimate source.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Why does the English language have a great number of words of foreign origin?
2. What is etymology?
3. What words are considered to be native?
4. Speak on the groups of genuine (or native) words.
5. Comment on the specific features of native words.
6. What ways did the borrowings come into the language?
7. Point out the causes of borrowing. Why do languages borrow words?
8. Comment on the types of assimilation: phonetic, grammatical, and lexical.
9. What factors does the degree of assimilation depend on?
10. Explain how different types borrowing can be classified according to the degree of assimilation.
11. How do you differentiate between translation and semantic loans?
12. Define etymological doublets and their main sources.
13. What is the difference between international words and “false friends” of an interpreter?

EXERCISES

1. State the origin and explain the meaning of the words below. If in doubt, consult a good etymological dictionary and find out when the above words came into English. Enlarge the list of barbarisms and translation loans.

fiesta, bon voyage, ibid, tulip, get, law, tomato, umbrella, operetta, enfant terrible, alma mater, Madeira, sky, chef, macho, haute couture, prêt-à-porter, déjà vu, curriculum vitae, school, judo, sumo, banjo, undertake, goulash, sheriff, silhouette, orchid, Mont Blanc, kangaroo, fowl, chap, caftan, beau monde, thermometer, ego, confetti, virtue, etc

2. Give adjectives of Latin origin corresponding to the following nouns.

Model: *sea – marine*

a) *lip, mouth, eye, tongue, tooth, head, mind, heart, hand;*

b) *woman, man, friend, father, mother;*

c) *life, heaven, youth, book, earth, time, house, town, sight, name, sun, night.*

3. Comment on the vocabulary of the extract below. Find native English words in it.

*In winter when the fields are white,
I sing this song for your delight.*

*In spring when woods are getting green
I'll try and tell you what I mean.*

*In summer when the days are long,
Perhaps you'll understand the song.*

*In autumn when the leaves are brown,
Take pen and ink and write it down. (L. Carroll)*

4. State the origin of the following doublets. Comment on the different formation of the doublets and on the difference in meaning, if any.

shade – shadow

senior – sir

gaol – jail

screw – shrew

canal – channel

castle – chateau

pauper – poor

mint – money

of – off

major – mayor

cavalry – chivalry

regal – royal

5. You know how many words in the modern English vocabulary are borrowed from other languages. List five words that have been borrowed into English at some time or other from each of the following languages:

French, Italian, Spanish, Latin, Greek

6. Translate the following international words into Ukrainian. Are these words “false friends” of an interpreter?

complexion, sympathy, artist, magazine, phone, liberal, conductor, faculty, high school, public school, fraction

TEST

1. What language are the following words borrowed from: *waltz, fatherland, leitmotif, rucksack, zinc, cobalt, nickel*?

- a) Spanish
- b) German
- c) Latin

2. What language are the following words borrowed from: *apricot, banana, bravado, canoe, embargo, sombrero, potato, tobacco*?

- a) French
- b) Spanish and Portuguese
- c) Italian

3. The words *to take, to call, to get, to give, to cast, to want, to die* are

- a) Native words
- b) Scandinavian borrowings
- c) French borrowings

4. Which of the words are the native ones?

- a) camel, crocodile, hyena, gorilla, lynx, monkey
- b) pigeon, turkey, kangaroo, giraffe, squirrel, zebra
- c) hen, cow, goat, crow, bird, bear, fox, hare, lark

5. Words which occur in several languages as a result of borrowing from the same ultimate source are called

- a) archaic words
- b) international words
- c) slang words

6. Which group of words belongs to the native stock?

- a) nut, acorn, fir, walnut, hazel-nut, ash, oak
- b) apricot, orange, banana, pomegranate, melon, cherry, lemon
- c) plum, palm, acacia, pine, baobab, mallow, pear

7. State the origin of the following etymological doublets: *cavalry – chivalry, major – mayor*

- a) English and Scandinavian
- b) they were borrowed from the same language
- c) Latin and French

8. Borrowed words that are not assimilated in the adopting language are called
- a) barbarisms
 - b) historisms
 - c) jargonisms
9. What language are the following words borrowed from: *chauffeur, coup d'etat, chic, douche, blindage, prestige, debut*?
- a) Latin
 - b) Spanish
 - c) French
10. By a semantic loan is meant
- a) the development in an English word of a new meaning under the influence of a correlated unit in some other language
 - b) a word or a phrase formed from the material available in the given language but after a foreign pattern by means of literal, morpheme-for-morpheme translation of every component
 - c) two or more words of the same language which came by different routes from one and the same basic original word

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SEMINAR 3

MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF WORDS

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Morphemic structure of English words:
 - (a) a word and a morpheme
 - (b) types of morphemes
 - (c) structural types of words
 - (d) morphemic and derivational analysis of word structure.
2. Affixation as a productive way of word-formation.

B. KEY TERMS: *morpheme, allomorphs, simple (or root) words, derived words, compound words, immediate constituents (IC) analysis, derivational analysis, word-formation, affixation, prefixes, suffixes, productive affixes, non-productive affixes.*

C. GLOSSARY

MORPHEME is the smallest meaningful part of a word and an indivisible two-facet language unit.

ALLOMORPHS (morphemic variants) are different phonemic shapes of the morpheme.

WORD-FORMATION is the process of coining new words from the material available in the given language after certain semantic and structural pattern.

AFFIXATION is the formation of new words by adding affixes to different stems.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Give the definition of the morpheme.
2. How can the morphemes be classified? What criteria are used for classifying morphemes?
3. What approaches can be employed to the study of word structure?
4. Classify words, taking into account their morphological structure.
5. Give the definition of affixation.
6. What are the sources of affixes?
7. Comment on etymological hybrids.

8. Differentiate between the cases of polysemy, homonymy and synonymy among English prefixes and suffixes.
9. What affixes are called productive and non-productive? Do you find this classification arbitrary?

EXERCISES

1. Comment on the essence of the morphemic analysis of the word. Cut each of the following words into its immediate constituents. What are word-building models of the words?

Uneatable, greenish, famous, lucky, luckily, majority, half-finished, steadiness, unmistakable, supernatural, ex-seamen, blue-eyed.

2. Classify the stems of the words into
- a) simple, derived, compound
 - b) free, bound, semi-bound.

In some cases, the choice will not be clear-cut. Explain the grounds for your decision.

enrich, foolishness, foresee, unpleasantness, trustworthy, snow-whiteness, take, old-maidish, chairman, look, shoemaker, shockproof, hyperslow, businesslike, half-baked, babylike, cowboy, prejudice, well-known, playboy, biped, praiseworthy, fashionmonger, waterproof, small, playwright, irresponsibility, purify, afterthought, hopelessly, manhood

3. Translate into Ukrainian.

Irrefutable evidence, perishable goods, disposable paper sheets, an inflatable boat, irreproachable behaviour, expandable tables.

4. All the words below have been imported into English from other languages. Write down the singular form of each noun. Identify the plural suffix in each noun.

alumni, stimuli, loci, automata, phenomena, criteria

5. Comment on the polysemantic affixes given below.

out-, over-, -proof, -free, -minded, -under.

