О.І. Павлова

*Присвячується світлій пам'яті
мого любого сина Павлова Дмитра Миколайовича*

ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ
АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

*Навчальний посібник
для студентів вищих навчальних закладів*

Рекомендовано Вченою радою Рівненського державного гуманітарного університету як навчальний посібник для вищих навчальних закладів (протокол № 6 від 27.06.2018 р.).

Рецензенти:

Деменчук О.В., доктор філологічних наук, професор, зав. кафедри романо-германської філології Рівненського державного гуманітарного університету;

Мізін К.І., доктор філологічних наук, професор, зав. кафедри іноземної філології, перекладу та методики навчання ДВНЗ "Переяслав-Хмельницький державний педагогічний університет ім. Г. Сковороди".

Preface

This course of English lexicology forms a part of the curriculum for the English sections of foreign philology departments of teacher training colleges and universities. It is intended for the third-year students of the day and extra-mural departments and fully meets the requirements of the programme in the subject. It may also be of interest to all readers whose command of English is sufficient to enable them to read texts of average difficulty and who would like to gain some information about the English word, its morphological structure, history and meaning.

The tutorial includes the following parts: 1) lecture notes on lexicology of the English language with the list of recommended literature; 2) authentic texts on lexicology for additional reading; 3) exercises for practical hours; 4) module quizzes on practical lexicology; 5) tests on the vocabulary and theory of lexicology; 6) the list of issues for an examination on lexicology; 7) the glossary of lexicology terms.

Lecture notes cover the main topics of English lexicology: lexicology as a linguistic science, the morphological structure of English words, the structural types of words in the English language, etymology of English words, word-building, complex nature of the word's meaning, semantic groups of English words. 'One can hardly acquire a perfect command of English without having knowledge of all these things, for a perfect command of a language implies the conscious approach to the language's resources and at least a partial understanding of the 'inner mechanism' which makes the huge language system work' [1: 4].

It is our aim that foreign language students should learn the following from the study of English lexicology: 1) to become aware of the meaning of the language as a tool; 2) to distinguish between morphemes, words and stable word-groups; 3) to analyse the English vocabulary; 4) to make analysis of different structural types of words; 5) to be able to recognize the origin of lexical units; 6) to handle synonyms, antonyms, hyperonyms, hyponyms, homonyms and paronyms; 7) to analyse and solve lexicological problems; 8) to write their bachelor's and master's papers on a lexicological subject.

The author will feel much obliged for any criticism.

PART ONE
ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY IN THEORY

Lecture Notes on English Lexicology

Topic One: English Lexicology as a Science
1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Its subject-matter and tasks
2. The structure of lexicology
3. The main methods of lexicological research
4. The place of lexicology among other sciences

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Its subject-matter and tasks

Linguistics is a science about a natural human language in general. The main branches of linguistics are phonology, lexicology, grammar, stylistics and others.

Lexicology (from Greek words: *lexis* – word, *lexikos* – pertaining to word, and *logos* – learning, science) studies the vocabulary of a given language. The subject-matter of lexicology is the word, its morphemic structure, history, meaning and its stylistic value. So, lexicology is the study of words.

For some people studying words may seem uninteresting. But if studied properly, it may well prove as exciting and novel as unearthing the mysteries of Outer Space [1: 6].

The knowledge of lexicology provides us with a clear understanding of the laws of vocabulary development and helps to master the language. One can hardly acquire a perfect command of English without having knowledge of English lexicology.

The main tasks of lexicology are to determine:

1) the general characteristics of the English word-stock in its modern state;

2) the specific features and structural patterns of English words;

3) productive and non-productive types and means of word-building;

4) the complex nature of word-meaning and the modern methods of its research;

5) the stylistic peculiarities of the English vocabulary;

6) the changes of the English vocabulary in its historical development;

7) the vocabulary resources of Modern English (polysemantic words, homonyms, synonyms, antonyms);

8) English phraseological units and principles of their classification.

We can not acquire a perfect command of English without having knowledge of all the above-mentioned things.

2. The structure of lexicology

We should distinguish between general, special, historical, descriptive, contrastive, computational and applied lexicology.

The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as **general lexicology**. The description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language is the subject-matter of **special lexicology**.

Historical lexicology makes a study of the development of the vocabulary as a system, whereas **descriptive lexicology** describes the vocabulary in its modern state.

Contrastive lexicology investigates the word-stock of different languages with the aim of revealing the genetic affinity of languages, their structural and semantic differences and similarities.

Computational lexicology is that branch of computational linguistics which is concerned with the use of computers in the study of the vocabulary.

Applied lexicology mainly embraces the following 4 spheres: lexicography, translation, linguistic pedagogy and speech culture.

The main branches of lexicology are semasiology, etymology, onomasiology, phraseology and onomastics.

Semasiology studies word-meaning and the classification of changes in the signification of words and forms, viewed as normal and vital factors of linguistic development [3: 5-6].

Etymology studies the origin or derivation of a word as shown by its analysis into elements, by pointing out the root upon which it is based.

Onomasiology is the study of the principles and regularities of the specification of things and notions by lexical and lexical-phraseological means of a given language [3: 6].

Phraseology is the branch of linguistics specializing in word-groups which are characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning.

Onomastics studies proper names and it is subdivided into anthroponymy (a science about people's names), toponymy (a science about geographical names) and ethnonymy (a science about peoples' names).

3. The main methods of lexicological research

As a branch of linguistics lexicology has its own methods of scientific research of lexical units.

Methods of scientific investigation used in linguistic studies have always been closely connected with the general trends in the science of language. Thus, for instance, in the beginning of the 20th century vocabulary studies were mainly concentrated on historical problems. So, the **historical and comparative method** became very popular in studying kindred languages. Later linguistics developed the **typological study of languages**, both kindred and non-kindred.

Then Jan Baudouin de Courtenay, Philip Fortunatov in Russia and Ferdinand de Saussure in Switzerland developed the **systematic approach to language.**

The American school of descriptive linguistics developed the **distributional analysis** and the **immediate constituents analysis** (the IC-analysis).

The theory of transformational grammar, a new linguistic theory, appeared in the 50s of the 20th century. The theory has brought **transformational analysis.**

To sum it up in brief, the main methods of linguistic research widely applied by lexicology in recent times are the historical and comparative method, the typological study of language, the systematic approach to language, distributional analysis often accompanied by substitution tests, the IC-analysis, transformational analysis, contrastive method, componential analysis, statistical techniques, contextual analysis etc.

4. The place of lexicology among other sciences

Lexicology is connected both with linguistic sciences (phonology, grammar, stylistics and language history) and non-linguistic sciences (philosophy, psychology and history).

It is but natural that all branches of linguistics should be organically related.

Thus, **phonology** will always help us in studying the phonetic peculiarities of words that come from other languages; then, again, it is phonology that helps us to explain the appearance of some words alike in form but different in meaning etc. Correlation between the meanings of words and their prosodic arrangement is a source of special linguistic interest. E.g. *absent* (adj) – 1) відсутній; 2) розсіяний; *absent* (v) – бути відсутнім; *object* (n) – 1) предмет, річ; 2) мета, намір; 3) *філос*. об'єкт; *object* (v) – 1) заперечувати, протестувати; 2) не любити, не терпіти. The meaning of a word in these cases relies on the situation of the accent expressed mainly in terms of pitch.

Lexicology makes use of the information provided by the **history of the language.** Changes in the word-stock of the language, the appearance and disappearance of certain word-building elements in the process of language development, the productivity of different ways of vocabulary enrichment etc may be well followed only on the basis of a profound historical study. For instance, from the history of the language we learn that the modern word *teach* goes back to Old English *tæcan* (*указувати, керувати*) and from that the derived meaning (*навчати*) has arisen.

A systematic vocabulary description is hardly possible without some information provided by **stylistics**, which treats of selection among different linguistic forms. The study of the vocabulary leads us to the observation that some words are neutral and colourless in tone, but other words have a distinctly literary or poetic flavour, which may be colloquial, humorous, vulgar, slangy, childish, stilted, technical and so on. E.g. *Farewell!* (poetic), *Adieu!* (humorous), *Good-bye!* (neutral), *Ta-ta!* (familiar), *So long!* (conversational). All these words literally mean the same, but they are unequal stylistically.

Interaction between lexicology and **grammar** is the most important. For example, word-building can be assigned equally well to the provinces of vocabulary and grammar. The categories and types of

word-formation which characterize the present-day English linguistic system are largely dependent upon its grammatical structure. Grammatical forms favour the differentiation of meaning of words. Take such examples as nouns in the plural number in a special sense:

> *advice* = counsel, *advices* = information;
> *colour* = tint, *colours* = 1) plural of tint, 2) flag;
> *custom* = habit, *customs* = 1) plural of habit, 2) duties;
> *damage* = injury, *damages* = compensation for injury;
> *spectacle* = sight, *spectacles* = 1) plural of sight, 2) eye-glasses;
> *work* = job, *works* = a plant, factory;
> *cloth* = material, *clothes* = the things that people wear;
> *humanity* = mankind, *humanities* = the arts.

The interrelation between vocabulary and grammar is not less characteristic in making new words through conversion which has existed at all stages of the language development and has flourished most in Modern English. A converted word develops a meaning of its own and diverges so far from its original function that it is left to be an independent word, a homonym, e.g. *house (n)* = building, dwelling, *house (v)* = to contain; *garden (n)* = the area of land next to a house, where there are flowers, grass, and other plants*, garden (v)* = to work in a garden, keeping it clean, growing plants; *wine (n)* = an alcoholic drink made of grapes, *wine (v)* = to drink wine, to entertain smb well with wine; *team (n)* = a group of people who play a game or sport together against another group, *team (v)* = to put two things together, because they will look good or work well together.

Topic Two: The Morphological Structure of the English Word

   1. The morphological structure of the English word
   2. The structural types of English words
   3. The morphemic analysis of the words

   1. The morphological structure of the English word
The fundamental unit of language is **a word.** Being the most elementary unity of sound and meaning a word nevertheless falls into smaller meaningful structural units which are called morphemes. In

most cases morphemes do not occur as free forms but only as constituents of words. Yet they possess meanings of their own.

The notion and the term **morpheme** was suggested by Beaudouin de Courtenay in 1881. The word *morpheme* is one more term which linguistics owes to Greek [(*morphe* – 'form' + the Greek suffix *-eme* which denotes the smallest unit or the minimum distinctive feature (Cf.: *phoneme, sememe, lexeme, grammeme, opposeme*)].

From the semantic point of view all morphemes are divided into two large classes: **root morphemes** (or roots) and **affixational morphemes** (or affixes). The root is the primary element of the word, its basic part which conveys its fundamental lexical meaning. For example, *end-* and *boy-* are the roots in the following groups of words: *end, ending, endless, unending, endlessly, endlessness* and *boy, boyhood, boyish.* There exist many root morphemes which coincide with root words, e.g. *man, son, desk, tree, red, black, see, look, serve, green, park, land.*

The affixes, in their turn, fall into prefixes which precede the root (e.g. *un*happy, *re*write, *dis*cover, *im*possible, *mis*behavior) and suffixes which follow the root (e.g. *friendship, peaceful, worker, teaching, realize, calmly*). The affixes in the above examples are **derivational affixes** serving to make new words and conveying lexical-grammatical meaning.

It should be mentioned that prefixes in Modern English are always derivational (e.g. *read – reread*, *arrange – disarrange, happy – unhappy, convenience – inconvenience*). As for suffixes, they are either inflectional or derivational. **Inflectional suffixes** (or inflections) are morphemes serving to make different forms of one and the same word and conveying grammatical meaning, e.g. *love – loves – loved, live – lives – lived, pavement – pavements, word – words*. Inflectional suffixes are studied by grammar.

The part of the word without its inflectional suffix is called **a stem.** Stems that coincide with roots are known as **simple stems,** e.g. *boy's, trees, roads, books; reads, looks, seems*. Stems that contain a root and one or more affixes are **derived stems,** e.g. *teacher's, misfires, governments*. Binary stems comprising two simple or derived stems are called **compound stems**, e.g. *machine-gunner's, school-boyish*.

From the structural point of view morphemes fall into 3 types: free morphemes, bound morphemes and semi-bound morphemes.

A free morpheme can stand alone as a word, e.g. *friendly, friendship* (cf.: *a friend*); *boyish, boyhood* (cf.: *a boy*) [5: 18]. So, a free morpheme, is, in fact, a root.

Bound morphemes occur only as constituent parts of words [5: 19], e.g.

(a) *depart, enlarge, misprint, dishonest, unhappy;*

(b) *freedom, greatly, poetic, beautiful, greenish;*

(c) *conceive, perceive, deceive, receive; desist, subsist, resist; interior, exterior, ulterior; conclude, occlude, preclude, include, exclude.*

(d) *claustrophobia, aerogram, astrospace, neurosurgeon, pianophile.*

Bound morphemes are, in fact, of four types: prefixes, suffixes, bound bases and combining forms.

Bound bases are morphemes which serve as stems for derivation but which never occur as free forms, e.g. *structure, construction, destruct.*

Combining forms are morphemes of Greek and Latin origin which have a definite lexical meaning though they are not used as autonomous words [5: 18], e.g. *polyclinic, television, stereophonic, astronaut, megapolis.* These morphemes are bound root morphemes of a special kind.

Semi-bound morphemes can function both as affixes and as free morphemes, i.e. words [5: 18]. E.g. *after, half, man, well, self* and *after-thought, after-taste, half-baked, half-finished, chairman, herdsman, well-known, well-done, himself, self-pity.*

Positional variants of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment are called **allomorphs.** Thus, for instance, the allomorphs of the prefix *in-* (*insane, insensitive*, *intransitive, involuntary*) are *il-* before *l* (*illogical, illegal, illegible, illegitimate), im-* before bilabials: *b, m, p (imbalanced, immobile, immaterial, impossible, imperfect)* and *ir-* before *r (irregular, irrational, irresolute, irresponsible).*

2. The structural types of English words

In Modern English there are 4 structural types of words depending on the difference of their morphemes.

I The words consisting of only one root-morpheme are known as **simple words** (or root words), e.g. *man, sky, gem, dean, aim, pear, swig, self, long, short, big, look, sit, stand, see*. Simple words predominate in

speech communication, as anyone can see who will listen to an average talk or read a page in a book or newspaper. These words occur in any text with the greatest frequency [6: 6]. A great number of simple words belong to the original English stock or to earlier borrowings, e.g. *house, room, work, port, street, table.*

II The words consisting of a root and one or more affixes are known as **derived words** (or derivatives), e.g. *development, journalist, quickly, friendship, personify, greenish, discover, imperfect, unable, undo, disagreement, indifference, reproductivity.* Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary. They rate second in frequency after simple words and tower above all the other structural types if counted in a dictionary. The high percentage of derived words both in language and speech is explained by the activity of derivation or affixation as a word-building device. It has never slackened its productivity beginning with the earlier stages of the development of the English language [6: 7].

III The words consisting of two or more stems are known as **compound words (**or compounds), e.g. *hothead, pressman, chairperson, godson, fruitcake, ladybird, waterfall, washhouse, broomstick, bluebell, brownstone, lighthouse-keeper, boot-cupboard, salesgirl, herdsman, bridesmaid, lily-white, dark-grey, snow-white, forget-me-not, pick-me-up, lily-of-the-valley, good-for-nothing, dyed-in-the-wool, know-all, know-nothing, stay-at-home, mum-to-be, fly-by-night, lady-killer, pen-holder.*

Words of this structural type are produced by the way of word-building called compounding (or composition). Compound words do not amount to much in frequency. In the existing word-stock, compound nouns constitute 15 per cent. The number of compounds in the language is steadily growing [6: 8].