6. Comment on the polysemy and homonymy of the affixes given in bold. Make up sentences of your own.

*Model: Actions speak **louder** than words. – Short-tempered people are hard to deal with.*

believing – covering

forgiving – writing

quickly – lovely

womanish – Spanish

bluish – Finnish

worker – longer

golden – taken

soften – silken

TEST

1. What is the subject matter of word-formation?
 - a) a morpheme
 - b) the morphemic structure of a word and the ways of word building
 - c) derivational affixes and models
2. The morphemes *-ness, -less, -dis* are singled out as
 - a) bound
 - b) semi-bound
 - c) free
3. Structurally morphemes are divided into
 - a) productive and unproductive
 - b) free, bound, semi-bound
 - c) roots and affixes
4. What morphs are characterized by the following definition, "They are identical in meaning and have different phonetic shapes in different contexts"?
 - a) suppletive morphs
 - b) root morphs
 - c) allomorphs
5. Find the words with allomorphs
 - a) clever – cleverer – the cleverest

- b) heart, hearten, heartily, heartless
- c) please, pleasure, pleasant
- 6. What morphemes are singled out semantically?
 - a) roots and affixes
 - b) free, bound, semi-bound
 - c) roots, affixes, inflexions
- 7. The suffix *-ie* in *auntie* is named
 - a) augmentive
 - b) diminutive
 - c) productive
- 8. What is the origin of the affixes *-ism*, *-ics*, *-ist*, *poly-*, *dis-*
 - a) Latin
 - b) Greek
 - c) Scandinavian
- 9. Define the meaning of the suffix *-ish* in *babyish*, *childish*, *girlish*, *womanish*
 - a) belonging to some nationality or locality
 - b) like, having the quality of
 - c) approaching the quality of
- 10. What group do the following stems belong: *fashionmonger*, *shock-proof*, *trustworthy*, *cameraman*, *playboy*
 - a) free
 - b) bound
 - c) semi-bound

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SEMINAR 4

WORD-FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Productive ways of word-formation:
 - (a) Conversion
 - (b) Word-composition
 - (c) Shortening
2. Non-productive ways of word-formation.

B. KEY TERMS: *converted words, compound words, free word-groups, aphaeresis, syncope, apocope, acronym, non-productive (secondary) ways of word-formation: blending (blends), change of stress (stress interchange), back-formation (disaffixation), reduplication, sound interchange, sound imitation.*

C. GLOSSARY

CONVERSION is the process of forming new words without adding any word-building elements so that the basic form of the original and newly coined words are homonymous.

WORD-COMPOSITION is the way of word-building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word.

SHORTENING is the way of forming new words by clipping the existing lexical units to create shorter words convenient for the use in speech.

BLENDING denotes coining a new word by joining two clipped stems.

CHANGE OF STRESS is used to form verbs from nouns or other parts of speech by shifting the stress.

BACK-FORMATION is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real derivative or supposed suffix through misinterpretation of its structure.

REDUPLICATION denotes the derivation of new words by repeating the stems.

SOUND INTERCHANGE is used to differentiate words of different parts of speech due to an alternation in the phonemic composition of the root.

SOUND IMITATION is the formation of new words which are made by imitating natural sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings and inanimate objects.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Give the definition of conversion. Why is it considered to be a productive means of word formation?
2. Who introduced the term “conversion” into linguistics?
3. Analyse the view-points in linguistics as to the nature of conversion.
4. What types of conversion are there in Modern English Lexicology?
5. Give the definition of word composition.
6. What factors does the structural unity of a compound word depend upon?
7. State the difference between compounds and nominal word combinations?
8. How can compound words be classified? What criteria of the classification are used?
9. Define shortening as a means of forming new words.
10. What are the types of word-shortening?
11. What abbreviations are called acronyms?
12. Characterise non-productive means of word formation.

EXERCISES

1. Comment on the cases of conversion. State to what part of speech these words belong.

1. Dim the headlights of your car. 2. Try to bridle your temper. 3. The road branches off here. 4. The room was bugged and everything I said was taped. 5. He prefers grilled meat. 6. The haul was good. 7. Don't grate your teeth. 8. He opened a wooden chest that must house a hundred bases for his own statues (J. Archer). 9. The teller handed me a long piece of paper unworthy of its amount (J. Archer). 10. Their relationship is strictly business.

2. Analyse the following compound words:

mother-in-law, heart-broken, sea-coast, lady-bird, craftsman, skyscraper, barefooted, slow-coach, cinema-goer, Jack-of-all-trades, H-bomb, off-the-record, coin-in-the-slot, heart-to-heart

3. Form as many compounds and derivatives as possible with the following stems.

mother, man, sun, book, hand, act, do, bird

4. Define the type of abbreviation and shortenings:

GI, UNICEF, pp, cc, movie, circs, apt, blvd, disco, van, AA, PC, VAT, UFO, ID, sci-fi, NB, ad, all mod cons, incog

5. Determine the meaning of electronic text messages below and describe in detail the technique used to create each item:

LOL, FAQ, ASAP, FYI, BTW, RSVP, AFAIK, C, U, 4, 2

6. Comment on the formation of the lexical items:

advertistics, to accent, chunnel, clink, ping-pong, brunch, to typewrite, Humpty-Dumpty, crash, to finger print, to beg, docu-drama, medicare, slanguage, heliport, to well-wish, increase, bit, do-it-yourself, to multi-task, honest-to-God-British

TEST

1. What is the difference between compound words and nominal word combinations?

- a) they can be of different parts of speech
- b) they have different meanings
- c) each element of the word phrase is stressed and written separately

2. Conversion as the morphological way of forming new words was put forward by

- a) H. Sweet
- b) Ch. Fries
- c) F. Katamba

3. Compounding is the type of word-formation according to which

- a) new words are formed without adding any word-building elements
- b) words consist of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms
- c) new words are formed by adding affixes to different stems

4. Find the proper type of conversion of the words given below: *round – a round, criminal – a criminal, to say – a say, to try – a try*

- a) verbalization
- b) adjectivization

- c) substantivation
5. The term "conversion" was first introduced by
- S.Ullmann
 - J. Lyons
 - H. Sweet
6. Define the type of word-formation of the following words: *smog*, *brunch*, *fruiice*, *flush*, *swellegant*
- back-formation
 - blending
 - shortening
7. Find the proper type of conversion of the words given below:
round – a round, *criminal – a criminal*, *to say – a say*, *to try – a try*
- verbalization
 - adjectivization
 - substantivation
8. Define the type of word-formation of the following words; *ping-pong*, *flim-flam*, *tittle-tattle*, *pooh-pooh*, *walkie-talkie*
- blending
 - sound imitation
 - reduplication
9. What are the word-building models of the words *to burgle*, *to edit*, *to skate*, *to wellwish*, *to enthuse*
- conversion
 - backformation
 - affixation
10. How are the underlined words made: a lovely face, a friendly visit
- suffixation
 - compounding
 - conversion

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SEMINAR 5

SEMASIOLOGY. WORDS AND THEIR MEANINGS

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Definition of a word.
2. The definition of meaning. Different approaches to the study of meaning.
3. Types of word meaning.
4. Lexical meaning of a word and its components.
5. Meaning and context.
6. Meaning and motivation.
7. Polysemy. The notion of the semantic structure of the word.

B. KEY TERMS: *word meaning, referential approach, functional approach, linguistic concept, lexical meaning of a word (a word-sense), direct meaning, indirect (figurative) meaning, denotative component (denotation), connotative component (connotation), emotional charge, stylistic reference, dialectal reference, lexical context, motivation of words (phonetical, morphological, semantic), semantic structure of a word, lexico-semantic variants.*

C. GLOSSARY

SEMASIOLOGY is a branch of lexicology that deals with the problem of meaning.

MEANING (in terms of referential approach) is defined as a certain reflection in human mind of objects or relations that exist in reality.

MEANING (in terms of functional approach) is defined as the sum total of what the word contributes to different contexts in which it may occur.

LEXICAL MEANING is the meaning which is connected with the concept and the referent a given word denotes.

DENOTATIVE COMPONENT is the lexical nucleus of a word which is connected with the referent a given word denotes.

CONNOTATIVE COMPONENT is what is suggested by or associated with a particular word-sense.

CONTEXT is a minimum stretch of speech which is necessary and sufficient to determine in which of the possible meanings the word is used.

MOTIVATION is used to denote the relationship between the phonetic, morphemic structure of the word and its meaning.

POLYSEMY is the existence within one word of several connected meanings.

LEXICO-SEMANTIC VARIANTS are separate meanings of a polysemantic word.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Why is it difficult to give a definition of a word?
2. What is understood by "meaning" in terms of the referential approach?
3. What is understood by "meaning" in terms of the functional approach?
4. What are the connections between meaning and concept?
5. What are the relations between meaning and referent?
6. What are the components of lexical meaning?
7. Comment on the role of lexical context.
8. What are the types of motivation of words?
9. What are the peculiar features of polysemantic words?
10. How are the meanings within a polysemantic word related to one another?