IV The words in which phrase components are joined together by means of compounding and affixation are known as **derivational compounds**, e.g. *long-legged, broad-shouldered, oval-shaped, fair-haired, bald-headed, grey-eyed, hot-tempered, strong-willed, hot-blooded, open-minded, chicken-hearted.* Derivational compounds are the words combining the features of compounds and derivatives. They are formed when a suffix or a prefix is added to a compound word (or a compound stem), e.g. *left-hand/ed, left-hand/er, sight-se/er, house-wif/ery.*

3. The morphemic analysis of the word

Morphological structure of words can be determined by special synchronic method known as the **analysis into immediate and ultimate constituents** (ICs and UCs). This method is based on the binary principle. It means that the analysis proceeds in stages, and at each stage the word or a part of it is segmented into immediate constituents. Such successive segmentation results in ultimate constituents that defy any further division, for example: *denationalize* (v): 1*) denationalize > de/nationalize*; 2) *nationalize > national/ize*; 3) *national > nation/al.* Hence, the UCs of the word *denationalize* are *de/nation/al/ize* [5: 22].

Topic Three: The origin of English words

1. Native words in the English vocabulary
2. Borrowed words in the English vocabulary
3. Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect
4. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation
5. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed: (a) Romanic borrowings; (b) Germanic borrowings; (c) Slavic borrowings

1. Native words in the English vocabulary

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.

Native words are the words of the English word-stock which belong to the following etymological layers of the English vocabulary: a) words of common Indo-European origin; b) words of Common Germanic word-stock; c) purely Anglo-Saxon words.

By **the Indo-European element** are meant words of roots common to all (or most) languages of the Indo-European group [1: 54]. The words of this group denote elementary concepts without which no

human communication would be possible. The following groups can be identified.

1. Family relations: *father, mother, brother, son, daughter*.
2. Parts of the human body: *foot, nose, lip, heart*.
3. Animals: *cow, swine, goose*.
4. Plants: *tree, birch, corn*.
5. Time of day: *day, night*.
6. Heavenly bodies: *sun, moon, star*.
7. Numerous adjectives: *red, new, glad, sad*.
8. The numerals from *one* to *a hundred*.
9. Pronouns – personal (except *they*) and demonstrative.
10. Numerous verbs: *be, stand, sit, eat, know* [1: 54].

The Germanic element represents words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages [1: 54]. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element.

1. Parts of the human body: *head, hand, arm, finger, bone*.
2. Animals: *bear, fox, calf*.
3. Plants: *oak, fir, grass*.
4. Natural phenomena: *rain*, *frost*.
5. Seasons of the year: *winter, spring, summer*.
6. Landscape features: *sea, land*.
7. Human dwellings and furniture: *house, room, bench*.
8. Sea-going vessels: *boat, ship*.
9. Adjectives: *green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good*.
10. Verbs: *see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make, give, drink* [1: 54].

The English proper element is opposed to the first two groups. For not only it can be approximately dated, but these words have another distinctive feature: they are specifically English having no cognates in other languages whereas for Indo-European and Germanic words such cognates can always be found, as, for instance, for the following words of the Indo-European group. Eng. *star*: Germ. – *Stern*, Lat. – *stella*, Gr. – *aster;* Eng. s*tand:* Germ. – *stehen,* Lat. – *stare*, R. – *стоять* [1: 54]. Here are some examples of English proper words: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*.

2. Borrowed words in the English vocabulary

Borrowing words from other languages has been characteristic of English throughout its history. More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characteristic of borrowings to be non-motivated semantically [9: 99].

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Christianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings are fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words [9: 100].

English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundant as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a giving language, it has become *a lingua franca* of the 21st century [9: 100].

Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria: (a) according to the aspect which is borrowed, (b) according to the degree of assimilation, (c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed [9: 100-101].

3. Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect

There are the following groups: phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings [9: 101].

Phonetic borrowings are the most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning [9: 101]. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: *labour,*

travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; *apparatchik, nomenklature, bolshevik, activist, Soviet, sputnik* are phonetic borrowings from Russian; *bank, soprano, duet* are phonetic borrowings from Italian [9: 101-102].

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions [9: 102]. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units: *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin), *fair sex* (French), *living space* (German), *collective farm* (Russian). Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e.g. *Sunday (solis dies)*. There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: *pipe of peace, pale-faced*, from German: *masterpiece, homesickness, superman* [9: 102].

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed [9: 102]. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e.g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning *to live* for the word *to dwell* which in Old English had the meaning *to wander*. Or else the meaning *подарунок* for the word *gift* which in Old English had the meaning *викуп за жінку* [9: 102].

Semantic borrowings can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e.g. *brigade* was borrowed into Russian and acquired the meaning *a working collective – бригада*. This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing. The same is true of the English word *pioneer* [9: 102].

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, e.g. we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of hybrid words in English where different morphemes have different origin, e.g. *goddess* (native root + Romanic suffix *–ess), beautiful* (French root + English suffix *–ful*), *uneatable* (English prefix *un-* + English root + Romanic suffix *–able*) [9: 102].

4. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors:

(a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed (if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier),

(b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form (words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker),

(c) how often the borrowing is used in the language (the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated),

(d) how long the word lives in the language (the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is) [9: 104].

Accordingly borrowings are subdivided into: completely assimilated, partly assimilated and non-assimilated (barbarisms).

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, c.f. the French word *sport* and the native word *start*. Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e.g. *correct – corrected*. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion, e.g. *gate – gates*. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the first one, e.g. *capital, service* [9: 104-105].

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups:

(a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, e.g. *sari, sombrero, sarafan, taiga, steppe, borshch, kvass, shah, rajah, tsar, rickshaw, troika, rupee, zloty, peseta;*

b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms: *bacillus – bacilli, phenomenon – phenomena, datum – data, genius – genii, cactus – cacti.*

(c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds [v] and [z], e.g. *voice, zero.* Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e.g. [sk] in the words: *sky, skate, ski* etc; sounds [k] and [g] before the front vowels are not palatalized, e.g. *girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle.*

(d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greek borrowings *y* can be spelled in the middle of the word (*symbol, synonym*), *ph* denotes the sound [f] (*phoneme, morpheme*), *ch* denotes the sound [k] (*chemistry, chaos*), *ps* denotes the sound [s] (*psychology, psychiatry*)[9: 105-106].

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e.g. consonants *p, t, s* are not pronounced at the end of the word (*buffet, coup, debris*). Specifically French combination of letters *eau* [ou] can be found in the borrowings: *beau, chateau, trousseau*. Some digraphs retain their French pronunciation: *ch* is pronounced as [ʃ], e.g. *chic, parachute*, *qu* is pronounced as [k] e.g. *bouquet*, *ou* is pronounced as [u:], e.g. *rouge*. Some letters retain their French pronunciation, e.g. *i* is pronounced as [i:], e.g. *chic, machine*; *g* is pronounced as [ʒ], e.g. *rouge* [9: 107].

Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e.g. *Autobahn, Lebensraum*, some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e.g. *a* is pronounced as [a:], e.g. *Dictat*, *u* is pronounced as [u:], e.g. *Kuchen, au* is pronounced as [au], e.g. *Hausfrau*, *ei* is pronounced as [ai], e.g. *Reich*. Some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e.g. *s* before a vowel is pronounced as [z], e.g. *Sitskrieg*, *v* is pronounced as [f], *w* is pronounced as [v], e.g. *Volkswagen*, *ch* is pronounced as [h], e.g. *Kuchen* [9: 107].

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. *addio* (Italian), *tête-à-tête* (French), *dolce vita* (Italian), *duende* (Spanish), *an homme, a femme* (French), *gonzo, ciao* (Italian) and many others [9: 108].

5. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed

I. Romanic borrowings in the English vocabulary
(a) Latin borrowings

Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: *street, port, wall* etc. Many Latin and Greek words

came into English during the Adoption of Christianity in the 6th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: *alter, cross, dean*, and Greek words: *church, angel, devil, anthem* [9: 109].

Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, e.g. *formula – formulae, thesis – theses, phenomenon – phenomena, datum – data.* Here also belong such words as: *memorandum, minimum, maximum* [9: 109].

Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (*appendicitis, aspirin*), in chemistry (*acid, valency, alkali*), in technique (*engine, antenna, biplane, airdrome*), in politics (*socialism, militarism*), names of sciences (*zoology, physics*). In philology most terms are of Greek origin (*homonym, archaism, lexicography*) [9: 109].

(b) French borrowings

Norman-French borrowings had come into English at different times. The most important historical event which has left a lasting mark on the composition of the English lexicon is the Norman Conquest of Britain in 1066 [8: 35].

The flooding of the English vocabulary with Norman-French words began in the 13th century and reached very large proportions in the century that followed.

Norman-French loans in the English vocabulary may be subdivided into two main groups: 1) early loans – 12th-15th centuries; 2) later loans – beginning from the 16th century.

Early French loans were thoroughly naturalized in English and made to conform to the rules of English pronunciation. The early borrowings from French were simple short words as distinguished from later introductions. This will be seen from an examination of the number of common monosyllabic words derived from early French, e.g. *age, air, arm, bolt, brace, breeze, brush, cage, calm, cape, car, case, cause,*

cease, cell, chain, chance, chase, chief, chaise, claim, clear, close, court, crime, cry. All these words have become an integral part of the language, being as truly a part of common speech as words native by origin. They have been so assimilated in sound and inflection as to be recognized as foreign only to the eye of a philologist.

Examples of the naturalization of French words in English may be given in numbers. A few of them will suffice for illustration: a) words stressed in French on the final syllable are now stressed in English on the first syllable, e.g. *capital, danger, final, mercy, probable*; b) words with the long [i:] sound diphtongized into [ai], e.g. *design, fine, line, lion, price*; c) the long [u:] written *ou* has become [au], e.g. *spouse*.

So, the unprecedented enrichment of the lexicon through borrowing altered the etymological composition of English after the conquest. Data on the exact number of words borrowed from French is difficult to obtain, but according to one estimate the number of French words adopted during the Middle English period was slightly over 10,000. Of these, about 75 percent have survived and are still used in present-day English [8: 37].

The French dominance is particularly felt in the vocabulary of law. Most words pertaining to law are of French origin, e.g. *accuse, attorney, court, defendant, fee, felony, guile, heritage, judge, justice, justify, penalty, plaintiff, privilege, session, suit, advocate, inquest, sentence, barrister*.

It was also natural that many of the terms relating to military matters should be adopted from the language of the conquerors, as, for instance, *army, arms, admiral, assault, armor, banner, battle, dart, dragon, ensign, guard, lance, mail, navy, sergeant, soldier, troops, vessel, victory, war*.

There is a predominance of French words in the vocabulary of cookery, which is shown by a great many words, such as: *lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew, to boil, to fry, dainty, jelly, pasty, pastry, sauce, sausage, soup, toast*.

Among French borrowings there are also such semantic groups of words: (a) words denoting family relations: *parent, cousin, uncle, aunt, nephew, niece*; (b) words relating to fashion: *luxury, coat, lace, pleat, embroidery*; (c) words belonging to jewelry: *topaz, emerald, pearl*; (d) words relating to state government: *administer, empire, state,*

government, realm, people, nation, crown, power, authority, parliament, council; (e) words connected with the church: *blame, lesson, pray, service, tempt*.

From the 15th century the importance of French loans decreased, while English turned increasingly towards Latin and Greek for new learned words. Scholarly and everyday words continued to be borrowed from French in the sixteenth century: *fragrant, elegance, baton, accent, adverb, amplitude, cassock, chamois, demolish, pounce, admire, avenue*.

It should be stressed that words continued to be borrowed from French into English after 1650, too, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings:

(1) words relating to literature and music: *belles-lettres, conservatoire, brochure, nuance, pirouette, vaudeville;*

(2) words belonging to military affairs: *corps, echelon, fuselage, manoeuvre;*

(3) words relating to buildings and furniture*: entresol, chateau, bureau;*

(4) words relating to food and cooking: *ragout, cuisine.*

We should also mention the 18th century installment to the vocabulary of literature, e.g. *novelist, publisher, magazine, editor*.

Recent borrowings from French are of course frequent enough, and often these words carry an unequivocally French appearance; and their number is far less than the number of borrowings directly from Latin.

The following phonetic peculiarities are indicative of later adoptions from French: (a) keeping the accent on the last syllable, e.g. *cravat, finance, finesse, supreme*; (b) *ch* pronounced as [ʃ]: *avalanche, chaperon, chaise, charade, chauffeur, charlatan, douche, machine*; (c) *g* before *e* and *i* pronounced as [ʒ]: *beige, massage, prestige, regime*; (d) *ou* pronounced as [u]: *coup, rouge, sou*; (e) *eau* pronounced as [ou]: *beau, chateau, bureau*; (f) final consonant *p, s, t* not pronounced, as in: *coup, debris, ragout, trait, ballet, debut*.

To sum it up, we can come to the conclusion that French borrowings which had come to the English language at different times constitute the largest group of borrowings. French loans in the English

vocabulary may be subdivided into two main groups: (1) early loans – 12th–15th centuries; (2) later loans – beginning from the 16th century. It should be added that early loans are known as Norman French borrowings, because they were borrowed from Norman French (also known as Anglo-French or Anglo-Norman), which was one of the provincial dialects of the French language. But later loans are known as Parisian borrowings, because they were borrowed from the Parisian dialect of the French language.

(c) Italian borrowings

We also find large scale borrowings in the English vocabulary from other Romance languages, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese.

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14th century, it was the word *bank* from the Italian *banca* –'bench.' Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called *banca rotta* from which the English word *bankrupt* originated [9: 112].

Italian was the source of many borrowed words in the English vocabulary at different periods. During the first two centuries of the Early Modern linguistic period (1476-1776), the words borrowed from Italian were distributed evenly between words having to do with everyday life, military activities, architecture, and the arts. From that period English has inherited *artichoke*, *gondola*, *squadron*, *stanza*, *fresco*, *bazaar*, *balcony*, *opera*, *vermicelli*, *rotunda* and others [8: 43].

In the 17th century some geological terms were borrowed from Italian into English: *volcano, granite, bronze, lava*. At the same time some political terms were borrowed from Italian, too: *manifesto, bulletin* [9: 112].

Italian is considered a very important contributor to English, especially to music, the other arts, and cuisine. At the beginning of the 18th century, Italian music and especially Italian opera became very fashionable in England, and with that came a new wave of Italian loanwords. Indeed, there was a real explosion of new musical words in English. Many music terms are direct borrowings from Italian, while others came into English via Italian from other languages. Here is a small selection of some of these words: *adagio*, *allegretto*, *andante*,

bravo, *cantata*, *coda*, *coloratura*, *concerto*, *moderato*, *pianissimo*, *pianoforte*, *sotto voce*, *trombone* [8: 44].

These words traverse the broad landscape of music, occupying numerous subcategories. A few representative examples are these: directions: *agitato, grandioso, lentissimo, vivo, vivace;* composition: *fugue, madrigal, capriccio, concerto, fantasia, intermezzo, opera, operetta, sonata, toccata, oratorio*; performers and singing-voice ranges: *solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, sextet, septet, octet, nonet; baritone, tenor, falsetto, alto, basso, diva, contralto, soprano, mezzo-soprano, prima donna* and musical instruments: *ocarina, piano, timpani, violin, violoncello, viola*, *contrabass, harmonica, tuba, harpsichord, mandolin.*

The addition of the Italian musical terms to English illustrates well the importance of innovation, leadership, and prestige to the composition of the vocabulary. During the 18th century it became impossible to speak about western music in English without using an Italian word [8: 44].

To the other arts Italian has contributed words like *fresco, tarantella, galleria, cameo* and *literati*. To cuisine, Italian's prolific contributions are evidenced by these representative examples: *antipasto, cappuccino, espresso, maraschino, mozzarella, linguini, pasta*, *pizza, ravioli, spaghetti, spumante, spumoni* and *zucchini*.

Some other Italian borrowings are: *arsenal, broccoli, cameo, cupola, duo, grotto, macaroni, motto, pantaloons, sequin, studio, tempo, torso, umbrella*.

Among the 20th century Italian borrowings we can mention: *gazette, incognito, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, dilettante, grotesque, graffiti, latte*, *Mafioso* [9: 113].

(d) Spanish and Portuguese borrowings

Spanish and Portuguese borrowings reflect the cultural traditions and accomplishments and the naval and military exploits of the countries of origin. Spain and Portugal led Europe in the colonization of the New World, and some of the words borrowed from Spanish had been borrowed into English from American Indian languages [8: 45].

Spanish has made one of the major contributions to English vocabulary. Its influence began to be felt in the 16th century, at a time when Spain was a world power in conflict with the English Crown, and

it gained new momentum when Spain set foot in America. Early borrowings from Spanish include: *armada*, *guava*, *hammock*, *maize*, *negro*, *potato*, *armadillo*, *mestizo*, *buoy*, *cargo*, *masquerade*, *siesta*, *pimento* [8: 45].

Some 18th century loans from the Spanish and Portuguese languages are: *adobe*, *albino* (Portuguese), *banjo*, *banana* (Spanish or Portuguese), *cocoa*, *demarcation*, *fandango*, *flotilla*, *hacienda*, *lasso*, *mantilla*, *mesa*, *palaver* (Portuguese), *poncho*, *quadroon*, *torero*, *alpaca* [8: 45].

From these languages the English language also adopted: *alligator, barricade, bravado, cannibal, canoe, canyon, corral, coyote, desperado, enchilada, hurricane, marijuana, mesa, mosquito, mustang, ranch, taco, tornado, tortilla, vigilante, hasta la vista, hasta luego*.

From Portuguese English also borrowed such words as: *banjo, Madeira, molasses, port (wine), samba, verandah, cobra*, *auto-da-fe,* although some of these may rather be Spanish than Portuguese. Some of the Portuguese words have offered a precedent for introducing the Latin words into England and have assisted in their general adoption.

Borrowings from the Spanish language are characteristic of English throughout its history. The latter is very rich in different types of contacts with the Spanish-speaking world. Besides one shouldn't forget that Hispanics are a powerful force in American culture and, of course, it is reflected in the English language. For historical reasons, most of the Spanish loanwords in English are specific to American English, constituting one of its most distinctive features when compared with British English. So, we can say that some Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them: (a) trade terms: *cargo, embargo*; (b) names of dances and musical instruments: *tango, rumba, habanera, flamenco, bolero, cachucha, castanets, guitar*; (c) names of vegetables and fruit: *tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, ananas, apricot*; (d) names of animals and insects: *alligator, alpaca, armadillo, mosquito*.

It should be mentioned that nowadays words from Spanish exist in English practically in all spheres of life. Nowadays linguists deal not only with the ordinary borrowings in English from Spanish, but they also face more complicated phenomenon – *Spanglish*. Some researchers even think that *Spanglish* is going to be a new, independent language created on the basis of the English and Spanish languages.

II. Germanic borrowings in the English Language
(a) Scandinavian borrowings

One of the major influences on the early vocabulary and grammar of English comes from its North Germanic neighbours. From the 8th century until the 11th century, the Anglo-Saxons were subjected to a series of attacks and invasions by Scandinavian seafarers [8: 33]. The social and historical circumstances would have been very favourable for the transfer of vocabulary from Scandinavian to Old English. The first linguistic link between Vikings and Anglo-Saxons is found in the large number of Scandinavian place names in the northern and eastern parts of England, as many as 1,400. These are place names ending in –*by* 'settlement' (*Carnaby, Ellerby, Rugby, Thirtleby), -thorpe* 'hamlet' *(Barleythorpe, Grimsthorpe, Hamthorpe, Hilderthorpe, Low Claythorpe, Fridaythorpe), -thwaite* 'clearing' *(Hampsthwaite, Hunderthwaite, Husthwaite*). Demographically, it is hard to reconstruct reliably the extent to which the Scandinavian invasions, victories and settlements swelled the ranks of the Anglo-Saxon population. However, there are more than 750 Scandinavian name-forms in records concerning medieval Yorkshire and Lincolnshire alone, the best known of which is the ending –*son*, as in *Henryson, Jackson, Robertson* [8: 33].

As the lexicon is the language layer most responsive to social-political and cultural changes in the history of a nation, it is easy to see why English borrowed almost 1,000 words from Scandinavian between the 8th and the 11th centuries.

Unlike the adoption of Latin vocabulary, which was initiated and promoted primarily by a small subsection of the population, the learned priests, monks, and scribes, the adoption of Scandinavian words did not involve special education or writing skills. In addition to the propitious social conditions, the borrowing of words was facilitated by the linguistic closeness of Scandinavian and Old English. It is not surprising that loanwords that came into English during this period are not easily recognizable as foreign, nor are they marked as belonging to a special more literate or more elevated level of usage [8: 34].

Scandinavian borrowings in English from the period between the 9th and the 12th centuries are common words such as *bag, call, cast, die, fellow, knife, hit, root, skin, sky, ill, unit, wrong*, the prepositions *till* and *fro* (as in *'to and fro'*), and the pronouns *they, them, their*. There is

probably Scandinavian influence on the pronoun *she*, the verb form *are*, and the quantifiers *both* and *same*. In some regional varieties of English today Scandinavian words exist side by side with the more familiar word from the Standard language: *garth* vs. *yard*, *kirk* vs. *church*, *nay* vs. *no*, *trigg* vs. *true*. Since the Vikings spoke a Germanic language, sharing words with Old English, but pronouncing them differently, we find that one and the same word has two pronunciations, Scandinavian and Old English, has evolved into a pair of historically related words which are now two separate lexical items. Such pairs in present-day English are *dike* vs. *ditch*, *scrub* vs. *shrub*, *skirt* vs. *shirt* [8: 34].

(b) German borrowings

English has borrowed many words from German. Some of those words have become a natural part of everyday English vocabulary (*angst, kindergarten, sauerkraut*), while others are primarily intellectual, literary, scientific (*waldsterben, zeitgeist*), or used in special areas, such as *gestalt* in psychology, or *loess* in geology. Some of these German words are used in English because there is no true English equivalent: *gemütlich, schadenfreude*.

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e.g. in some geological terms, such as: *cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram*. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: *iceberg, lobby, rucksack* [9: 115].

In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: *Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber* and many others [9: 115].

The other borrowings from German are: *dunk, feldspar, hex, lager, liverwurst, noodle, poodle, dachshund, pretzel, pumpernickel, schnitzel, zwieback*.

Among the 20th century German loanwords we can mention: *blitzkrieg, zeppelin, strafe, delicatessen, hamburger, frankfurter, wiener, hausfrau, kindergarten, Oktoberfest, wunderkind, spritz, strudel, Volkswagen* and others.

German borrowings can be divided into three main groups, plus a separate group of German-related words borrowed into American English via Yiddish.

The three groups are:

(1) Pennsylvania Dutch words, that were usually first recorded before the middle of the 19ᵗʰ century, and generally apply to food and way of life.

(2) Mainstream German borrowings, that were generally first recorded between 1850 and 1915 or so. They often relate to education and way of life. It is important to notice that they include interjections, verbs, and complete expressions. What does this indicate? Deep cultural interpenetration rather than casual or hostile contact.

(3) The third group of German borrowings contains those terms from the two World Wars that are related to war and military strategy. There are also ethnic insults. Many of these expressions were also borrowed by the British and the French languages.

(c) Dutch borrowings

Holland and England have had constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Dutch words were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14ᵗʰ century, such as: *freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak* and many others [9: 115-116]. It should be mentioned that some of them were borrowed into Ukrainian as well, e.g. *фрахт, шкіпер, помпа, кіль, док, риф.*

In general Dutch borrowings in English may be divided into the following semantic groups**: (**1) Shipping and nautical terms: *boom, buoy, commodore, cruise, keelhaul, sloop, yacht, smuggle*; (2) Art: *easel, etching, landscape, sketch*; (3) War: *beleaguer, holster, freebooter, onslaught*; (4**)** Food and drink: *booze, brandy, coleslaw, cookie, waffle*; (5) Other: *bluff, bully, boss, derrick, dollar, drill, dike, frolic, grime, hunk, kink, runt, scum, slim, snap, spook, stoop.*

There are many different ways through which Dutch words have entered the English language. Some of the more common ways include: (1) Through trade and seafaring; (2) Via the New Netherlands settlements in North America; (3) Due to contact between Dutch / Afrikaans speakers with English speakers in South Africa; (4) French words of Dutch / Flemish origin have been adopted into English.

In a survey by Joseph M. Williams in 'Origins of the English Language' it is estimated that about 1% of English words are of Dutch origin.

III Slavic borrowings in the English language
(a) Russian borrowings

Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages. We shall deal with Russian and Ukrainian borrowings, i.e. borrowings from the languages, which belong to Slavic group.

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings which mostly date from the 17th-18th centures there are mainly words connected with trade relations, Russian cuisine, and some other things, such as: *astrakhan, rouble, copeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, babushka, balalaika, banya, beluga, kasha, kvass, zakouska, laika, troyka, matryoshka, samovar, shchi, shaman* and also words relating to nature, such as: *taiga, tundra, steppe* [9: 116]. Two Russian special terms of mineralogy: *siberite* and *uralite* were also borrowed by English.

There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Russian literature of the 19th century, such as: *barschina, duma, ispravnik, miroed, moujik, Narodnik, volost, ukase, zemstvo* etc and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: *Decembrist, intelligenzia, nihilist, nigilism, nihilistic* [9: 116-117].

After the October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, such as: *bolshevik, collectivization, commissar, Comintern, Kalashnikov, Komsomol, kolkhoz, Kremlin, kulak, menshevik, N.K.V.D., subbotnik, tovarishch, udarnik, vozhd* and also translation loans, such as: *collective farm, five-year plan, house of rest, shock worker, socialist emulation* [9: 117].

In the second half of the 20th century a definite number of Russian words continued to penetrate into English. Most of them were bound up with the spheres of astronautics, policy and everyday life, e.g. *agrogorod, disinformation, katyusha, KGB, kray, lunokhod, marsokhod, oblast, okrug, planetokhod, politbureau, rayon, refusenik, resident, samizdat, samizdatchik, SMERSH, sovkhoz, sputnik, stakhanovite, stakhanovism.* Some special terms of Russian in the field of agronomy were borrowed by the English language, e.g. *podzol, yarovization, yarovise.*

One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as: *apparatchik, glasnost, nomenklatura, perestroika* and others [9: 117].

(b) Ukrainian borrowings

English words of Ukrainian origin are words in the English language which were borrowed or derived from the Ukrainian language.

Some of them may have entered English via Russian, Polish, Yiddish, or some other language. They may have originated in other languages, but are used to describe notions related to Ukraine. Some are regionalisms, used in English-speaking places with a significant Ukrainian Diaspora population, especially Canada, but all of these have entered the general English vocabulary. For example, *baba* (grandmother or old woman), *babka* (sweet Easter bread), *bandura* (a stringed musical instrument), *borshch* (beat soup), *Cossack* (Ukrainian *kozak*, a freedom-loving horseman of the steppes), *Hetman* (a Cossack military leader), *holubtsi* (Canadian English, cabbage rolls), *hopak* (a lively traditional dance), *kasha* (porridge), *kubasa, kolbassa* (Canadian English, from Ukrainian *kovbasa*), *paska* (Canadian English, a decorated Easter bread, also *paskha*, a rich dessert with curd cheese and dried fruit), *pysanka* (a decorated Easter egg), *varenyky* (boiled dumplings with potato or meat inside).

There are the following semantic groups of Ukrainian borrowings in English:

(a) words relating to the history of Ukraine: *bandura, kobza, dumy, kobzar, chumak, hetman, boyar, cossack, kniaz, kurgan, tachanka, holodomor, UNR – Ukrainian National Republic, UPA – the Ukrainian Insurgent Army*;

(b) words relating to everyday life: *hopak, kolomyika, pysanka, krahsanka, baba, khorovod, zabava, Malanka, khomut, makhorka, sopilka;*

(c) words relating to cookery: *babka, holubtsi, horilka, kovbasa, lymonnyk, paska, pyrih, borshch, kasha, syrniki, varenyky, kvas, samohonka, korovai, mlyntsi, pechenya, kutia, compote, deruny, hybivka*;

(d) words relating to policy and economy: *Rukh, Verkhovna Rada, Orange Revolution, Cassette Scandal, Party of Regions, Independence Square*.

Topic Four: Word-Building in Modern English

1. Ways and types of English word-building
2. Morphological word-building
3. Syntactico-morphological word-building
4. Syntactical word-building
5. Minor types of word-building

I. Ways and Types of English Word-Building
The term **word-building** is of polysemantic nature. It is used to denote the branch of the science of language which studies the patterns on which a language forms lexical units. It is also used to denote the process of creating new words from the material available in the word-stock according to certain structural and semantic patterns specific for the given language [5: 23].

We have to distinguish between morphological, syntactico-morphological and syntactical word-building in Modern English [6: 95].

Morphological word-building which is characterized by a change in morphological structure includes the following types:

1 **affixation** *(e.g. lucky – unlucky; happy – unhappy)*;

2 **morphological** *compounding (e.g. speedometer, hogshead – большая бочка);*

3 **shortening** *(e.g. fantasy – fancy, vacation – vac, MP, NIS);*

4 **sound-interchange** *(e.g. live– life, blood – bleed, sing – song);*

5 **stress-interchange** *(e.g.´present – pre´sent, ´conduct – con´duct);*

6 **back-formation** *(e.g. baby-sitter > baby-sit);*

7 **reduplication** *(e.g. murmur, bye-bye, blah-blah);*

8 **blending** *(e.g. blue + green > bleen, crazy + drunk > crunk).*

Syntactico-morphological word-building is the one where both morphological and syntactical features of the word are changed. It includes the following types:

1 **juxtapositional compounding** *(e.g. girl-friend, snow-white);*

2 **substantivation of adjectives** *(e.g. the poor, the rich);*

3 **lexicalization of the plural of nouns** *(e.g. lines = poetry, colours = banner);*

4 **conversion** *(water – to water, garden – to garden, wine – to wine).*

Syntactical word-building is the one where a combination of words semantically and structurally isolated is used to form a word without any changes in the syntactico-semantic relations. It, in fact, includes **syntactic compounding**, e.g. *bread-and-butter, hook-and-ladder, Jack-of-all-trades, forget-me-not, melt-in-the-mouth (cookies).*

Various types of word-building in Modern English possess different degrees of productivity. Some of them are highly-productive (affixation, compounding, shortening, conversion, substantivation), others are semi-productive (back-formation, reduplication, blending, lexicalization of the plural of nouns, sound-imitation) and non-productive (sound-interchange, stress-interchange) [5: 23].