EXERCISES

1. As you know sometimes two or more words have the same or almost the same denotation (dictionary definition), but have very different connotations. As you read each list, try to focus on different shades of meaning of a single object or person.

house ... home ... living accommodation

childlike ... childish ... juvenile

child ... kid ... youngster

boss ... superior ... manager ... supervisor

quiz ... test ... exam ... examination ... midterm

dismissed ... fired

senior citizen ... old person ... old age

animal control officer ... dog catcher

table attendant ... server ... waiter (waitress)
financial aid ... unemployment compensation ... welfare ... benefit
chauffeur r... driver
chef ... cook
roommate ... cohabitant
perspire ... sweat ... nervous wetness
takes drugs ... experiments with recreational chemicals

2. Identify the denotational component of the lexical meaning of the words in each group. Use any English explanatory dictionary.

- a. *indignation, fury, ire, rage, irritation*
- b. *beautiful, lovely, handsome, pretty, bonny*
- c. *kip, nap, doze, slumber, snooze*

3. Identify negative connotations. The words in each of these pairs have similar denotations; they could refer to the same thing. In each pair circle the word that has a negative connotation, that brings less favourable associations to your mind.

1. *slim ... skinny*
2. *cheap ... inexpensive*
3. *single girl ... unmarried woman ... spinster*
4. *has an open marriage ... commits adultery ... live-in lover*
5. *boyfriend ... steady guy ... male companion*
6. *girl ... woman ... lady ... chick ... broad ... female human*

4. Read each list of words below. Each word has a different connotation, but has the same general denotation. Decide what the general denotation is for each group. Write your answer on the line provided. Then, number the words in each group from most positive connotation to most negative connotation: 1 being the most positive, 5 being the most negative.

Model: 3. thin
4. bony
1. slim
5. anorexic
2. slender
 thin (*general denotation*)

___ *uprising*
 ___ *riot*
 ___ *demonstration*
 ___ *unlawful gathering*
 ___ *protest*
 ___ *disturbance*
 _____ (general denotation)
 ___ *guerilla*
 ___ *freedom fighter*
 ___ *mercenary*
 ___ *soldier*
 ___ *terrorist*
 _____ (general denotation)

5. Look at the following short dialogues and try to think of a word or phrase to complete the gap, using the meanings of *GET*.

- a* **`to travel/go`** *get on a train/bus, get a taxi*
b **`to arrive`** *get here/there, get home*
c **`to buy`** *get something cheap*
d **`to become`** *get better/worse, get hot/cold/light, get married/divorced, get angry/annoyed/confused, get bigger/older/stronger*
e **`to receive/obtain`** *get help/advice/a message, get a job/a degree, get a cold*
f **other phrases** *get rid of, get on okay/well/fine with sb/sth*

- a* A: Oh dear, it's raining – we'll get wet if we walk to the cinema!
 B: Shall we get a ... then? Don't worry, I'll pay!

b A: Go inside – you'll get ... !
 B: I'm okay, I've got a thick sweater on.

c A: How's Dan's back?
 B: I think it's getting ... unfortunately.

d A: Did you have a good journey home?
 B: Not too bad – we got ... at about 8.30.

e A: Can't we get ... some of these old records?

B: Oh – I like them all!

f A: Do you get ... your mother-in-law?

B: Yeah, she's really nice actually.

g A: Did you get ... from Liz?

B: Yes, I've just called her back.

6. What does the word *bull* mean in each of the following sentences?

1. *Beware of the bull!*

2. *I think the elephant is a bull.*

3. *Stop acting like a bull in a china shop!*

4. *There was a bull market on the stock exchange today.*

5. *Well done! You've hit the bull's eye.*

6. *Don't give me all that bull.*

7. *I'm afraid that you'll just have to take the bull by the horns.*

7. Write definitions to illustrate as many meanings as possible for the following polysemantic words. Prove that the meanings are related to one another. Then compare your list with that in your dictionary.

dull do dress order power operation

8. Make up the list of diminutive nouns

e.g. bird – birdie

9. Discuss the meaning of the words in bold type in terms of the problem `concept – meaning`.

1. a *She put her hat on the **table**.*

b *They were at **table** when we called.*

c *His jokes amused the whole **table**.*

d *Her father keeps a good **table**.*

2. a *She wore a **green** dress.*

b ***Green** wood does not burn well.*

c *I'm afraid he is still **green** at his job.*

d *He lived to a **green** old age.*

10. Where would you draw the semantic boundary between *tree* and *shrub*; *mountain* and *hill*; *blue* and *green*; *woman* and *girl*?

Which approach to meaning provides us with the best representation of the meaning of the words above?

11. What semantic features characterize the objects of the following words:

<i>kill</i>	<i>murder</i>	<i>assassinate</i>	<i>massacre</i>
<i>house</i>	<i>habitation</i>	<i>mansion</i>	<i>residence</i>
<i>master</i>	<i>owner</i>	<i>proprietor</i>	<i>chief</i>
<i>ability</i>	<i>capacity</i>	<i>admit</i>	<i>confess</i>

TEST

1. What is “meaning” in terms of referential approach?

- a) the sum total of what the word contributes to different contexts in which the word may appear
- b) a certain reflection in our mind of objects or relations that exist in reality
- c) a certain reflection in our mind of objects or relations that are connected with their sound-form

2. What structure is singled out within interconnected lexical meanings of the polysemantic word?

- a) a semantic nucleus
- b) a concept
- c) a lexico-semantic variant

3. The denotative component of the lexical meaning is

- a) the lexical nucleus of a word which is connected with the referent and notion the given word denotes
- b) the material meaning of a word which is directly connected with the object or concept the given word expresses
- c) the component of a word-meaning which is recurrent in the identical sets of grammatical forms of different words

4. A branch of lexicology which studies the problem of lexical meaning is called

- a) etymology
- b) semasiology
- c) toponymy

5. What term is defined as "the object in the outside world to which the sound form refers"?

- a) a concept
 - b) a sign
 - c) a referent
6. What is understood by "emotional charge"?
- a) the attitude of the speaker to what is being spoken about
 - b) the social sphere in which the discourse takes place
 - c) shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality
7. Classify the words according to the type of motivation: *tongues (of flame)*, *key (to a mystery)*, *green (with envy)*, *head (of a procession)*
- a) phonetic
 - b) morphological
 - c) semantic
8. Define the meaning of *face* in the sentence: He was being matter-of-fact in the face of the excitement.
- a) facade, front
 - b) look, expression
 - c) surface of something
9. A word is a unity of the sound-form and
- a) notion
 - b) meaning
 - c) referent
10. The connotative component is what is suggested by or associated with
- a) a particular word meaning
 - b) a particular concept
 - c) a particular referent

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SEMINAR 6

DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE OF THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF WORDS

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Types of semantic changes.
2. Extralinguistic and linguistic causes of semantic changes.
3. English words in the process of time. Archaisms and historisms.
4. Growth and change of the English vocabulary. Semantic groups of neologisms.

B. KEY TERMS: *extension of meaning, narrowing of meaning, elevation of meaning, degradation of meaning, transference of meaning, metaphor, metonymy, simile, hyperbole, litotes, ellipsis, synonymic differentiation, fixed context, archaisms, historisms, neologisms.*

C. GLOSSARY

EXTENSION OF MEANING is the widening of the word range.

NARROWING OF MEANING is when a word of wide usage is restricted in its application and comes to be used only in a special meaning.

ELEVATION OF MEANING is the process that leads to the heightening of meaning.

DEGRADATION OF MEANING is the process opposite to elevation as a result of which for one reason or another a word becomes disrepute or less respectable.

TRANSFERENCE OF MEANING is the transformation from literal meaning of a word to the figurative one.

METAPHOR is a semantic process of associating two referents one of which in some way resembles the other.

METONYMY is a semantic process of associating two referents which are in some way or another connected in reality or when the name of a part is applied to the whole.