II. Morphological word-building
1 Affixation or derivation

Affixation is commonly defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to stems. Affixation includes prefixation, i.e. forming new words with the help of prefixes, and suffixation, i.e. forming new words with the help of suffixes. Affixation, or derivation, has been productive at every period of development of the English language and it has retained its productivity to this day.

However, this does not mean that the affixes remain unchanged all the time. In the course of language development some affixes were replaced by others, some changed their meanings. Thus, e.g. *mis-* and *un-* replaced *wan- (wantrust – mistrust, wantruth – untruth)* [6: 97].

Modern English possesses a large stock of affixes which make a material for coining new words. Affixes are derivational morphemes added directly to roots or to stems. The role of the affix in the process of affixation is very important and therefore it's necessary to consider certain facts about the main types of affixes.

(A) Suffixes

Suffixes may be classified proceeding from different criteria.

1) From the etymological point of view suffixes are classified into the same two large groups as words: **native** and **borrowed** [1: 80]. Native (or Germanic) suffixes are: *-ness, -er, -hood, -dom, -ship, -ful, -less, -ish, -ly, -y, -en, -wards, -th.* Most of them go back to Old English but are still living suffixes in Modern English. Borrowed affixes are numerous in the English vocabulary. They are of different origin:

(a) Romanic, such as: *-tion /-ion, -ment, -ance /-ence, -ee, ess, -ette, -let, -able/-ible, -al, -fy, -age.* These were borrowed from Latin and French; (b) Greek, such as: *-ist, -ism, -ize, -ite, -ic.* Most of borrowed suffixes are international. For example, in many European languages there is the Greek suffix *-ism* denoting philosophical doctrines and scientific theories, e.g. *materialism, Darwinism, realism, despotism, hypnotism, barbarism, colloquialism.* The suffixes: *-ist, -ite, -ant, -ent, -or, -ssion* and others are also international.

2) According to the part of speech classification suffixes fall into 4 groups:

(a) noun-forming suffixes: *-age* (marriage, coinage), *-ance/-ence* (distance, defence), *-ancy/-ency* (constancy, tendency), *-ant/-ent* (assistant, student), *-dom* (wisdom), *-er* (writer), *-ess* (actress), *-hood* (motherhood), *-ing* (building), *-ion/-tion-sion/-ation* (rebellion, creation, tension, explanation), *-ist* (novelist), *-ment* (government), *-ness* (tenderness), *-ship* (friendship).

(b) adjective-forming suffixes: *-able/-ible* (laughable, audible), *-al* (natural), *-ic* (public), *-ical* (cubical), *-ant/-ent* (repentant, present), *-ary* (secondary), *-ate/-ete* (accurate, complete), *-ian* (Arabian), *-ish* (childish), *-ive* (active), *-ful* (useful), *-less* (useless), *-ly* (friendly), *-ous/-ious* (curious), *-some* (troublesome), *-y* (rainy).

(c) Adverb-forming suffixes: *-ly* (coldly, firmly), *-ward(s)* (northward), *-wise* (likewise).

(d) Verb-forming suffixes: *-ate* (articulate), *-er* (twitter – щебетати), *-en* (shorten), *-(i)fy* (vivify – оживляти), *-ize* (apologize), *-ish* (furnish).

3) According to the degree of productivity suffixes are commonly classified into **living or productive suffixes** and **dead or unproductive suffixes**. Productive suffixes are those which derive new words in Modern English, and unproductive suffixes are those which do not give any new coinages. The following suffixes are the most productive: *(N) -er, -ing, -ness, -ism, -ist, -ance; (A) -y, -ish, -ed, -able, -less; (Adv.) -ly; (V) -ize, -ate.* Non-productive suffixes: *(N) -th, -ice, -hood; (A) -ly, -some, -en, -ous; (Adv) -long; (V) -en.*

4) Distinction should also be made between **terminal** and **non-terminal suffixes**. Terminal suffixes take only the final position in a word, e.g. *-al, -hood, -ness, -ship, -kin, -let, -ling* (refus*al*, brother*hood*,

*tender**ness**, friend**ship**, boy**kin**, book**let**, prince**ling***). Non-terminal suffixes can be followed by other suffixes. In such cases a derivative is capable of further derivation, e.g. *-er, -ly, -less, -ed* (*lead**er**ship, love**li**ness, fear**less**ness, devot**ed**ness*).

5) From the semantic point of view suffixes may be classified as follows:

Noun-forming suffixes denoting: (a) agent or doer of an action: *-er /-or* (*writer, actor, listener, speaker*); political or scientific adherence: *-ist* (*communist, socialist*); (b) the object of an action, the one to whom an act is done: *-ee* (*addressee, refugee, referee*); (c) nationality: *-ian, -ish* (*Belgian, Spanish*); (d) abstract concepts: *-ance/-ence, -tion/-ion/-sion, -ment, -ness, -ing* (*significance, evolution, development, tenderness, sitting*); (e) the diminutive suffixes: *-ling, -let/-et, -kin/-in, -ette* (*duckling, gosling, kingling; booklet, eyelet, leaflet, droplet; boykin, catkin, wolfkin; novelette, leaderette*).

Adjective-forming suffixes denoting: (a) capacity, fitness or worthiness to be acted upon, tending to, able to, liable to: *-able/-ible* (*capable, eatable, audible*); (b) a certain degree of some quality: *-ish* (*greenish, whitish, bluish*); (c) the presence of quality: *-ful, -ous* (*beautiful, spacious*); (d) the absence of quality: *-less* (*fearless, useless*).

Adverb-forming suffixes denoting: (a) the manner of action: *-ly* (*quickly, slowly, readily, warmly*); (b) course or direction to; motion or tendency toward: *-ward(s)* (*forwards, upwards*, *northward, southward, heavenwards*).

(B) Prefixes

The classification of prefixes in any language offers more difficulties than we have in classifying suffixes. The semantic motivation of many prefixes is not quite apparent. A large number of prefixes are polysemantic.

1) From the etymological point of view, prefixes can be subdivided into **nativ**e and **foreign prefixes**. Native (or Germanic) prefixes are: *un-, out-, mis-, over-, under-, up-, with-, be-, fore-* (*un**happy, **out**live, **mis**understand, **over**eat, **under**eat, **up**side, **with**draw, **be**hind, **fore**tell*). Foreign prefixes are: *a-, anti-, arch-, bi-, circum-, cis-, co-, contra-, counter-, de-, demi-, dis-, en-, epi-, ex-, extra-, hemi-, hyper-, in-, inter-, intro-, mal-, meso-, meta-, mono-, non-, pan-, pantro-, para-, peri-, poly-, post-, pre-, pro-, proto-, re-, retro-, semi-, sub-, super-, sur-, syn-, trans-,*

tri-, ultra-, uni-, vice- (*ab*ed, *ante*chamber, *arch*angel, *bi*annual, *circum*scribe). Some of them are borrowed from Greek *(anti-, pro-, re-, de-)* and some from Latin or French *(counter-, sub-, ex-, pre-)*.

2) Prefixes differ in their valency. Some of them can combine with the stems of only one part of speech, others can combine with the stems of two or more parts of speech, i.e. they are more productive in their functional use. The prefixes *ex-, arch-, ana-, dys-, per-,* for instance, are used only with the stems of nouns (*ex-chancellor, archangel, anabranch, dysfunction, perspective*); the prefixes *be-, de-, en-, out-* can combine only with verbs (*befall, declutch, enlarge, outgo*); such prefixes as *co-, contra-, counter-, dis-, intra-, mis-, post-, pre-, sub-, trans-, over-, under-* are used with the stems of verbs, nouns and adjectives. For instance: *co-: coordinate* (v), *coordination* (n), *cooperative* (adj); *contra-: contravene* (v), *contravention* (n); *dis-: disarm* (v), *disarmament* (n), *disarming* (adj).

3) From the semantic point of view prefixes can be divided into the following groups of prefixes implying:

a) priority: *ex-, fore-, pre-* (ex-minister, forethought, predawn);

(b) negation: *in-, un-, dis-, non-, a-* (inapt, unkind, disquiet, non-stop, amoral);

(c) counteraction, opposition: *counter-, contra-, anti-* (counterblow, contrabass, antipole);

(d) locality: *a-, en-, sub-, supra-, sur-, trans-, hypo-, circum-, epi-, under-* (abed, encage, sublunary, supradental, surcoat, transoceanic, hypodermic, circumlocution, epicentre, undersea);

(e) reversion: *de-, dis-, un-* (deform, discontinue, unstick);

(f) incompleteness: *demi-, hemi-, dys-* (demiofficial, hemisphere, dysfunction).

2 Compounding (or composition)

Compounding is the type of word-building in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms [5: 28]. Compounding is not only one of the most ancient ways of enriching the word-stock but it is also one of the three most productive types of word-building in Modern English, the other two are affixation and conversion [1: 104].

Compound words represent one of the most typical and specific features of English word-structure. Compounds are not always easy to distinguish from free word-combinations. In Modern English linguists

33

find it difficult to give criteria of distinguishing between a compound and a word-group. It is still a topic of hot dispute.

Let's compare a compound *a tallboy* and a word-group *a tall boy*. The following criteria may be offered. In this case **the graphic criterion** seems to be sufficient (yet in many cases it cannot be wholly relied on). So, a compound is characterized by one word (or hyphenated) spelling. In a word-group each word is written separately.

In this case **semantic criterion** seems more reliable, for it points to the highest degree of semantic cohesion in the compound word: *tallboy* does not denote a person, but a piece of furniture. Moreover, the word-group *a tall boy* conveys two concepts, whereas the word *tallboy* expresses one concept. (Yet the semantic criterion alone cannot prove anything).

The phonetic criterion for compounds may be treated as that of a single stress. So, a compound *tallboy* is characterized by one stress. In a word-group a *tall boy* each element is stressed. (Yet this criterion does not work with compound adjectives: *blue-eyed, broad-shouldered, long-legged*).

Morphological and syntactic criteria can also be applied to compounds in order to distinguish them from word-groups. In the word-group each of the constituents is independently open to grammatical changes, e.g. *They were the tallest boys in the form*. Between the constituents other words can be inserted: *a tall handsome boy*. The compound *tallboy* and, in fact, any other compound, is not subject to such changes. The first component is grammatically invariable; the plural form ending is added to the whole unit: *tallboys*. No word can be inserted between the components [1: 113].

Therefore, in most cases, only several criteria (graphic, phonetic, semantic, morphological, syntactic) can convincingly classify a lexical unit as either a compound word or a word-group [1: 113].

So, compounds are characterized by: a) one word or hyphenated spelling; b) one stress; c) semantic integrity; d) structural-syntactic unity.

Compounds may be classified proceeding from different criteria:
(a) according to the parts of speech to which they belong;
(b) according to the means of composition used to link their ICs;
(c) according to their semantic characteristics [5: 29].

(a) So, as parts of speech, compound words fall into 6 groups:

1) nouns (e.g. *blueprint, eyelash, highball, joyride, lily-of-the-valley);*

2) pronouns *(e.g. everybody, somebody, nobody, whoever, whosesoever);*

3) adjectives (e.g. *two-fold, heavy-duty, cock-sure, snow-white, heart-breaking);*

4) verbs (e.g. *overdo, underestimate, out-stay, side-step);*

5) adverbs (e.g. *posthaste, alongside, however, nevertheless, whenever, wherein).*

6) prepositions (e.g. *into, onto, unto, upon*);

7) conjunctions (e.g. *wherever, whereas, whenever, nevertheless, whereupon*).

Most compounds in English belong to nouns and adjectives. Compound verbs are less frequent. Compound adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions and prepositions are rather rare.

(b) The classification of compounds according to the means of joining their ICs together distinguishes between the following structural types:

1) **Juxtapositional or neutral compounds** whose ICs are merely placed one after another [5: 29], e.g. *heartache, scarecrow, rainbow; level-headed, absent-minded, blue-eyed, chicken-hearted; TV-set, H-bomb, T-shirt, H-bag, V-day*. This structural type is subdivided into 3 subtypes: a) simple neutral compounds (e.g. *heartache, bluebell*); b) derivational compounds (e.g. *absent-minded, hot-headed*); c) contracted compounds (e.g. *V-day, T-shirt, H-bag*).

Therefore, in neutral compounds the process of compounding is realized without any linking elements, by a mere juxtaposition of two stems. It is, in fact, syntactico-morphological way of word-building in Modern English.

2) **Morphological compounds** whose ICs are joined together with a vowel or a consonant as a linking element [5: 29], e.g. *Anglo-Saxon, Franco-Prussian, Russo-Finnish, Serbo-Croatian, gasometer, electromotive, handicraft, statesman, spokesman, herdsman, bridesmaid, crowsfeet, sportsman, saleswoman.*

This type belongs to morphological way of word-building in Modern English.

3) **Syntactic compounds** which are the result of the process of semantic isolation and structural integration of free word-groups [5: 29], i.e. these words are formed from segments of speech preserving articles, prepositions, adverbs. E.g. *forget-me-not, lily-of-the-valley, Jack-of-all-trades, good-for-nothing, man-of-war (військовий корабель), pick-me-up, milk-and-water, tongue-in-cheek (нещирий), mums-to-be, hit-or-miss (випадковий), stay-at-home, know-all, son-in-law, cool-to-the-touch, melt-in-the-mouth*. This type belongs to syntactical way of word-building in English.

It should be mentioned that not all the structural types of compounds are equally productive. The morphological compounds are the least productive while the syntactic compounds are more active and the juxtapositional compounds seem to be most productive of all. The morphological compounding is more typical of the Russian and Ukrainian languages. Compare: Rus. *паровоз, теплоход, землемер, сталевар, бронепоезд, землепашец, тепловоз, пароход, электромобиль*; Ukr. *водолікарня, пароплав, книгодрук, основоскладання, лісотундра, першодрук, саморух, сонцепоклонник, птахолов, однодумець.*

(c) From the semantic point of view all compounds fall into two groups of unequal size: idiomatic and non-idiomatic**.** The meaning of **non-idiomatic compounds** is easily understood from the meanings of their ICs [5: 35], e.g. *bedroom, dining-room, bookshelf, raincoat, blood-pressure, plum-pudding, apple-tree, sunlight, dancing-hall, sleeping-car, evening-gown.* Non-idiomatic compounds are numerous in Modern English. **Idiomatic compounds** are those in which the meaning of the unit cannot be understood from the meaning of its ICs [5: 35], i.e. the key to the meaning of a compound seems to have been irretrievably lost, e.g. *buttercup (жовтець), chatter-box (балакун), ladybird (сонечко), tallboy (високий комод), bluestocking (вчена жінка), fuss-pot (людина, що хвилюється через дурниці), greenhorn (новачок), pickpocket (кишеньковий злодій), lady-killer (серцеїд, ловелас), lazybones (ледар), killjoy (людина, що отруює іншим задоволення), wildcat (неприборкана людина).* Idiomatic compounds are not numerous in Modern English. There are also many borderline cases.

3 Shortening

This way of word-building has existed in the English language since the 13th century and achieved a high degree of productivity nowadays, especially in American English. Shortened words are a considerable quantitative gain and as such are useful and practical. The tendency towards shortness is a universal development and has linguistic value of its own in various languages [1; 2; 7].

There exist two main ways of shortening: contraction (or clipping) and abbreviation (or initial shortening) [5: 48].

A) Contraction (or clipping)

Contraction is the way of making a new word by means of clipping a full word (or, in other words, making a new word from a syllable of the original word).

One should distinguish between 4 types of contraction.

1) **Final clipping (back-clipping), or apocope**, i.e. clipping, or omission, of the final part of the word [5: 48], e.g. *doc (<doctor), lab (<laboratory), mag (<magazine), prep (<preparation), veg (<vegetable), croc (<crocodile), vac (<vacation), ad (<advertisement), cap (<captain), tick (<ticket), math (<mathematics), ed (<editor), uni (<university), op (<operation), vet (<veteran), Nick (<Nickolas), Ed (<Edward), Phil (<Philip), Al (<Albert)*. Final-clippings are most numerous in Modern English.

2) **Initial clipping (or fore-clipping), or apheresis**, i.e. clipping or omission of the fore part of the word [5: 48], e.g. *phone (<telephone), plane (<aeroplane), story (<history), van (<caravan), drome (<airdrome), fence (<defence), plot (<complot), bus (<omnibus), cycle (<bicycle), Bert (<Albert), Bess (<Elizabeth), Becky (<Rebecca), Dora (<Theodora), Fred (Alfred)*. Fore-clippings are less numerous in Modern English.

3) **Medial clipping, or syncope**, i.e. omission of the middle part of the word [5: 48], e.g. *maths (<mathematics), fancy (<fantasy), curtsy, curtsey* – gesture of respect made by women or girls – реверанс *(<courtesy* – courteous behaviour; politeness), *binocs (<binoculars), mart (<market), e'en (<even), ma'am (<madam), e'er (<ever), ne'er (<never)*.

4) **Mixed clipping,** where the fore and the final pats of the word are clipped, e.g. *tec (<detective), flu (<influenza), fridge (<refrigerator),*

stach (<moustache), Liz (<Elizabeth) [5: 48]. Here we can see a combination of two shortening devices: apheresis and apocope. Clipped (or contracted) words do not differ from full words in functioning; they take the plural number and that of the possessive case and make any part of a sentence. New words may be derived from the stems of clipped words by conversion *(to jeep, to demob, to taxi, to perm)* or by affixation, chiefly by adding the suffix *-y, -ie,* deriving diminutives and pet-names (as, *hanky –* from *handkerchief, nighty (nightie) –* from *nightgown, unkie –* from *unkle, baccy –* from *tobacco, undies –* from *underwear*, *tellie –* from *television, Aussies –* from *Australians).*

It has to be stressed that clipped words do not always coincide in meaning with the original word, for instance: *doc* and *doctor* have the meaning 'one who practices medicine', but *doctor* is also 'the highest degree given by a university to a scholar or scientist' and 'a person who has received such a degree' whereas *doc* is not used in these meanings.

Among clippings there are homonyms, so that one and the same sound and graphical complex may represent different words, as *vac (vacation), vac (vacuum cleaner); prep (preparation), prep (preparatory school), prep (prepare).*

Clippings usually have synonyms in literary English, the latter being the corresponding full words. But they are not interchangeable, as they are words of different styles of speech. Clippings are highly colloquial; in most cases they belong to slang.

Clipping brings new words in the same part of speech. Most lexical units of this sort are nouns, e.g. *pram (<perambulator), varsity (<university), tails (<tailcoat)*. Clipped adjectives and verbs are infrequent in Modern English, e.g. *imposs (impossible), rev (<to revolve), tab (<tabulate), prep (<to prepare)***.**

Similar formations will be found in other languages, too.

Abbreviation (initial shortening)

Abbreviation is the way of making a new word from the initial letters of a word group [1: 115], e.g. *UNO* from *the United Nations Organization*, *BBC* from *the British Broadcasting Corporation.* Abbreviations or initial shortenings are found not only among formal words, such as the ones above, but also among colloquialisms and slang [1:115].

It is commonly believed that the preference for shortenings can be explained by their brevity and is due to the ever-increasing tempo of modern life. Confusion and ambiguousness are quite natural consequences of the modern overabundance of shortened words, and initial shortenings are often especially enigmatic and misleading [1: 115-116].

According to D.I. Kveselevich abbreviations (or initial shortenings) are subdivided into 5 groups:

1) **Acronyms** which are read in accordance with the rules of orthoepy as though they were ordinary words [5: 49], e.g. *UNESCO* (<United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), *NATO* (<North Atlantic Treaty organization), *ANZAC* (<Australian and New Zealand Army Corps), *WOMAN* (<World Organization of Mothers of All Nations).

2) **Alphabetic abbreviations** in which letters get their full alphabetic pronunciation and a full stress [5: 49], e.g. *USA, BBC, M.P.* (<member of Parliament), *TV, IOY* (<I owe you), *GPO* (<general post-office), *FBI* (<Federal Bureau of Investigation), *P.S.* (<post scriptum), *R.A.F.* (<Royal Air Force). Alphabetic abbreviations are sometimes used for famous persons' names, e.g. *F.D.R.* (<Franklin Delano Roosevelt), *G.B.S.* (<George Bernard Show), *B.B.* (<Brigitte Bardot).

3) **Compound abbreviations** (or semi-shortenings) in which the first component is a letter (or letters) and the second component is a complete word [5: 50], e.g. *A-bomb* (<atomic bomb), *H-bomb* (<hydrogen bomb), *V-day* (<Victory day), *L-driver* (<learner-driver), *ID card* (<identity card), *H-bag* (<handbag), *T-shirt* (<tennis-shirt).

4) **Graphical abbreviations** which are used in texts for economy of space [5: 50]. Graphical abbreviations are signs or symbols that stand for the full words or combinations of words only in written speech. The commonest form is an initial letter or letters that stand for a word or combination of words. But with a view to prevent ambiguity one or two other letters may be added. For instance, *p. (page), s. (see), b.b. (ball-bearing), Mr. (mister), Mrs. (missis), MS (manuscript), fig. (figure)*. In oral speech graphical abbreviations have the pronunciation of full words, e.g. *m.(mile), ft. (<foot/feet), v (verb), ltd. (limited), usu. (<usually)*. To indicate a plural or a superlative letters are often doubled, as: *pp. (<pages), qq. (<questions)*.

5) **Latin abbreviations** which are graphical abbreviations of Latin words and word combinations, for instance: *e.g. (exampli gratia), etc (et cetera), viz. (videlicet), i.e. (id est), ff. (folios)*. In oral speech they are replaced by their English equivalents, *for example, and so on, namely, that is, the following pages respectively*. Some of Latin abbreviations are pronounced as separate letters: *a.m.*, *p.m.*

It should be stressed that the meaning of the initial shortening is that of the corresponding word-group. In speech initial shortenings function like nouns; they take the plural suffix, as *MPs* (<Members of Parliament), and the suffix of the possessive case, as *MP's, POW's* (prisoners of war).

Initial shortenings can be polysemantic, e.g. the abbreviation *M.P.* has at least 3 meanings: 1) member of Parliament; 2) Metropolitan Police; 3) Military Police; the abbreviation *M.D.* has three meanings as well: 1) Doctor of Medicine; 2) medical department; 3) months after day; the abbreviation *M.O.* has two meanings: 1) mail order; 2) Medical Officer; LP has three meanings: 1) Labour Party; 2) long-playing (record); 3) low pressure; *ID* has three meanings: 1) identification; 2) inside dimensions; 3) Intelligence Department.

On the whole it must be observed that shortening is gaining in importance daily.

4 Sound-interchange

Sound-interchange (or sound gradation, or root inflexion) is one of the two non-productive types of word-building in Modern English. The other one is stress-interchange (or change of stress).

It is a matter of common knowledge that sound-interchange is to be found in all the Indo-European languages. In English lexical sound-interchange, i.e. the change of a root vowel or a root consonant, or both, used to play a certain role in word-building in the past though it is no longer active now. In fact, sound-gradation and change of stress which is sometimes combined with it, are absolutely unproductive in Modern English.

Among the words formed with the help of sound-interchange we can distinguish 3 groups of words.

(1) Words formed by means of vowel interchange, e.g. *food > to feed, blood > to bleed, gold > to gild; to shoot > shot, to sing > song, to write > writ* (*заст.* писання)*;*

(2) Words formed by means of both vowel and consonantal interchange, e.g. *bath > to bathe, grass > to graze, breath > to breathe, cloth > to clothe, loss > to lose, life > to live, choice > to choose.*

(3) Words formed by means of consonantal interchange often accompanied by changes in spelling, e.g. *grease* – сало, жир > *to grease* – змащувати (жиром); *house* **>** *to house* – 1. поселити; 2. жити (у будинку); 3. умістити; *price* – ціна > *to prize* – 1. високо цінувати; 2. оцінювати; *advice > to advise*; *practice* **>** *to practise*.

It should be mentioned that sometimes sound-interchange is accompanied by affixation, cf. *deep > depth, wide > width, broad > breadth, long > length, strong > strength*, where vowel gradation is accompanied by the addition of the *-th* suffix.

5 Stress-interchange

Stress-interchange (or change of stress, or semantic stress, or morphological stress) is another non-productive type of word-building in Modern English.

Change of stress is mostly observed in verb-noun pairs (e.g. *´transport – to trans´port; ´accent – to ac´cent; ´attribute – to at´tribute; ´compound – to com´pound; ´conflict – to con´flict; ´contest – to con´test; ´contrast – to con´trast; ´export – to ex´port; ´object – to ob´ject; ´perfume – to per´fume*) and much more seldom – in verb-adjective pairs (e.g. *to pro´strate – ´prostrate* = падати долілиць – розпростертий; *to ab´sent – ´absent; to abs´tract – ´abstract* = відбирати; підсумовувати – абстрактний, відвернений; *to fre´quent – ´frequent* = часто відвідувати – частий).

The difference in stress often appeared after the verb was formed and was not therefore connected with the formation of the new word. It could be brought about by analogy or purely phonetical reasons. Change of stress mostly accompanied either the formation or the borrowing of the word.

Thus, the noun *August* (*Lat*. Augustus) was borrowed in the 11th century and the adjective *august* = величний) in the 17th century through French, retaining the typical final stress of the French. In other cases it is the analogy of verbs of the same root having the stress on the last syllable while the nominal root has it in the first, e.g. *to abs´tract* (formed in the 16th century from an adjective *´abstract* that

dates from the 14th century), *to ´concert = домовлятися* (formed in the 17th century from a noun dating in English from the 16th century) [6: 118].

6 Back-formation (reversion)

Back-formation or reversion, by which we mean the derivation of new words, mostly verbs, by means of subtracting a suffix or other element resembling it, is a source of short words in the past and an active process at the present time [5: 47; 7: 96].

The earliest examples of this type of word-building are the verb *to beg* (просити, благати; просити подаяння) that was made from the French borrowing *beggar* (жебрак), *to burgle* (робити крадіжку зі зломом) from *burglar* (нічний злодій-зломник, грабіжник), *to cobble* (лагодити взуття) from *cobbler* (швець, що займається лагодженням взуття), *to edit* from *editor, to peddle* (торгувати врозніс) from *peddler* (торговець врозніс). In all these cases the verb was made from the noun by subtracting what was mistakenly associated with the English suffix *–er/-or*. The pattern of the type *to work > worker, to write > writer, to paint > painter* was firmly established in the subconsciousness of English-speaking people at the time when these formations appeared, and it was taken for granted that any noun denoting profession or occupation is certain to have a corresponding verb of the same root. So, in the case of the verbs *to beg, to burgle, to cobble, to edit, to peddle* the process was reversed: instead of a noun made from a verb by affixation (as in *painter* from *to paint, writer* from *to write, worker* from *to work),* a verb was produced from a noun by subtraction. That is why this type of word-building received the name of back-formation or reversion [1: 119].

Back-formation or reversion may be found in the formation of words belonging to different parts of speech:

(a) verbs made from names of agent with the suffixes *-er, -or, -our/-eur, -ar, -rd,* e.g. *broker > broke; wafter > waft; hawker > hawk; sculptor > sculpt; benefactor > benefact*;

(b) verbs made from nouns with the suffix *-ing,* e.g. *kittling > to kittle*; *awning > to awn*; *quisling > to quisle* (квислінг, зрадник – бути зрадником, зрадити батьківщину);

(c) verbs made from nouns with abstract suffixes **-ence, -tion, -sion, -is, -y, -ment, -age, -ery,** e.g. *reminiscence > to reminisce, infraction > to infract*; *television > to televise, emplacement > to emplace*;

42

(d) verbs made from adjectives, e.g. *luminescent > to luminesce*; *frivolous > to frivol* (легковажний – безглуздо розтринькувати (гроші), гаяти (час);

(e) nouns made from adjectives, e.g. *greedy > greed; nasty > nast; cantankerous* (сварливий, прискіпливий) *> cantanker* (сварливість, прискіпливість) [7: 96-97]. It is to be remarked that the most active type of back-formation in Modern English is derivation of verbs from compounds that have either *-er* or *-ing* as their last element, e.g. *to air-conditon < air-conditoner, air-conditioning; to force-land < forced-landing; to finger-print < finger-printing; to straphang < straphanger; to babysit < baby-sitter; to house-break < house-breaker; to house-clean < house-cleaner; to house-keep < to house-keeper.*

Here we have the merging of two types of word-building: compounding and back-formation. The process of back-formation may easily be paralleled in other languages. Cf. the Russian: *садить > сад; видеть > вид*.

7 Reduplication

Reduplication is a very interesting type of English word-building because of its national specificity. It is the most wide-spread type among the semi-productive types of word-formation in Modern English. In reduplication new compound words are made by doubling a stem (often a pseudo-morpheme) [1: 118], e.g. *bye-bye, ta-ta, goody-goody* (ханжа), *din-din, riff-raff* (покидьки суспільства), *tick-tack, clitter-clatter* (базікання), *fuddy-duddy* (боркотун), hokey-pokey (дешеве морозиво), *hoity-toity* (шум, безлад), *willy-nilly* (волею-неволею), *dilly-dally, wishy-washy, tip-top, teeny-weeny, see-saw.*

According to D.I. Kveselevich, reduplicative compounds fall into three main subgroups;

1) Reduplicative compounds proper whose ICs are identical in their form [5: 37], e.g. *murmur, frou-frou* (шелестіння шовку), *thump-thump* (тук-тук), *blah-blah* (нісенітниця, дурниця), *pooh-pooh* (v., відноситися із зневагою), *willy-willy* (ураган).

2) Ablaut (gradational) **compounds** whose ICs have different root-vowels [5: 37], e.g. *zigzag, ping-pong, chit-chat, bibble-babble* (n., базікання), *dilly-dally* (v., вагатися), *nid-nod* (v., хитати), *knick-knack* (n., дрібничка, прикраса), *flimflam* (n., нісенітниця; трюк), *tiptop* (a., чудовий), *fiddle-faddle* (n., дрібниці).

3) **Rhyme compounds** whose ICs are joined to rhyme [5: 37], e.g. *helter-skelter* (метушня, безлад), *walkie-talkie* (переносна рація), *namby-pamby* (сентиментальність), *higgledy-piggledy* (повний безлад), *holus-bolus* (залпом), *hanky-panky* (обман, обдурювання), *nolens-wollens* (волею-неволею).

This type of word-building is greatly facilitated in Modern English by the vast number of monosyllables. Stylistically speaking, most words made by reduplication represent informal groups: colloquialisms and slang, they are stylistically and emotionally colored [1: 118].

In the Russian language there are also words made by reduplication, e.g. *дурак-дураком, чин-чином, давным-давно, кишмя-кишит, ревмя-ревет, нос к носу* and so on. In the Ukrainian language there are such examples as: *волею-неволею, хочеш-не хочеш, пліч-о-пліч* and others.