HYPERBOLE is a stylistic device used as an exaggerated statement to make speech more vivid and expressive.

LITOTES is described as expressing the affirmative by negating the contrary.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. What factors influence the changes in the semantic structure of a word?
2. What criterion are the types of semantic changes based on?
3. What is extension of meaning? Give examples.
4. What is narrowing of meaning? Give examples.
5. What is elevation of meaning? Give examples.
6. What is degradation of meaning? Give examples.
7. What is transference of meaning?
8. What is the difference between:
 - metaphor and metonymy
 - metaphor and simile
 - metonymy and synecdoche
 - hyperbole and litotes
9. What do you mean by extralinguistic causes of semantic changes?
10. What types of linguistic causes of semantic changes do you know?
11. What is the difference between archaisms and historisms?
12. What semantic groups are neologisms classified into?

EXERCISES

1. Trace the process of semantic changes in the following words:
meat, thing, knave, minister, a green man, boston, deer, salt, villain, knight, faded beauty, mackintosh
2. Provide two fresh examples of semantic widening and two ones of semantic narrowing.
3. Complete the following similes:
as steady as ...
as deaf as ...
as silent as ...
as white as ...
as thick as ...
as cool as ...
as true as ...
as sharp as ...
as fit as ...

4. Choose the names of animals or insects in the following similes:

as wise as ...

as busy as ...

as strong as ...

as obstinate as ...

as silly as ...

as clumsy as ...

as hoarse as ...

as weak as ...

as tall as ...

as plump as ...

as quick as ...

as drunk as ...

as sober as ...

5. Explain the logic of metaphoric transference in the following collocations. Classify the following types of the transference of meaning. Give their Ukrainian equivalents.

1. In the heart of the mountings, at the bottom of page.

2. Head of a cabbage, hand of a clock.

3. Wing of a plane, eye of a potato.

4. Hot scent, warm heart.

5. A bookworm, a tiger, a lion.

6. A branch of linguistics.

7. A vehicle of propaganda.

8. To burn with impatience.

9. To meet smb.'s interest.

6. Determine the type of association of contiguity the following cases of metonymy are based upon:

champagne, madeira, sandwich, manchester, cheddar, mauser, china, tongue

7. Discuss the following cases of metonymy of the words given in bold.

1. I have never read **Balzac** in the original. 2. The **house** was full.
3. The **pit** loudly applauded. 4. My sister is fond of old **china**. 5. He ate three **plates**. 6. The **coffee-pot** is boiling. 7. He succeeded to the **crown**. 8. I have a few **coppers** in my purse.

8. Analyse the following neologisms from the point of view of their morphemic structure and the way they are formed.

boutique, JV, slackademic, cheeseburger, self-exile, SA, outdoorsy, memo, laundered money, femme-fatalish, coin-in-the-slot, we shall overcome, non-formals, workaholic, INSET, Euromarket, the Establishment / the Overclass, to Vice-Preside, glitterati

TEST

1. What process of semantic changes is defined as "a process as the result of which for one reason or another a word becomes disrepute and less respectable"?

- a) degradation of meaning
- b) narrowing of meaning
- c) transference of meaning

2. What linguistic phenomenon is the basis of the formation of metaphor?

- a) homonymy
- b) polysemy
- c) synonymy

3. Pick out the historisms from the groups below

- a) anarch, baron, musketeer, vassal, carbonari
- b) mom, eve, thy, thou, aye, nay, moon, oft
- c) toreador, rajah, shah

4. Define the process of semantic changes in the following words: *deer, comrade, wife, meat*

- a) narrowing of meaning
- b) degradation of meaning
- c) transference of meaning

5. Which line accounts for the metaphor?

- a) Utterly amazed, I was speechless
- b) The kettle is boiling
- c) Kyiv is the heart of our country

6. Define the process of semantic changes in the following words:
paper, manuscript, pipe, vandal, utopian
- extension of meaning
 - elevation of meaning
 - transference of meaning
7. Which line accounts for the metonymy?
- I have never read Balzac in the original
 - He had an egg-like head and frog-like jaws
 - My heart is beating with excitement
8. Pick out the metaphors from the following word combinations
- green leaves, a green bush, a green apple
 - black propaganda, black envy, black ingratitude
 - the neck of a girl, the root of a tree, seeds of a plant
9. What is the main difference between archaisms and historisms?
- archaisms have synonyms in a contemporary language
 - historisms have synonyms in a contemporary language
 - archaisms and historisms have different stylistic functions in the text
10. Which of the groups of words listed below corresponds to passive vocabulary?
- neologisms, historisms, archaisms
 - archaisms, dialect words, borrowings
 - professionalisms, barbarisms, loan words

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SEMINAR 7

SEMANTIC RELATIONS OF WORDS. HOMONYMY. SYNONYMY. ANTONYMY **HOMONYMS. SYNONYMS. ANTONYMS**

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The definition. Types of homonyms, their classification.
2. Sources of homonyms in English.
3. The differentiation between polysemy and homonymy.
4. The problem of the definition of synonyms.
5. The notion of a generic term.
6. Classification of synonyms.
7. Sources of synonyms.
8. Euphemism as a special type of a synonym. The role of synonyms in the language.
9. Specific features of antonyms in English.
10. The notion of paronyms.

B. KEY TERMS: *perfect homonyms, homophones, homographs, full homonyms, partial homonyms, lexical homonyms, lexical-grammatical homonyms, grammatical homonyms, etymological homonyms, historical homonyms, distributional approach, transformational analysis, shades of meaning, valency (combinability), emotional charge, stylistic reference, generic term, absolute synonyms, ideographic (relative synonyms, near-synonyms), stylistic synonyms, euphemisms, absolute antonyms, phraseological antonyms, complex antonyms.*

C. GLOSSARY

HOMONYMS can be described as words that are identical in sound form but different in meaning and in many cases their distribution and origin.

SYNONYMS are two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech, having a similar denotative component of the lexical meaning, interchangeable at least in some contexts, but different in sound-form, shades of meaning, emotional charge, valency and stylistic reference.

GENERIC TERM is a general term neutral in style and has a great combining power.

ANTONYMS are two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, and characterized by semantic polarity of their denotative meaning.

PARONYMS are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but different in meaning and usage.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. How can the English vocabulary be classified?
2. Give the definition of homonyms. What is their role in the language?
3. How can homonyms be classified? What principles are the classifications based on?
4. What are the sources of homonyms?
5. What is the difference between polysemy and homonymy? What are the criteria of delimitation of polysemous and homonymous words?
6. Give the definition of synonyms. Speak on their functioning in the English language.
7. What main principle is used to arrange synonyms into sets? Comment on the characteristic features of a synonymic dominant, illustrating your answer with examples.
8. What is the essence of the method of componential analysis?
9. What components entail the abundance and variety of synonyms?
10. How can synonyms be classified?
11. What are the sources of synonymy?
12. Say what ways euphemisms come into the language. What is political correctness? Is political correctness desirable?
13. Give the definition of antonyms and their classification.
14. Give the definition of paronyms.

EXERCISES

1. State the type of homonyms used in the following sentences.
 1. *She rose too. The path wound down the hill between the rows of tall trees.*
 2. *The rabbits scudded away with their white tails in the air. She was like the girl in the fairy-tale. I only dance with men in tails.*
 3. *The pale moon gave him a view of the solitary tower. In*

another moment he was flying down the street with his pail. 4. Wait till I've finished this bit. The weight began to lift from his brain. 5. To their great joy they found a tolerably good fire in the grate. 6. They took up a lot of small fry. It's a shame to fry an egg as fresh as that one. 7. I always lose my way in the big cities. Paul has such strange ways. 8. The little boy was still out. Still waters have deep bottoms.