8 Blending (telescopy)

Blending is a special type of compounding by means of merging parts of words into one new word. This category of word-formation is a development which has linguistic value of its own in various languages, the tendency towards shortness has become most active in recent times, in present-day English, particularly. Familiar examples of English blend-words (telescoped words, hybrid words, blends, portmanteaux words) are: *slanguage (slang + language), brunch (breakfast + lunch), drunch (drinks + lunch), smog (smoke + fog), advecture (advertising + architecture), automagical (automatic + magical), cosplay (costume + play), dancercise (dancer + exercise), smaze (smoke + haze).*

It seems practical to distinguish between the following groups of blends:

1) coining the new word from the initial elements of one word and the final elements of another, e.g. *bash (bang + smash), flurry (fly + hurry), hustle (hurry + bustle), shimmer (shine + glimmer), Oxbridge (Oxford + Cambridge), motel (motor + hotel).*

2) coining a new word by combining one notional word and the final element of another word, e.g. *Manglish (man + English), radiotrician (radio + electrician), uraniumaire (uranium + millionare), newt (new + recruit), pulltician (pull + politician), nixonomics (Nixon + economics).*

3) coining a new word by combining the initial elements of one word with a notional word, e.g. *telejournalist (television + journalist), legislady (legislative + lady), mobus (motor + bus), bascart (basket + cart).*

Blending or telescopy involves different lexico-grammatical categories (nouns: *macon (mutton + bacon),* adjectives: *mangy (mean + stingy),* verbs: *flurry (fly + hurry),* adverbs: *posilutely (positively + absolutely).*

Such coinages are often formed with a playful or humorous intent and have a stylistic status. They can convey various shades of emotive colouring (irony or mockery).

III. Syntactico-morphological word-building
1 Juxtapositional compounding

Compounding can be defined as the formation of a lexical unit of two or more stems. One should distinguish between morphological, syntactical and juxtapositional (or neutral) composition.

The juxtapositional way of component combining is joining them by means of simply placing them side by side. A.I. Smirnitsky called it 'neutral' for it is partly morphological, and partly syntactical. It is morphological for it affects the morphological structure of the word forming a two-morpheme or three-morpheme word out of separate stems; it is syntactical for the stems stand to each other in the same grammatical relation as words in the phrase.

The term 'juxtapositional' seems more exact for it characterizes the manner of composition – placing the stems side-by-side: a) in the same syntactical order (e.g. *ash-tray, shirt-collar, gas-mask*); b) in apposition (e.g. *girl-friend, man-servant, lady-companion*); c) in reversed order (e.g. *shoe-making – making shoes; lady-killer – kill ladies; pitch-dark – as dark as pitch; sun-burnt – burnt by the sun, short-lived – that lived short*).

2 Substantivation of adjectives

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

Completely (or wholly) substantivized adjectives (CSA) have the full paradigm of a noun, i.e. the singular and the plural forms, the genitive case and they may be associated with various determiners

(definite, indefinite and zero articles, demonstrative and possessive pronouns), e.g. *an official, the official, officials, the officials, officials, officials', this official, our officials.*

Partially substantivized adjectives (PSA) do not acquire the full paradigm of a noun, i.e. they acquire only some of the characteristics of the nouns; they are used with the definite article. PSA fall into several structural-semantic groups:

a) PSA denoting a group or a class of people and used mostly in plural, e.g. *reds, greens, blues, buffs.*

b) PSA denoting abstract notions, e.g. *the good, the bad, the evil, the beautiful, the extravagant, the ordinary, the singular, the plural.* Such PSA are singular in meaning and form and take a singular verb, e.g. *The good in him overweighs the bad. My mother never lost her taste for the extravagant. She didn't regard Eliza's behaviour as particularly out of the ordinary.*

c) PSA denoting inanimate things and used mostly in plural, e.g. *sweets, ancients, eatables, greens, valuables.*

d) PSA denoting nationalities and used in plural, e.g. *the English, the French, the Chinese, the Irish, the Dutch. The English are great lovers of tea.*

e) PSA denoting languages, e.g. *English, German, Italian, French, Ukrainian.* Such PSA are singular in form and meaning, e.g. *In number of speakers English nowadays is second only to Chinese. English is the official language of Australia and New Zealand.*

3 Lexicalization of the pural of nouns

There are cases when the grammatical form of the plural of nouns becomes isolated from the paradigm and acquires a new lexical meaning. This leads to the appearance of new lexical units, e.g.

a colour – colours (=hues) :: colours (=regimental flags);
a force – forces (=powers) :: forces (=an army);
a custom – customs (=habits) :: customs (=taxes on imported goods);
a draught – draughts (=currents of air) :: draughts (=a game);
a glass – glasses (=vessels for drinking) :: glasses (=spectacles);
a manner – manners (=ways) :: manners (=behaviour);
a moral – morals (=lessons of a story) :: morals (=standards of behaviour);
a quarter – quarters (=forth parts) :: quarters (=lodgings);
a line – lines (long, narrow marks) :: lines (= poetry).

4 Conversion

The problem of existing of conversion in Old English is a very contradictional one. In the Middle English period approximately before the 15th century verb formation from nouns and adjectives was considerably reduced for the reason that a great deal of the French loan-nouns and loan-verbs appeared. But back-formation, analogy and homonymy played a great role in the further development of conversion and soon (since the 18th century) it became one of the characteristic features of English. Modern English vocabulary is exceedingly rich in conversional pairs. As the way of forming new words conversion is extremely productive and new conversion pairs make their appearance in fiction, newspaper articles, in the process of oral communication and in all spheres of human activity gradually forcing their way into the existing vocabulary and in the dictionaries as well. Conversion is a morphologico-syntactical way of word-building which leads to the morphological, lexical, semantic and syntactic changes of a derived word.

There are 5 patterns of conversion:

1 Noun > Verb (*display, n > display, v; pin, n > pin, v; brake, n > brake, v*);

2 Verb > Noun (*slip, v > slip, n; call, v > call, n; walk, v > walk, n*);

3 Noun >Adjective (*lemon, n > lemon, adj; ice, n > ice, adj; nut, n > nut, adj*);

4 Adjective >Verb (*dull, adj > dull, v; narrow, adj > narrow, v*);

5 Adjective > Noun (*tall, adj > tall, n; rich, adj > rich, n; dear, adj > dear, n*).

Conversion is especially productive in the formation of verbs; it is, as a matter of fact, the principal way of forming verbs in Modern English. The 20th century neologisms include a great many verbs formed by conversion, e.g. *to can (=put into can); to microfilm (= produce a microfilm of); to motor (=travel by car); to phone (= use the telephone); to wire (=send a telegram).*

There are two types of conversion: **complete** (a word is included in a new paradigm and is characterized by new grammatical categories, accepts another syntactic function and a new lexical-grammatical meaning) and **partial** (at first a noun is formed by conversion from a verbal stem, and then this noun is combined with such verbs as: *give,*

make, have, take and a few others to form a verbal phrase: *to have a smoke; to take a walk; to give a ride).*

It should be stressed that conversion as one of the types of word-building was productive at every stage of development of the English language and it is still productive nowadays.

4 Syntactical word-building: Syntactic compounding

Syntactic compounding is the process of semantic isolation and structural integration of free word-groups. These words are formed from segments of speech preserving articles, prepositions, adverbs, e.g. *forget-me-not, lily-of-the-valley, Jack-of-all-trades, good-for-nothing, man-of-war, pick-me-up, milk-and-water, tongue-in-cheek, mums-to-be, hit-or-miss, stay-at-home, know-all, know-nothing, passer-by, son-in-law, cool-to-the-touch, melt-in-the-mouth*. This type belongs to syntactical way of word-building in English.

5 Minor types of word-building: Sound-imitation

The great majority of motivated words in present-day language are motivated by reference to other words in the language, to the morphemes that go to compose them and to their arrangement. Therefore, even if one hears the noun *wage-earner* for the first time, one understands it, knowing the meaning of the words *wage* and *earn* and the structural pattern *noun stem + verbal stem + -er* as in *bread-winner, skyscraper, strike-breaker*. Sound imitating or onomatopoeic words are on the contrary motivated with reference to extra-linguistic reality, they are echoes of natural sounds. Sound imitation (onomatopoeia or echoism) is consequently the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it. It would, however, be wrong to think that onomatopoeic words reflect the real sounds directly, irrespective of the laws of the language, because the same sounds are represented differently in different languages. Compare the English word *соск-a-doodle-do* and the French *cocorico.* Onomatopoeic words adopt the phonetic features of English and fall into the combinations peculiar to it.

The majority of onomatopoeic words serve to name sounds or movements. Most of them are verbs easily turned into nouns: *bang, boom, bump, hum, rustle, smack, thud* etc. Sound-imitative words form a considerable part of interjections. Cf. *bang! hush! pooh!*

Semantically, according to the source of sound, onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups. Many verbs denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings: *babble, chatter, giggle, grunt, grumble, murmur, mutter, titter, whine, whisper* and many more. Then there are sounds produced by animals, birds and insects, e.g. *buzz, croak, crow, hiss, honk, howl, moo, mew, neigh, purr, roar* and others. Some birds are named after the sound they make, these are the *cuckoo,* the *whipoorwill* and a few others. There are also verbs imitating the sound of water such as *bubble* or *splash*, and others imitating the noise of metallic things: *clink, tinkle.*

Robert Southey's poem 'The Cataract of Lodore' is a classical example of the stylistic possibilities offered by onomatopoeia: the words in it sound an echo of what the poet sees and describes.

"How does the water
Come down at Lodore?"
My little boy asked me
Thus once on a time;
And moreover he tasked me
To tell him in rhyme.
…..

Dividing and gliding and sliding,
And falling and brawling and sprawling,
And driving and riving and striving,
And sprinkling and twinkling and wrinkling,
And sounding and bounding and rounding,
And bubbling and troubling and doubling,
And grumbling and rumbling and tumbling,
And clattering and battering and shattering;

Retreating and beating and meeting and sheeting,
Delaying and straying and playing and spraying,
Advancing and prancing and glancing and dancing,
Recoiling, turmoiling and toiling and boiling,
And gleaming and streaming and steaming and beaming,

And rushing and flushing and brushing and gushing,
And flapping and rapping and clapping and slapping,
And curling and whirling and purling and twirling,
And thumping and plumping and bumping and jumping,
And dashing and flashing and splashing and clashing;
And so never ending, but always descending,
Sounds and motions for ever and ever are blending,
All at once and all o'er, with a mighty uproar;
And this way the water comes down at Lodore.

Once being coined, onomatopoeic words lend themselves easily to further word-building and to semantic development. They readily develop figurative meanings. *Croak*, for instance, means 'to make a deep harsh sound.' In its direct meaning the verb is used about frogs or ravens. Metaphorically it may be used about a hoarse human voice.

Topic Five: The Problems of Word Meaning

1. Semasiology as a science about word meaning
2. Types of the lexical meaning of words
3. Main semantic structures of words
4. Semantic groups of words in English

1. Semasiology as a science about word meaning

Semasiology is the branch of linguistics which deals with word meanings, especially the historical study of the changes of meanings undergone by words. Semasiology as concerned with the meanings of words is the basis of lexicology. There is no need to stress the importance of studying semasiology. Its value in linguistics makes itself quite evident.

Word meaning is one of the controversial terms in linguistics. Open to thought and discussion the meaning of meaning has always been much debated by linguists, logicians, philosophers and psychologists. There is no universally accepted definition of meaning till now.

Generally speaking, **word meaning** can be described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated, in

this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions [1: 129].

The **meaning of word** is also defined as the thing, action, feeling, idea etc that a word represents [4: 70].

It is known that word meaning is made up of various elements, interaction of which determines the value of the word. These elements are described as **types of word meaning**. The two main types of meaning that are observed in a word are its grammatical and lexical meanings.

Grammatical meanings are recurrent in identical sets of individual forms common to all words of a certain class. For instance, the English verb is known to possess sets of forms such as tense meaning (*comes, came; speaks, spoke; runs, ran*), mood meaning (*Come! Speak! Run!*). Nouns possess special forms expressing the grammatical meaning of oneness and plurality **(***chapter – chapters, lip – lips, shelf – shelves, torch – torches, datum – data, eucalyptus – eucalypti*).

The lexical meaning of the word reflects its bonds with the object it names. The lexical meaning is the semantic element recurrent in all the forms of the word, and in all possible uses of these forms. For instance, the word-forms *come! come, comes, came* have different grammatical meanings of tense, person, mood, but in each of these forms there is one and the same semantic element denoting the process of movement.

The lexical and the grammatical aspects make up the word meaning and neither can exist without the other.

2. Types of the lexical meaning of words

Lexical meaning reflects the concept expressed by the given word. One should differentiate between three main types of the lexical meaning of words:

(1) **Nominative meaning** which is the direct meaning of the word, immediately referring to objects in extralinguistic reality. The nominative meaning includes denotational and connotational components. **Denotation** is the expression of the direct meaning proper of the word without any emotive evaluation or stylistic colouring, e.g. *father, girl, friend, dog, begin, great, love.* **Connotation** is the supplementary expressive meaning presented either by emotive

charge (*girlie, doggy, tremendous, worship, sheepish*) or by stylistic reference (cf. *girl* (neutr.) :: *maiden* (poet.) :: *lass* (folk.) :: *chic* (slang); *father* (neutr.) :: *parent* (book.) :: *dad* (colloq.) :: *governor* (slang); *friend* (neutr.) :: *chum* (colloq); *begin* (neutr.) :: *commence* (book.) [5 : 59].

(2) **Syntactically conditioned meaning** which manifests itself in different colligations. Cf. *The book <u>treats of</u> poetry. She <u>treated</u> us <u>to</u> wine. She <u>asked</u> me a question. It <u>asks for</u> attention. He <u>asked</u> 250 pounds for a horse. She always <u>asks for</u> trouble. <u>Ask me another!</u> How did he <u>make out</u> at the examination? Let us <u>make</u> it <u>up</u>. He <u>made away with</u> himself. She <u>made back</u> home.*

(3) **Phraseologically bound meaning** which is idiomatic and manifests itself only in certain phraseological units, e.g. *to buy smth for a song, a great gun, to catch a cold, to be at grass, small potatoes, to be in petticoats, to spend money like water, to lick smb' s boots, before one can say Jack Robinson, to talk moonshine and roses to smb, to be down in the mouth, to have a finger in every pie, a bull in a china shop, a dark horse, to let the cat out of the bag.*

3. Main semantic structures of words

The branch of linguistics which specializes in the study of meaning is called semasiology. The modern approach to semasiology is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (i.e. its meaning) presents a structure which is called the semantic structure of the word.

There are three main semantic structures of English words: monosemy, polysemy and semantic diffusion [5: 60].

(a) **Monosemy** is the existence of only one meaning within one word [5: 60]. Monosemantic words are comparatively few in number. They are mainly terms of science and technology, e.g. *biochemistry, cybernetics, musicology, rhetoric, logic, electron, electrode, emperor, gull, kleptomania, lymph, lyre, moss, nuance, pedagogue, engine, shaft, wheel, carburettor, clutch.*

(b) **Polysemy** is the existence of several connected meanings within one word [5: 60]. One of them is the main (central) meaning, whereas the rest are associated (marginal) meanings. Associated meanings of the word become evident in certain lexical and grammatical contexts. Polysemantic words constitute the bulk of the

English vocabulary. E.g. *face* (n) 1 the front part of your head, where your eyes, nose, and mouth are (1 – the main meaning): *She had a beautiful face*; 2 an expression on someone's face: *Tom' s face darkened and he turned angrily on Sam. What is the long face for?* 3 a person: *There are a few new faces in class this year. She looked around at the sea of faces in the cafeteria*; 4 the nature or character of an organization, industry, system etc and the way it appears to people: *technology that has changed the face of society*; 5 the front part of a clock or watch, where the numbers and hands are; 6 a steep vertical surface or side of a mountain or cliff: *He fell and died while attempting to climb the north face of Mont Blanc*; 7 one of the outside surfaces of an object or a building: *A cube has 6 faces* (2-6 – associated meanings).

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or oust some of them. So the complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the expressive resources of the language.

(c) **Semantic diffusion** is observed in words with a very wide conceptual volume [5: 60]. Such words denote, in fact, one concept, but can name an indefinitely large number of objects. For instance, the word *thing* denotes 'any object of our thought.' Hence it can name various inanimate objects, living beings, facts, affairs, possessions, pieces of writing, composition etc [5: 60].

So, the word *thing* may mean: 1 IDEA / ACTION / FEELING / FACT: an idea, action, feeling or fact that someone thinks, does, says, or talks about, or that happens: *People say things they do not mean when they are angry. The first thing to do is to give them food and shelter. It was a horrible thing to happen*; 2 OBJECT: an object that you are talking about without saying its name, or whose name you do not know: *There was a round metal thing on the path. A red thing was caught in the branches*; 3 SITUATION: life in general and the way it is affecting people: *By the end of 1942, things were starting to change. How are things with you? Things could be worse*; 4 PERSON / ANIMAL: used to talk to or

about a person or an animal, when you are describing what they are like and or showing sympathy for them: *She was a terribly upset, poor thing! The baby is a nice little thing when he is not screaming*; 6 CLOTHES / POSSESSIONS: especially in BrE clothes and possessions: *Take off your things! Jim began to unpack his things. I want to sell some of my things, but they are not worth much*; 7 EQUIPMENT: the tools, equipment, clothes etc that you need for a particular job, sport etc: *kitchen things, writing things*; *I left my swimming things at home. It was the shed where he kept his gardening things.*

Semantic diffusion is also observed in such English words as: *matter, point, case, question* and some others.

4. Semantic groups of words in English

Lexical units may be classified by the criterion of semantic similarity and semantic contrasts. The terms generally used to denote these two types of relatedness are synonymy and antonymy.

Synonyms

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, differing in sound form, and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings [5: 74]. There are two types of synonyms: (1) **ideographic synonyms** which differ in shades of meaning, e.g. *to shake – to tremble – to shiver – to shudder – to quiver – to quake*; *fast – rapid – swift – quick*; (2) **stylistic synonyms** which differ in stylistic characteristics, e.g. *father – parent – dad – papa – governor*; *to eat – to partake – to wolf – to lay in*; *language – gab* [5: 74].

Each group of synonyms comprises **a synonymic dominant** – the unit possessing the most general meaning of the kind: <u>*to shine*</u> – *to flash – to blaze – to gleam – to sparkle – to glitter – to shimmer – to glimmer* [5: 74].

Absolute synonyms, quite alike in their meanings and stylistic colouring, and, therefore, interchangeable in all contexts, are very rare, e.g. *fatherland – motherland – homeland*; *word-building – word-formation*; *composition – compounding, sound-imitation – onomatopoeia* [5: 74].

Antonyms

Words that have directly opposite meanings are called **antonyms** [5: 81]. Antonyms fall into two main groups: (1) **absolute / root antonyms (**those which are of different roots), e.g. *long :: short, quickly :: slowly, up :: down, love :: hatred, to start :: to finish*; (2) **derived / affixal antonyms** (in which special affixes or their absence express semantic opposition), e.g. *hopeful :: hopeless, faulty :: faultless, happy :: unhappy, appear :: disappear, regular :: irregular.* Polysemantic words usually have antonyms for each of their lexical-semantic variants: *a dull knife :: a sharp knife, a dull boy :: a bright boy, a dull novel :: a thrilling novel* [5: 81].

Homonyms

Words identical in form but quite different in their meaning and distribution are called **homonyms** [5: 83]. The traditional formal classification of homonyms is as follows:

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

II Partial homonyms which are subdivided into two subgroups: (1) **homographs** which are identical in spelling but different in sound, e.g. *bow* (лук) :: *bow* (ніс корабля), *lead* (свинець) :: *lead* (вести), *polish* (глянсувати) :: *Polish* (польська мова); (2) **homophones** which are identical in sound, e.g. *key* (ключ) :: *quay* (набережна), *fir* (ялина) :: *fur* (хутро), *sow* (сіяти) :: *sew* (шити) [5: 83].

Homonyms may be classified by the type of their meaning. In this case one should distinguish between: **1) lexical homonyms** which belong to the same part of speech, e.g. *club, n* (клуб) :: *club, n* (кийок), *bear, v* (нести) :: *bear, v* (терпіти), *plane, n* (літак) :: *plain, n* (рівнина), *light, adj* (світлий) :: *light, adj* (легкий); **2) grammatical homonyms** which belong to different parts of speech, e.g. *horse, n* (кінь) :: *hoarse, adj* (хрипкий), *row, n* (ряд) :: *row, v* (гребти), *weather, n* (погода) :: *whether, conj* (чи); **3) homoforms** which are identical only in some of their paradigm constituents, e.g. *bore, n* :: *bore, v* (Past Ind. of *bear*), *scent, n* :: *sent, v* (Past Ind. and Past Part. of *send*), *seize, v* :: *sees, v* (Pres. Ind. 3rd person Sing. of *see*) [5: 83].

Paronyms

Paronyms are words resembling each other in form, but different in meaning and usage [5: 88], e.g. *affect* (to do smth that produces an effect or change in smth or in someone's situation) :: *effect* (to make smth happen), *complement* (a word or phrase that follows a verb and describes the subject of the verb) :: *compliment* (a remark that shows that you admire someone or something*), preposition* (a word that is used before a noun, pronoun, or gerund to show place, time, direction etc) :: *proposition* (an offer or suggestion, especially in business or politics), *prescription* (a piece of paper on which a doctor writes what medicine a sick person should have, so that they can get them from a pharmacist) :: *proscription* (the act of saying that something is not allowed to exist or to be done). Other examples of paronyms are *canal :: channel, cause :: course, physics :: physique, wonder :: wander, carrier :: career.*

Paronyms are often mistakenly interchanged.

References

1. Antrushina G.B., Afanasyeva O.V., Morozova N.N. *English Lexicology / Лексикология английского языка: Учеб. пособие для студентов. — М.: Дрофа, 1999. — 289 с.*

2. Arnold I.V. Modern English Lexicology / *Лексикология современного английского языка: Учеб. пособие. — 2-е изд., перераб. — М.: ФЛИНТА: Наука, 2012. — 376 с.*

3. Gorot E.I., Byelova S.V. *Notes on Modern English Lexicology / Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови: Навч. посібник. — Луцьк: РВВ "Вежа" Волин. нац. ун-ту, 2008. — 372 с.*

4. Dombrovan T.I. *English. Fundamentals on the General Theory of Language. — Vinnytsya: Nova Knyga, 2009. — 128 p.*

5. Kveselevich D.I., Sasina V.P. *Modern English Lexicology in Practice / Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови. — Zhytomyr: Nova Knyga, 2003. — 127 p.*

6. Kuznetsova V.S. *Notes on English Lexicology. — Kyiv: Radyanska shkola, 1966. — 130 p.*

7. **Rayevska N.M.** *English Lexicology / Лексикологія англійської мови: Підр. для студ. ф-тів іноз. мов ун-тів. — Вид. 4-е, вип. і доп. — К.: Вища школа, 1979. — 303 с.*

8. Stockwell R., Minkova D. *English Words: History and Structure. — Cambridge: University Press, 2001. — 208 p.*

9. Дубенец Э.М. *Современный английский язык. Лексикология: Пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов. — М./Спб.: ГЛОССА / КАРО, 2004. — 193 с. — На англ. языке.*

Recommended Literature

Бабич Г.Н. *Лексикология английского языка. — Екатеринбург: Уральское изд-во. — М.: Большая медведица, 2005. — 176 с.*

Гороть Є.І., Коляда Е.К., Коцюк Л.М., Малімон Л.К. *Лексикологія сучасної англійської мови. — Острог: Вид. НУ "Острозька академія", 2015. — 328 с. (англ. мовою).*

Иванова Е.В. *Лексикология и фразеология современного английского языка / Lexicology and Phraseology of Modern English: учеб.*

пособие для студ. учреждений высш. проф. образования. — СПб.: Филол. фак-т СПбГУ, М.: изд. центр *"Akademia"*, 2011. — 352 с.

Кульгавова Л.В. *Учебно-практические материалы по дисциплине "Лексикология английского языка" (для студ. лингв. ун-тов). — Иркутск: ИГЛУ, 2004. — 188 с.*

Минаева Л.В. *Лексикология и лексикография английского языка / English Lexicology and Lexicography. — М.: Ступени, 2003. — 224 с. — На англ. языке.*

Мостовий М.І. *Лексикологія англійської мови: Підручник для ін-тів та фак. іноз. мов. — Х.: Основа, 1993. — 256 с.*

Ніколенко А.Г. *Лексикологія англійської мови — теорія і практика: навч. посібник для ВНЗ. — Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2007. — 528 с. (англ. мовою).*

Шамаєва Ю.Ю. *Лексикологія англійської мови: Конспекти лекцій (із завданнями). — Х.: ХНУ ім. В.Н. Каразіна, 2010. — 88 с.*

Online Etymology Dictionary *[http: // www. etymonline.com]*

List of Greek and Latin Roots in English *[http: // en.wikipedia.org/ wiki/List_of_Greek_ and_Latin_roots_in_English]*

TEXTS FOR ADDITIONAL READING

Edward Finegan

LANGUAGE: ITS STRUCTURE AND USE
Computers and Linguistics
What is Computational linguistics?

Computational linguistics aims to test theories of language and apply linguistic knowledge to real-world problems with the help of computers. To understand how using computers can test theories of language, it's helpful to view linguistics as an endeavor to make explicit exactly what it is that speakers implicitly know about their language. Imagine creating a model of what a child must know in order to use his or her language. Even the simplest model would need a list of elements – words, for example – and a set of rules for combining them into strings that would resemble the child's utterances. To the extent that the implicit knowledge possessed by a fluent speaker can be made explicit in the model, investigators can use computers to test the accuracy of the model. In other words, a program incorporating the elements and rules of the model produces strings of words that can be checked to see whether they are in fact possible sentences.

Computers and Machine-Readable Texts

In the middle of the eighteenth century, Samuel Johnson's dictionary provided illustrative citations from books to exemplify how words were used. During his own reading, Dr Johnson marked sentences whose context made a word's meaning or use especially clear. His assistants then transcribed the passages onto sheets of paper, and he organised them in the entries of the dictionary. In the nineteenth century, essentially the same process was used to compile the *Oxford English Dictionary*. That project required thousands of readers and consumed half a century to complete. In the twentieth century, the makers of *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* also mined a collection of several million of citations to discover and illustrate different word senses. Dictionary making today is undergoing dramatic change, owing to advances in computers and the availability of machine-readable bodies of texts known as *corpora*.

Corpus linguistics is the term for compiling collections of texts and using them to probe language use. In this context a **corpus** is a

representative body of texts (*corpus* is the Latin word for 'body'), and as a practical matter a computer makes it possible to manupulate a large corpus. You are familiar with the kinds of machine-readable texts created by word processors, and it is the fact that they are machine-readable that enables you to search for a particular word or phrase. At supermarket or department store checkout counters you've also seen scanning devices that read barcodes and translate them into the product names and prices printed on your receipt. The first computerized corpus – The Brown University Corpus – included 500 texts from American books, newspapers, and magazines. The texts were selected to represent 15 genres, including science fiction, press reportage, and scholarly and scientific writing. Each text contains 2000 words, and the total collection contains a million words. Researchers at Universities in Europe later compiled a parallel corpus of British English called the London – Oslo/Bergen corpus, or LOB for short. These two early corpora are parallel collections of American and British writing that appeared in print in 1961.

Since these corpora were compiled, computers have become cheaper and more powerful, and reliable but inexpensive scanners have become available. As a result, more recent corpora of texts in many languages are being compiled. Corpora are providing essential not only for twenty-first century dictionary making but in many other ways, including speech recognition and artificial intelligence [2012: 26-27].

Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman, Nina Hyams

AN INTRODUCTION TO LANGUAGE
Morphemes : The Minimal Units of Language
Huckles and Ceives

A morpheme was defined as the basic element of meaning, a philological form that is arbitrarily united with a particular meaning and that cannot be analyzed into simpler elements. Although it holds for most of the morphemes in a language, this definition has presented problems for linguistic analysis for many years. Consider words like *cranberry, huckleberry*, and *boysenberry*. The *berry* part is no problem,

but *huckle* and *boysen* occur only with *berry*, as did *cran* until *cranapple* juice came on the market, and other morphologically complex words using *cran-* followed. The *boysen-* part of *boysenberry* was named for a man named Boysen who developed it as a hybrid from the blackberry and raspberry. But few people are aware of this and it is a bound stem morpheme that occurs only in this word. *Lukewarm* is another word with two stem morphemes, with *luke* occurring only in this word, because it is not the same morpheme as the name *Luke*.

Bound morphemes like *huckle-*, *boysen-*, and *luke-* require a redefinition of the concept of morpheme. Some morphemes have no meaning in isolation but acquire meaning only in combination with other specific morphemes. Thus the morpheme *huckle*, when joined with *berry*, has the meaning of a special kind of berry that is small, round, and purplish blue; *luke* when combined with *warm* has the meaning 'sort of' or 'somewhat,' and so on.

Some morphemes occur only in a single word (combined with another morpheme), while other morphemes occur in many words, but seem to lack a constant meaning from one word to another. Many words of Latin origin that entered the English language after Norman Conquest of England in 1066 have this property. For example, the words *receive*, *conceive*, *perceive*, and *deceive* share a common root, *-ceive*, and the words *remit*, *permit*, *commit*, *submit*, *transmit*, and *admit* share the root *-mit*. For the original Latin speakers the morphemes corresponding to *ceive* and *mit* had clear meanings, the latter from the verb *mittere*, 'to send,' and the former from the verb *capere*, 'to seize.' But for modern speakers, Latinate morphemes such as *-ceive* and *-mit* have no independent meaning. Their meaning depends on the entire word in which they occur.

There are other words that seem to be composed of prefix + root morphemes in which the roots, like *cran-* or *-ceive*, never occur alone, but always with a specific prefix. Thus we find *inept*, but no **ept*; *ungainly*, but no **gainly*; *discern*, but no **cern*; *nonplussed*, but no **plussed*.

Similarly, the stems of *upholster*, *downhearted*, and *outlandish* do not occur by themselves: **holster* and **hearted* (with these meanings), and **landish* are not free morphemes. In addition, *downholster*, *uphearted*, and *inlandish*, their 'opposites,' are not words.

To complicate things a little further, there are words like *strawberry* in which straw has no relationship to any other kind of *straw*; *gooseberry*, which is unrelated to *goose*; and *blackberry*, which may be *blue* or *red*. While some of these words may have some historical origins, there is no present meaningful connection. Today, the *straw-* in *strawberry* is not the same morpheme as that found in *straw hat* or *straw-coloured*.