2. Provide the meanings of perfect (absolute) homonyms.

*boot₁ — boot₂, coach₁ — coach₂, temple₁ — temple₂,
palm₁ — palm₂, pride₁ — pride₂*

3. Give words homophonous with the following.

flour, hair, rite, soul, weak, bean, break, sore, sum, colonel, cent, him

4. Spell out the following homophones and explain their meanings.

*[dɪə], [pɛə], [bɛə], [kə:nl], [poul], [sent], [nju:], [meɪn], [berɪ],
[pleɪn], [sou], [θroun], [hi:l], [mɪst], [weɪt], [flu:], [flɔ:]*

5. Transcribe the following homographs. How are they pronounced and what do they mean?

lead, buffet, invalid, polish, bass, desert, row, minute

6. Provide the meanings and identify the type of homonyms.

a. bored — board, to die — to dye, bet — bat, new — knew

b. There are seven natural wonders of the world.

She wonders if she can come.

c. I usually direct horror films.

You're a really direct person!

7. Give synonyms of

a) Germanic origin: vital, to reply, to inquire, radiant, vacation, to cease, beverage, to educate

b) Romanic origin: happiness, wood, holy, freedom, corner, end, enough, hearten, wish, child, help, wedding, begin, hide

c) Scandinavian origin: heaven, throw, sick, present, to elevate, to receive

8. Comment on the stylistic usage of the following synonyms. Point out formal, poetic, colloquial, dialectal, or archaic synonyms.

- 1 *girl – maid – lass (ie) – damsel*
- 2 *meal – refreshment – repast – snack – bite*
- 3 *leave – retire – withdraw – quit – set off*
- 4 *child infant – babe – kid – lad*
- 5 *end – terminate – finish – cease – be through – be over*
- 6 *continue – proceed – go on – get on*
- 7 *begin – commence – start – get started – initiate*
- 8 *good-bye – farewell – bye – so long*
- 9 *pretty – bonny – appealing – good-looking*

9. Find a generic term in the following groups of synonyms. Give analogous groups in Ukrainian.

lean, slender, slim, thin; odd, quaint, queer, strange; fat, fleshy, plump, obese, stout; cheerful, gay, jolly, joyful, merry; ask, enquire, demand, interrogate, question; choose, elect, pick out, select; amaze, astonish, surprise

10. What distinguishes each of the following pairs of synonyms – dialect, formality, or connotation?

- chat – gossip*
- give – donate*
- hate – loathe*
- insect – creepy-crawlie*
- slippery – slippy*
- radio-set – walkie-talkie*
- help – assist*
- throw – hurl*
- astonished – flabbergasted*

11. For each of the following words say whether it has an antonym and give it if it does.

emigrate, justice, new, proud, lock, fortune, simple, speak, straight, triangular, use, sufficient, birth, epilogue, introvert, explicit

12. State which words are replaced by euphemisms in the following sentences. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. **Deuced** sorry to wake you up, Jeeves, and what not, but all sorts of **dashed** disturbing things have been happening” (D.Carter). 2. There was a letter from Aunt Agatha on the mantelpiece. **“Oh gosh!”** I said when I’d read it (D.Carter). 3. /She/ sat by me knitting a shawl for her youngest of nine daughters, who was **in that very interesting, frail condition** (K.Mansfield).

13. Define the meanings of the following paronyms. Use them constructing sentences of your own.

canal – channel, career – carrier, complement – compliment, physic – physique, preposition – proposition, price – prize, wander – wonder

TEST

1. What is the process of forming the homonyms *cab (cabriolet) — cab (cabbage)*

- a) split of polysemy
- b) shortening
- c) borrowing

2. Which line accounts for the homographs?

- a) pole — poll, scent — sent, plain — plane
- b) bass — bass, desert — desert, buffet — buffet
- c) cot — cot, game — game, match — match

3. What is the process of forming the synonyms *to ask — to question*

- a) conversion
- b) shift of meaning
- c) borrowing

4. What term can be defined as "words that are identical in their sound form but have no common semes or association"

- a) polysemantic words
- b) lexical homonyms
- c) paronyms

5. Synonyms belonging to the same stylistic layer, having the same connotation which are characterized by a distinction in the differentiating semes of the denotational component of their lexical meaning are named

- a) absolute
- b) ideographic

c) stylistic

6. Which of the definitions corresponds to the notion "synonyms"?

a) words that are identical in sound-form but different in meaning

b) words that partially coincide in their sound-form but are different in meaning

c) words belonging to the same part of speech, that are different in sound-form but identical or similar in meaning

7. Point out the synonymic dominant in the following group of synonyms: *scarlet, crimson, cherry, purple, red, carmine, cardinal, bloodshot*

a) red

b) cherry

c) bloodshot

8. Which line accounts for the lexical homonyms?

a) nail — nail, bank — bank, yard — yard

b) some — sum, so — saw, flu — flew

c) asked — asked, put — put, brother's — brothers

9. What is "a synonymic dominant"?

a) structurally it is an unproductive word

b) etymologically it is a genuine word

c) a general term, neutral in style and with a great combining power

10. Fill in the blank with a synonym: *Oh, one's mode of life might be ... and scrupulous.*

a) high

b) tall

c) lofty

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SEMINAR 8

PHRASEOLOGY. COLLOCATIONS AND IDIOMS

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Free word groups and idioms.
2. Types of idioms.
3. Diachronic analysis of idioms.
4. Proverbs and sayings.

B. KEY TERMS: *free word groups, phraseological units (set phrases, idioms), non-idiomatic combinations (collocations), idiomatic collocations (idioms), proverbs, sayings.*

C. GLOSSARY

PHRASEOLOGY studies such collocations of words (phraseological units, idioms, set phrases) the components of which are semantically or structurally closely connected and their meaning is a not a sum of meanings of their constituents.

COLLOCATION is the combination of words formed when two or more words are frequently used together in a way that sounds correct (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary 2003).

IDIOM is a phrase the meaning of which cannot be predicted from the individual meanings of the constituents comprising it.

PROVERBS are concise sentences expressing some truth or moral lesson as established by experience of wisdom and familiar to all.

SAYINGS are phrases which are devoid of generalised instructive or didactic meaning, they are often syntactically incomplete.

D. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. What is the subject matter of phraseology?
2. What is the difference between free word groups and idioms?
3. What do you know about intermediate cases or semi-free phrases?
4. What classifications of phraseological units do you know? What principles are they based on?
5. What idioms did J. Seidl and W. McMordie single out?

6. What groups of idioms are according to the classification as suggested by M. McCarthy and F. O'Dell?
7. Comment on the reasons accounting for the loss of motivation of the idioms? What are the sources of phraseological units?
8. What is the difference between proverbs and sayings?

EXERCISES

1. Complete the following binary idioms so that the whole unit should alliterate.

1. Bag and 2. Deaf and 3. House and 4. Kith and
5. Safe and 6. Spick and 7. Stocks and 8. Neck or
- Now or 9. No sweat no 10. Neither rhyme nor
11. Through thick and 12. With might and 13. Wishy-
14. Willy- 15. Shilly- 16. Nitty-

2. Complete the following phrases so that they make English proverbs and idioms.

1. A bird in the hand. 2. The last straw. 3. An old bird. 4. The early bird.
5. Half the battle. 6. A new broom. 7. The cap fits. 8. Spilt milk.
9. A stitch in time.

3. Identify what concept all of the metaphoric idioms below exploit in the following sentences.

1. Their marriage seems to have **reached the end of the road**.
2. **One little bump in the road** and you give up?
3. Me and Tom? We **go back a long way**.
4. **We've come a long way**, baby.

4. Fill in the gaps, choosing the appropriate form of the idiom to make the following sentences complete: *to hit the nail on the head*, *to keep one's fingers crossed*, *all fingers and thumbs*, *to keep one's chin up*, *to pull one's leg*, *head and shoulders above somebody*, *a sight for sore eyes*, *to bite one's head off*.

1. Don't get offended, Jimmy! That was just a joke. I was _____, that's all!
2. Your suspicions have been confirmed. You've _____!

3. *This student is very intelligent. His speech was _____ in his group.*

4. *Don't be so disappointed, Tom! _____, everything will get better soon.*

5. *Oh, I haven't seen you for ages, You are _____!*

6. *Don't ask Margaret to do this. She is _____.*

7. *Don't be so angry with me! I only ask you a question! There is no need _____!*

8. *I hope you'll pass the exam, I will _____ for you!*

5. Give a paraphrase of each idiom that clearly brings out its meaning and discuss the type of lexical items of this kind.

a *stick-in-the-mud*

b *to change horses in midstream*

c *to play to the gallery*

d *at each other's throat*

e *a tall order*

f *wear and tear*

TEST

1. What is the subject matter of phraseology?

a) free word groups

b) words with the figurative meaning

c) words characterized by the integral meaning as a whole, with the meaning of each component weakened or entirely lost

2. What types of idioms did M. McCarthy and F. O'Dell single out?

a) nominative and communicative

b) prepositional phrases

c) phrasemes and idioms

3. The difference between idioms and free word combinations lies in

a) syntactical peculiarities (impossibility of transformations)

b) semantic peculiarities (they are partially or fully non-motivated)

c) both syntactical and semantic peculiarities

4. What relationships have the terms "phraseological unit", "set phrase", "idiom" between themselves?

a) synonymous

b) antonymous

c) homonymous

5. What types of phraseological units did J. Seidl and W. McMordie single out?
 - a) form regular, meaning unclear
 - b) compounds
 - c) other types
6. Which of the linguists proposed the classification according to the structure of the idioms?
 - a) A. Kunin
 - b) J. Seidl and W. McMordie
 - c) M. McCarthy and F. O'Dell
7. Point out the phraseological units that can be synonymous
 - a) through thick and thin, by hook or by crook, for love or money
 - b) to take the bull by the horns, in all respects, at one jump
 - c) by little and little, on the spot, to begin at the wrong end
8. I like Mary; she is a girl ... , kind and very pretty.
 - a) over my own head
 - b) after my own heart
 - c) in my own blood
9. According to J. Seidl and W. McMordie "*to tell someone where to get off*" belongs to the type with
 - a) form irregular, meaning clear
 - b) form regular, meaning unclear
 - c) form irregular, meaning unclear
10. M. McCarthy and F. O'Dell consider "*a kick in the teeth*" to be
 - a) a prepositional phrase
 - b) a compound
 - c) a binomial

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APPENDIX

USE OF WORDS

Jackson H., Ze Amvela E. *Words, Meaning and Vocabulary. An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology*. London: Continuum, 2007. P. 136–166. (abridged)

ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Classification of words into a number of 'vocabularies' – core and specialist.
2. Vocabularies associated with countries or regions.
3. Vocabularies associated with occupations – jargon.
4. Vocabularies associated with styles of speaking and writing – formal, colloquial and slang words; words severely restricted in usage – taboo and politically correct.

1 Core and specialist vocabulary

The *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED) account of the vocabulary of English recognizes a fundamental distinction between words that belong to the common core of the language, and those that belong to particular specialist subsets. In fact, this distinction may apply not only between words, but also between the senses of a single word. While some senses may belong to the common core, one or more senses may be part of a specialist vocabulary'. For example, *comeback* has the technical sense in Australian sheep farming of 'a sheep that is three-quarters merino and one-quarter crossbred', *proof* has specialist senses in law, maths/logic, printing and engraving.

We also need to determine what types of context we can recognize as relevant for the description of vocabulary: dialect, slang, technical, scientific, foreign. It would be more useful, perhaps, to think in terms of dimensions of variation: the ways in which language varies according to context and how this leads to the development of specialist vocabularies.

One dimension of variation would be the historical one, charting the birth and death of words. At any point in time, there are words that continue to be recorded, even though they are 'obsolete', i.e. no longer in current use, but found only in older literature. There are also words that are 'archaic', still in use, but they have an old-fashioned flavour and are probably in the process of disappearing from the current vocabulary. This dimension of variation is not of much interest to us, since it does not define a specialist vocabulary. Such words could have been part of either the core vocabulary or a specialist vocabulary.

A dimension that is of relevance is the geographical one by 'dialect'. This dimension encompasses, however, not just the regional dialects of a single country, such as Britain, but also the national varieties of English, as spoken and written in the USA, Canada, Australia, India, West Africa, and so on. As such, we are reinterpreting the common core as the vocabulary of 'international English', the

words that are common to all national varieties of the language. Alternatively, we need to recognize that each national variety has a common core, which includes many words that are shared with the common cores of other national varieties, but also some words that are restricted to that particular national variety. For example, the word *book* belongs to the common core of all national varieties, but while *faucet* belongs to the common core of American English, *tap* is the equivalent word in British English and other Commonwealth varieties, except that Canadian English has both terms.

A second relevant dimension is that of occupation, which includes 'technical' and 'scientific'. The term 'occupation' is interpreted broadly to include any pursuit, whether as part of daily work or a leisure interest, which develops its own specialized vocabulary. It encompasses scientific, religious, legal, political, and journalistic language, as well as the vocabulary associated with particular jobs and professions, sports and hobbies. Such specialist vocabulary is referred to, often disparagingly, as 'jargon'.

The language associated with identifiable social and cultural groups in society constitutes a third relevant dimension. This dimension is probably included under the 'slang' label. An example might be the vocabulary peculiar to youth culture, or to the criminal underworld, or to Internet surfers. There is perhaps some overlap with the occupational dimension, but the emphasis here is on a shared sub-culture rather than on an 'occupation'.

Fourthly, we can identify a dimension of variation related to the formality of the context, which influences the style of language that a speaker or writer uses. There are differences of vocabulary between 'formal' and 'informal' discourse.

Cf.:

Patrons are kindly requested to deposit their outer garments at the wardrobe. Please leave your coats in the cloakroom.

Whether this leads to our being able to establish a specialist 'formal' (or 'informal') vocabulary is another question, which we shall need to explore. At the informal end of the spectrum, it shades into colloquialism, slang and taboo words, where we can more readily identify special sets of terms.

Some linguists would also recognize a dimension of variation that relates to the medium in which a particular message is communicated, with a basic distinction between the spoken medium and the written medium. Arguably, there are no specialist vocabularies of speech and writing, though there may be some words that we associate more readily with either the spoken or the written medium. To a large extent, though, this corresponds with the formal/informal dimension, except that we speak of informal and formal writing, or indeed speech. The broadcast media have made an interesting and complicating contribution to this dimension, with their use of much scripted or semi-scripted speech; and more recently, 'speaking' on the computer internet by means of electronic mail has added a further aspect to consider.

2 National and regional vocabularies

British and American English (BrE and AmE)

The British and American varieties of English account for around 70 per cent of mother-tongue English speakers, with Americans outnumbering British by four to one. They are also the major players in the English-language teaching market (EFL and ESL). Although BrE speakers do not often like to think so, AmE is the dominant variety in the world today, as a consequence of the political, cultural and economic dominance of the USA. Because of the influence especially of American films and television series, as well as the pop music industry, many words that were formerly restricted to AmE are now well understood in BrE and in many cases are also part of many, especially younger, speakers' active vocabulary.

We need to account for the fact that some words are specific to either the American or the British variety and not used in World English, some are variety-specific but are used in World English, some have a sense which is variety-specific, and so on. Ten groups of lexical differences can be identified. The first five of these groups are:

(I) Words that reflect cultural differences, with no equivalent in the other variety, e.g. *Ivy League*, *Groundhog Day* for AmE; *Honours Degree*, *Value Added Tax* for BrE.

(II) Words that are variety-specific but which have an equivalent in the other variety, e.g. AmE *baggage room* – BrE *left-luggage office*, AmE *potato chip* = BrE *crisp*.

(III) Words that have at least one sense used in World English (WE), with an additional sense or senses specific to either or both varieties. For example, *caravan* has the WE sense of 'a company of traders or other travellers journeying together, often with a train of camels, through the desert', but it has the specific sense in BrE of 'a large enclosed vehicle capable of being pulled by a car or lorry and equipped to be lived in', which is equivalent to AmE *trailer*. A further example is *homely*, which has the WE sense 'characteristic of or suited to the ordinary home; unpretentious', and with a BrE sense '(of a person) warm and domesticated in manner or appearance' but an AmE sense '(of a person) plain or ugly'.

(IV) Words that have a single sense in World English and have an equivalent word in either AmE or BrE. An example is *ballpoint pen*, with BrE equivalent *biro*; or *undertaker*, with AmE equivalent *mortician*. WE *filling station* has AmE equivalent *gas station* and BrE equivalent *petrol station*.

(V) Words that have no World English meaning, but that have different specific meanings in the two varieties. For example, *flyover* has AmE meaning 'a ceremonial flight of aircraft over a given area', equivalent to BrE *flypast*. In BrE, *flyover* has the meaning 'an intersection of two roads at which one is carried over the other by a bridge', equivalent to AmE *overpass*. In AmE *public school* is a free school financed by the state, whereas in BrE it is a fee-paying private educational establishment.

D. Crystal and M. Benson give a fourfold division in terms of the crossover potential of equivalent words between the AmE and BrE varieties:

(1) No crossover potential from either side, e.g. (AmE words on the left, BrE on the right):

candy	sweets
cot	camp bed
freeway	motorway
grab bag	lucky dip
kerosene	paraffin
wrench	spanner
zip code	post code

(2) Crossover potential from AmE to BrE, but not from BrE to AmE; so the AmE word is in World English, e.g.

can	tin
eraser	rubber
French fries	chips
intermission	interval
leash	lead
stroller	pushchair
zero	nought

(3) Crossover potential from BrE to AmE, but not from AmE to BrE; so the BrE word is in World English, e.g.

ash can	dustbin
drapes	curtains
fall	autumn
faucet	tap
line	queue
pantyhose	tights

(4) Crossover potential both from AmE to BrE and from BrE to AmE; so both words are in World English, e.g.

administration	government
antenna	aerial
baggage	luggage
dry goods	drapery
mail	post
sweater	jumper

These examples only begin to illustrate the vast differences in vocabulary between AmE and BrE, differences that have come about as the two nations have developed their own identities and pursued their own goals since the first settlers emigrated to America in the seventeenth century. Here also belong idioms, which

may or may not have equivalents in the other language, e.g. AmE *shoot the breeze* – 'chat informally' (no BrE equivalent idiom), BrE *fall off the back of a lorry* = 'be stolen' (no AmE equivalent idiom).

The vocabulary of Canadian English is not the same as that of American English. While there has been steady cross-border contact with the USA, Canada has also experienced a continuous flow of Immigration from Britain. Other factors include the bilingual influence of French in Quebec and contact with the Native American languages of Canada. Words for vehicles and their parts are usually AmE: *truck, hood, fender, trunk, station wagon*. Some BrE and AmE words co-exist, and may be more commonly used in some regions than others, e.g. AmE *fry pan* and BrE *frying pan*, AmE *silverware* and BrE *cutlery*. Words from French include *bateau* (flat-bottomed river boat), *brule* (area of forest destroyed by fire), *habitant* (a French Canadian, especially a farmer). Words from Native American languages include: *bogan* (a sluggish sidestream) from Algonquian, *mowitch* (deer) from Chinook, and *hooch* (alcoholic drink) from Tlingit, which has now passed into World English.

3 Jargon

We are using the term 'jargon' to refer to specialist vocabularies associated with 'occupations' that people engage in, either as a mode of employment or as a leisure pursuit or for some other purpose. We all have access to a number of jargons, which we understand 'passively' and may use more or less 'actively', as a consequence of the routines of daily life that we engage in.

The term 'jargon' often has a pejorative connotation. We use it in this way when a professional (e.g. doctor or lawyer) uses their specialized vocabulary in inappropriate contexts, either to display their knowledge or to obscure what they have to say. Jargon is impenetrable to the outsider, often deliberately so; only those inside the particular occupational group have access to its specialist vocabulary. You can become a member of the group only by learning the vocabulary, the jargon, and by using it appropriately. In part, that is what a professional training or an apprenticeship does: it familiarizes you with the jargon and then tests that you have acquired it sufficiently to be allowed to call yourself a member of the group (lawyer, electrician, or whatever).

Occupational jargons

Medicine and allied professions have created a jargon that is based on Latin and Greek, especially in the formation of neo-classical compounds. There are, for example, a number of *-ology* words – *angiology, enterology, haematology, psychology* – relating to the 'study of various parts of human beings that may become diseased. Similarly, there are a number of *-iatry* or *-iatrics* words, relating to the 'treatment' of diseases or conditions: *geriatrics, paediatrics, podiatry, psychiatry*. A group of words with *-gram* or *-graph* relates to the measuring and recording of bodily functions or conditions: *angiogram, audiogram, cardiogram, electrocardiograph, encephelograph, mammogram*. Medical jargon has a pattern to

it; becoming familiar with it involves recognizing the patterns and learning the meanings of the Latin and Greek roots that form these neo-classical compounds.

Psychology and psychiatry, whose jargon has been derogatorily referred to as 'psychobabble', has a vocabulary composed partly of neoclassical compounds (*hedonics*), but also of words borrowed directly from Latin and Greek (*ego, id, eras, thanatos* in Freudian psychiatry; *persona, animus, horne* in Jungian), as well as ordinary English words either forming novel compounds or invested with a technical sense, e.g. *wish fulfilment, death wish* (Freud), *shadow, collective unconscious* (Jung).

The jargon of computing is largely of this last type: novel compounds formed from established English words, or new meanings for ordinary words. Among the compounds, consider: *central processing unit, disk drive, read only memory* (ROM), *touch sensitive screen, virtual reality, word processor*. Words with new meanings include: *chip, file, icon, monitor, keyboard, printer, scroll, setup, terminal, window*. What makes computer jargon especially difficult to understand is the extensive use of abbreviations and acronyms: ASCII, BIT, CPU, DOS, SQL, SSADM.

Traditional industries also have their jargon. As an example, we will take the mining industry. Here there is no erudite vocabulary from classical sources, but rather ordinary vocabulary extended in meaning or words taken from dialect for the purpose. Common core words used with a specialist mining sense include: *pack* ('a roof support, especially one made of rubble'), *pulp* ('pulverized ore'), *sump* ('a depression at the bottom of a shaft where water collects before it is pumped away'). Words with a local or dialect origin include: *swag* ('a depression filled with water due to mining subsidence'), *vug* ('a small cavity in a rock or vein' – from Cornish). A further type of jargon arises from word-formation processes producing novel lexemes: *millrun* ('the process of milling an ore or rock in order to determine the content or quality of the mineral'), *mucker* ('a person who shifts broken rock or waste'), *poppet head* ('a framework above a mine shaft that supports the winding mechanism').

Some occupational jargons begin to filter into the core vocabulary, because the professional areas concerned impinge more extensively on the lives of lay people and are mediated by newspapers and other journalism. This is the case, for example, with some medical jargon (*carcinoma, cardiac arrest*) and with financial jargon ('*bull*' and '*bear*' markets, *inflation, money supply*). The increasing use of word processors has brought printing jargon into everyday use: we now know about *fonts, point sizes, run-on text, justification, widows* and *orphans*. There still remains, however, much printing jargon exclusive to the printing profession, both formal (*mackle, quoin, shank, slug*) and informal (*screamer* (= 'exclamation mark'), *idiot tape*).

4 Style

Whenever we speak and write, we adjust our style to the context and audience of our communication. The note we leave for a friend confirming a social engagement

(*'See you for lunch at Chris's. Don't be late!'*) is not in the same style as an essay written for course assessment (The convoluted structure of the fifth sentence substantially vitiates the flow of information in the text.). Part of the distinctiveness of a style is achieved by the choice of vocabulary. A more formal context requires 'formal' vocabulary; an informal context will allow 'colloquial' vocabulary, perhaps 'slang'; a very informal context may even allow the use of 'taboo' vocabulary.

Dictionaries do not mark the vast majority of their words with any style or formality labels, though native speakers and non-native speakers alike know that a choice has to be made according to the formality of the context. Most words are deemed to be 'neutral' in their formality. Dictionaries tend to label words that are towards the extremes of the styles. Few words are marked as 'formal'; somewhat more are marked as 'informal' or 'colloquial' – the two terms are usually interchangeable; quite a number of general 'slang' words will be included; and a dictionary these days will usually also include a number of well-established 'taboo' words.

Formal words

Some texts must by their nature and purpose be formal. Such is the case, for example, with legal texts. A large number of words that we associate with legal texts – hereinafter, hereunder, thereto, wherein, whomsoever – which have an archaic ring to them, are marked in dictionaries as 'formal', and in some instances with the occupational label 'legal' as well.

Some formal words are the precise technical names for ordinary language words; they are usually derived from the classical languages. *Occident* (from Latin) and *orient* (also from Latin) are the formal terms for 'west' and 'east'; *carnivore* and *herbivore* (from Latin) are formal for 'meat-eater' and 'plant-eater'. A *philatelist* (from Greek) is a 'stamp collector', and a *toxophilite* (also from Greek) is an 'archer'; similarly, *cuneiform* (Latin), 'wedge-shaped', *horticulture* (Latin), 'gardening', *ornithologist* (Greek), 'bird watcher', *troglydyte* (Greek), 'cave dweller'. Words that have been formed by abbreviation may have their unabbreviated form as a formal equivalent: *omnibus* for 'bus', *perambulator* for 'pram', *refrigerator* for 'fridge', *zoological garden* for 'zoo'.

A formal word may be a means of speaking appropriately about bodily functions and other matters that are not normally mentioned in public. The formal word has a distancing or euphemistic effect, such as *demise* or *decease* for 'death', *copulation* for 'sex(ual intercourse)', *defecate* for 'pass a motion'/'shit'.

Using a formal word may be merely a way of putting on airs or sounding posh or erudite. When, for example, might you use *ameliorate* instead of 'improve', *dutious* instead of 'dutiful', *explicate* instead of 'explain', *nescience* instead of 'ignorance', *pulchritude* for 'beauty', *reside* for 'live', *residuum* for 'residue'? Perhaps only if you are being ironically formal.

Colloquial and slang words

Towards the other end of the formality spectrum, though not at its extreme, are words marked in dictionaries as 'colloquial' or 'informal', and as 'slang'. The

Concise Oxford Dictionary (1996), for example, uses the labels 'colloq' and 'slang'; the difference appears to be simply one of informality, with 'slang' words likely to be used in more informal contexts, though the rationale for the lexicographer's dividing line is not always clear. For instance, *bellyache* as a noun, meaning 'stomach pain', is marked as 'colloq', while the verb, meaning 'complain' is marked as 'slang'; *booze*, meaning 'alcoholic drink' is 'colloq', but *booze-up* is 'slang'; *beanfeast* is 'colloq', while *beano* is 'slang' – both meaning 'party, celebration'; *bitch* (verb) is 'colloq', while *beef* is 'slang' – both meaning 'complain'.

The 'colloquial' category includes words that are abbreviated for informal effect: *agin* (against), *bicky* (biscuit), *brill* (brilliant), *broolly* (umbrella), *budgie* (budgerigar), *celeb* (celebrity), *champ* (champion), *choc* (chocolate), *comfy* (comfortable), *demo* (demonstration). Similar items involve coalescence and abbreviation, e.g. *cuppa* (cup of (tea)), *dunno* (don't know). Others involve reduplication, e.g. *arty-farty*, 'pretentiously artistic'; *dilly-dally*, 'dawdle'.

Other colloquial words have no obvious motivation for their informality, other than that they are conventionally restricted to informal contexts: *barney*, 'noisy quarrel', *bigwig*, 'important person', *bod*, 'person', *chunter*, 'mutter, grumble', *doddle*, 'easy thing', etc.

The words that are marked as 'slang' are in part informal items that have perhaps not yet reached wide enough acceptance to be labelled 'colloq': *ace*, *awesome* – both meaning 'excellent', *bash*, 'party', *bottle*, 'courage', *buzzword*, 'catchword, fashionable jargon word'. Other slang words are on the way to becoming 'taboo' (see next section): *bog* for 'lavatory', *bogey* for 'nasal mucus', *boob* for 'breast', *bum* for 'buttocks'. But the majority of 'slang' words are slang because they are used in contexts that are very informal, between people who know each other well, or for a particular effect: *barmy*, *belt up*, *binge*, *blub*, etc.

Taboo words

The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1996) defines *taboo* (borrowed into English from the Tongan language) as: '1 a system or the act of setting a person or thing apart as sacred, prohibited, or accursed. 2 a prohibition or restriction imposed on certain behaviour, word usage, etc., by social custom.' Taboo subjects or words may often be of a religious or cultural nature, the name of God, for example; or men may be prohibited from mentioning certain things associated with women.

In lexicology, the label 'taboo' is usually applied to words that would be extremely offensive if spoken in most contexts. Indeed, many dictionaries no longer use the label 'taboo' for these kinds of word: 'vulgar', or 'coarse slang'. This is perhaps a recognition that such words, which would at one time have been almost unmentionable and even excluded from dictionaries, can now be found to a large extent in popular fiction and even in daily newspapers.

Taboo words in English are largely concerned with non-technical words for parts of the human anatomy associated with sex and excretion and for the act of sexual intercourse – some eighteen such terms are labelled 'coarse slang' in *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1996). The topics that such words refer to were at one time taboo; now they are the subject of almost too much comment, at least in British and American society, but speakers and writers may have no choice

between a relatively technical term. But as particular members of this group of words appear more frequently in print, their ability to shock diminishes, and they become less 'taboo': *crap* and *piss* might be cases in point. This may account for the disappearance of the 'taboo' label itself from dictionaries.

It is also the case that dictionaries do not agree among themselves on which of the labels 'colloquial/informal', 'slang', and 'coarse slang/vulgar' should apply to particular words.

Political correctness

The term 'politically correct', in its current sense, was coined in 1970; the abbreviation 'PC' in 1986, and the noun 'political correctness' in 1979. Although often used in a disparaging way, this term reflects the sensitivities that have developed in the use of words that refer to women, people from minority ethnic communities, disabled people, older people, and so on (McArthur (ed.) 1992). It would be politically correct, for example, to refer to the person chairing a meeting as the 'chair' or 'chairperson' rather than 'chairman', since the latter implies a male. This applies to any term that has 'man' in it, e.g. 'policeman', 'fireman', 'salesman', 'newsman' – which should be replaced by 'police officer', 'firefighter', 'sales staff', 'reporter'. Similarly, any term that draws attention to the femaleness of the person is to be avoided, e.g. 'authoress', 'actress' ('author' and 'actor' will do); 'woman doctor', 'lady poet' ('doctor' and 'poet' *will do*).

In the field of disability, 'handicapped' is no longer an acceptable term, having been replaced by the more sensitive 'disabled', or in the case of mental disability by 'with learning difficulties'. Similar terms, such as 'cripple(d)' or 'invalid' should also be replaced by 'disabled (person)'. Likewise, 'spastic' becomes 'person with cerebral palsy', and 'mongol' becomes 'person with Down's syndrome'. It is considered unacceptable to refer to 'the blind' and 'the deaf', since these terms depersonalize; alternatives are 'blind/deaf person/people'. And the negative-sounding 'wheelchair-bound' is replaced by the more positive 'wheelchair user'.

Sensitivity is also needed in the area of race and ethnicity. Terms such as 'negro' and 'coloured', which were formerly used to refer to non-white people, are unacceptable. The term 'black' is now used to refer to people of African or Caribbean origin; and 'Afro-Caribbean' has replaced 'West Indian', as a more accurate term. Again, as in the case of disability, it is important to emphasize personhood; so, 'a black person/woman' rather than using 'black' as a noun.

What is at issue here is the dignity of human beings and the power of words to offend, especially when talking about and to those who are less powerful because they form a minority group within a society. Political correctness has acquired a bad name and become a term of disparagement in part because of some of the changes, bordering on the absurd, that have been suggested.

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