The meaning of a morpheme must be constant. The agentive morpheme *-er* means 'the one who does' in words like *singer*, *painter*, *lover*, and *worker*, but the same sounds represent the comparative morpheme, meaning 'more,' in *nicer*, *prettier*, and, *taller*. Thus, two different morphemes may be pronounced identically. The identical form represents two morphemes because of the different meanings. The same sounds may occur in another word and not represent a separate morpheme. The final syllable in *father, er,* is not a separate morpheme, since a *father* is not 'one who faths.' Similarly, in *water* the *-er* is not a distinct morpheme ending; *father* and *water* are single morphemes, or monomorphemic words. This follows from the concept of the morpheme as a sound-meaning unit [2003: 81-82].

The English Language and Its History

English is a Germanic Language of the Indo-European Family. It is the second most spoken language in the world.

It is estimated that there are 300 million native speakers and 300 million who use English as a second language and a further 100 million use it as a foreign language. It is the language of science, aviation, computing, diplomacy, and tourism. It is listed as the official or co-official language of over 45 countries and is spoken extensively in other countries where it has no official status.

Half of all business deals are conducted in English. Two thirds of all scientific papers are written in English. Over 70 % of all post / mail is written and addressed in English. Most international tourism and aviation is conducted in English.

The history of the language can be traced back to the arrival of three Germanic tribes to the British Isles during the 5th Century AD. Angles, Saxons and Jutes crossed the North Sea from what is the present day Denmark and northern Germany. The inhabitants of

Britain previously spoke a Celtic language. This was quickly displaced. Most of the Celtic speakers were pushed into Wales, Cornwall and Scotland. One group migrated to the Brittany Coast of France where their descendants still speak the Celtic Language of Breton today. The Angles were named from Engle, their land of origin. Their language was called Englisc from which the word, English derives.

An Anglo-Saxon inscription dated between 450 and 480AD is the oldest sample of the English language.

During the next few centuries four dialects of English developed:

Northumbrian in Northumbria, north of the Humber

Mercian in the Kingdom of Mercia

West Saxon in the Kingdom of Wessex

Kentish in Kent

During the 7th and 8th Centuries, Northumbria's culture and language dominated Britain. The Viking invasions of the 9th Century brought this domination to an end (along with the destruction of Mercia). Only Wessex remained as an independent kingdom. By the 10th Century, the West Saxon dialect became the official language of Britain. Written Old English is mainly known from this period. It was written in an alphabet called Runic, derived from the Scandinavian languages. The Latin Alphabet was brought over from Ireland by Christian missionaries. This has remained the writing system of English.

At this time, the vocabulary of Old English consisted of an Anglo-Saxon base with borrowed words from the Scandinavian languages (Danish and Norse) and Latin. Latin gave English words like *street, kitchen, kettle, cup, cheese, wine, angel, bishop, martyr, candle*. The Vikings added many Norse words: *sky, egg, cake, skin, leg, window (wind eye), husband, fellow, skill, anger, flat, odd, ugly, get, give, take, raise, call, die, they, their, them.* Celtic words also survived mainly in place and river names (*Devon, Dover, Kent, Trent, Severn, Avon, Thames*).

In 1066 the Normans conquered Britain. French became the language of the Norman aristocracy and added more vocabulary to English.

Because the English underclass cooked for the Norman upper class, the words for most domestic animals are English (*ox, cow, calf, sheep, swine, deer*) while the words for the meats derived from them are French (*beef, veal, mutton, pork, bacon, venison*).

The Germanic form of plurals (*house, housen; shoe, shoen*) was eventually displaced by the French method of making plurals: adding an *s* (*house, houses; shoe, shoes*). Only a few words have retained their Germanic plurals: *men, oxen, feet, teeth, children*.

French also affected spelling so that the *cw* sound came to be written as *qu* (e.g. *cween* became *queen*).

It wasn't till the 14th Century that English became dominant in Britain again. In 1399, King Henry IV became the first king of England since the Norman Conquest whose mother tongue was English. By the end of the 14th Century, the dialect of London had emerged as the standard dialect of what we now call Middle English. Chaucer wrote in this language.

Modern English began around the 16th Century and, like all languages, is still changing. One change occurred when the *th* of some verb forms became *s* (*loveth, loves; hath, has*). Auxillary verbs also changed (*he is risen, he has risen*).

The historical influence of language in the British Isles can best be seen in place names and their derivations.

Since the 16th Century, because of the contact that the British had with many peoples from around the world, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, many words have entered the language either directly or indirectly. New words were created at an increasing rate. Shakespare coined over 1600 words. This process has grown exponentially in the modern era.

Borrowed words include names of animals (*giraffe, tiger, zebra*), clothing (*pyjama, turban, shawl*), food (*spinach, chocolate, orange*), scientific and mathematical terms (*algebra, geography, species*), drinks (*tea, coffee, cider*), religious terms (*Jesus, Islam, nirvana*), sports (*checkmate, golf, billiards*), vehicles (*chariot, car, coach*), music and art (*piano, theatre, easel*), weapons (*pistol, trigger, rifle*), political and military terms (*commando, admiral, parliament*), and astronomical names (*Saturn, Leo, Uranus*).

Languages that have contributed words to English include Latin, Greek, French, German, Arabic, Hindi (from India), Italian, Malay, Dutch, Farsi (from Iran and Afganistan), Nahuatl (the Aztec language), Sanskrit (from ancient India), Portuguese, Spanish, Tupi (from South America) and Ewe (from Africa).

The list of borrowed words is enormous. The vocabulary of English is the largest of any language.

Even with all these borrowings the heart of the language remains the Anglo-Saxon of Old English. Only about 5000 or so words from this period have remained unchanged but they include the basic building blocks of the language: household words, parts of the body, common animals, natural elements, most pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs. Grafted onto this basic stock was a wealth of contributions to produce, what many people believe, is the richest of the world's languages.

Robert Lawrence Trask

LANGUAGE CHANGE
Change in Meaning

Like other aspects of language, the meanings of words can change over time. Two common types of change are broadening and narrowing of meaning, but many other types can occur.

Like pronunciation, like grammar, like spelling, like vocabulary, like every aspect of language, the meanings of words can and do change within time. We have already seen a few examples of this in English: recall that in Unit 2 we met Chaucer using the word *villainy* in its earlier sense of 'lack of good breeding;' today, this word means 'evil-doing'.

In fact, all of the words *villain*, *churl* and *boor* once meant nothing than 'farmer worker.' Today all three are insults, a development perhaps reflecting the city slicker's habitual contempt for his or her unsophisticated rural cousins. The word *peasant* is now going the same way: though we can still speak of third-world farmers as 'peasants' without intending any slight, we can equally say *'You peasant!'* meaning 'You uncultured lout!'

Needless to say, English words have been changing their meanings throughout the history of the language. Some of the changes which have occured are easy to understand, while others are quite surprising. Here are a few examples: *girl* formerly meant 'young person (of either sex)'; *meat* formerly meant 'food (of any kind);' *dog* was

65

formerly the name of a particular breed of dog. Both *knave* and *knight* once meant 'boy' or 'servant,' but their meanings have not only changed, but changed in opposite directions. More surprising are the cases of *jaw*, which formerly meant 'cheek,' and *cheek*, which formerly meant 'jaw!'

The examples of *girl* and *meat* illustrate what linguists call SPECIALIZATION: the meaning of a word becomes less general than formerly. The opposite development, GENERALIZATION, is illustrated by *dog*. Both of these appear to be particularly common types of change in meaning.

One of the most fertile sources of new meanings is the creation of EUPHEMISMS – polite but roundabout expressions for things which are considered too nasty to talk about directly. When indoor plumbing began to be installed in houses in the eighteenth century, the new little room installed for private purposes was at first called a *water closet*, soon abbreviated to *WC*. Eventually this term came to be regarded as intolerably blunt, and it was variously replaced by *toilet* (which previously meant 'dressing table') or *lavatory* (a Latin word meaning 'place for washing'). Today these words in turn are regarded as unbearably crude for many people, and yet further euphemisms have been pressed into service: the usual American word is now *bathroom* (the toilet and the bath are usually in the same room in an American house), and an American child who says *I gotta go to the bathroom* is definitely not looking for a bath [1994: p. 41-42.].

Literature:

Finegan, E. *Language: Its Structure and Use. – Boston, Mass.: Thomson, Wadsworth. – 6th ed., 2012. – 554 p.*

Fromkin,V., Rodman, R., Hyams, N. *An Introduction to Language. – Boston, Mass.: Thomson, Heinle. – 7th ed., 2003. – 620 p.*

Trask, R.L. *Language Change. – L.,N.Y. : Psychology Press, 1994. – 93 p.*

PART TWO
English Lexicology in Practice

Exercises
Exercise 1
a) Make the morphemic analysis of the following words.
b) Translate the words into Ukrainian.

act, ailment, assymmetry, beggarly, chairman, childishness, conclude, democratic, disturbance, drawback, eatable, eliminate, everydayness, expressionless, eyelet, fact, footballer, foretell, gentlemanly, governmental, honeymooner, illegal, illumination, illustration, immeasurable, immovable, inflammability, innovation, irrelevance, landmark, loveworthy, marriage, matter-of-factness, monopolize, old-ladyish, outstay, pot, power, prospective, receive, self-praise, serve, troublesome, undernourishment, unsystematic, warmonger, winter, womanishness, workmanship, zeal [6, p.19].

Exercise 2
a) Make the morphemic analysis of the following words. b) Classify the morphemes of the words into free, bound, and semi-bound.

babylike, bluebell, blue-eyed, book, busload, cameraman, colour-blindness, crossing, document, dusty, fashionmonger, foolishness, foresee, gladden, granulate, headachy, homeless, hyperslow, irresponsibility, kindheartedness, look, old-maidish, playwright, purify, reddish, resist, rewrite, shockproof, shoemaker, small, snow-whiteness, sunflower, take, truckload, trustworthy, unbutton, unfriendliness [6, p.19].

Exercise 3
a) Comment on the structural types and patterns of the following words. b) Translate the words into Ukrainian.

unforgettable, curio, aggro, bookish, sailor, devastate, nothing, fount, heavier-than-air, fine, diplomacy, news-stand, father-in-law,

exam, asleep, courage, Anglo-American, snow-capped, anxious, never-do-well, sun-bleached, lady-killer, walking-stick, eye, fridge, telephone, artillery, penny-a-liner, speedometer, fruice, true-to-life, handicraft, ill-fitting, phone, engage, discover, cupboard, notify, indefatigability, supremacy, snow-white, clumsy, democratic, inhabit, newspaper, impress, wonder, gym, comfy, civic-minded, statesman, Russo-Finnish, zebrule, flurry [6, p. 22].

Exercise 4
Analyze the following words into their immediate and ultimate constituents.

absent-mindedness, beautifully, disappoinment, disapproval, disreputable, generalization, gentlemanlike, hydromechanic, imperceptability, imperturbableness, unconceivable, innumerable, insufficient, lexicological, meaninglessly, painfully, preoccupation, reassurance, transformational, unachievable, unfortunate, unintentionally, womanishness [6, p. 22].

Exercise 5
Explain the origin of the following words:

father, brother, mother, dog, cat, sheep, wolf, house, home, life, earth, man, apple, bread, live, go, give, begin, come, quick, strong, long, wide, to, for, from, with, and, if, soon, he, I, you, we, two, three, four, well, much, little, water, wood [5, p. 9].

Exercise 6
a) Comment on the vocabulary of the extracts. b) Find native English words in the extracts given below.

1. Daylight began to forsake the red-room; it was past four o'clock, and the beclouded afternoon was tending to drear twilight. I heard the rain still beating on the staircase window, and the wind howling in the grove behind the hall; I grew by degrees cold as a stone, and then my courage sank. My habitual mood of humiliation, self-doubt, forlorn depression, fell damp on the embers of my decaying ire.

All said I was wicked, and perhaps I might be so: what thought had I been but just conceiving of starving myself to death? That certainly was a crime: and was I fit to die? Or was the vault under the chancel of Gateshead church an inviting bourne! (*Ch. Brontë*).

2. 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*)

Exercise 7
a) Classify the following words according to their origin. b) Translate the following into Ukrainian.

bigos, graffiti, gyroscope, britzka, abbreviate, grimace, girandole, paczki, grippe, gnocci, abdomen, gram, gnome, Sejm, zloty, gravel, konik, dactyl, disaster, flute, fable, fascimile, flash, fiesta, flautist, face, daguerreotype, facade, flavor, pierogi, deuce, facilitate, caftan, operetta, vanilla, waltz, skipper, algebra, mazurka, kangaroo, sputnik, verst, chocolate, taboo, tobacco, verandah, umbrella, harakiri, koala, hacienda, libretto, linguini.

Exercise 8
Analyse the following lexical groups. Which of the words belong to the native stock?

1. Fruit, apricot, quince, orange, water-melon, banana, grapes, cherry, pomegranate, pear, melon, fig, cornel, lemon, mango, mandarine, apple, plum, guava, avocado, nectarine, date.
2. Berry, whortleberry, blueberry, strawberry, cranberry, raspberry, cloudberry, gooseberry, huckleberry, bearberry, ligonberry, bilberry, cowberry, blackcurrants, redcurrants.

3. Nut, acorn, almond, walnut, hazel-nut, nutmeg, cashew, chestnut, coconut, pistachio, peanut, pecan.

4. Tree, ash, palm, poplar, aspen, alder, mallow, lime-tree, linden, cedar, maple, sallow, osier, fir, oak, elm, willow, beech, elder, birch, baobab, acacia, pine.

5. Cattle, sheep, lamb, boar, bull, ox, donkey, ass, mare, goat, horse, cow, cat, rabbit, deer, pig, hog, dog, mule.

6. Animal, crocodile, hippopotamus, wolf, beaver, squirrel, hyena, camel, gorilla, toad, lynx, fox, bear, hare, zebra, kangaroo, rat, doe, elk, orang-outang, monkey, lion, giraffe.

7. Bird, snipe, sparrow, raven, crow, daw, pigeon, rook, ouzel, pie, lark, crane, finch, cuckoo, robin, marabou, eagle, peacock, guinea-fowl, pheasant, owl [4, p. 10].

Exercise 9
Analyse the words of Latin and Greek origin given in bold type.

1. The word **microscope** is used for viewing very small objects. 2. The **spectroscope**, the refracting and reflecting **telescopes**, and many other precise instruments have been introduced to make possible for man to explore the universe. 3. The **periscope** is a **telescope** in which a totally reflecting prism is placed near each end to change the course of the beam of light through ninety degrees. 4. One of the most convenient instruments for studying electric charges is the gold-leaf **electroscope**. 5. The first improvement in the **thermometer** was made by a French physician, Jean Rey. 6. The **hydrometer** is a familiar object at every gasoline filling station. 7. **Geology** is a history of the earth and its past inhabitants. 8. About forty years after the introduction of the **telephone**, the radio appeared. 9. The **telegraph** greatly increased the speed of communication. 10. The **phonograph** is one of Edison's great inventions. 11. Distant earthquakes may now be located by an instrument called a **seismograph.** 12. The various parts of the sun are its **photosphere**, reverting layer, **chromosphere**, and corona. 13. The wave forms of sounds may also be studied by means of a **microphone** connected with an **oscillograph.** 14. The early Babylonians were ardent and successful students of **astronomy** [6, p. 20].

Exercise 10

Pick out the French borrowings from the extracts given below.

1. On September 18, 1873, at twelve-fifteen of a brilliant autumn day, in the city of Philadelphia, one of the most startling financial tragedies that the world has ever seen had its commencement. The banking house of Jay Cooke & Co., the foremost financial organization of America, doing business at Number 114, South Third Street in Philadelphia, and with branches in New York, Washington, and London, closed its doors. Those who knew anything about the financial crisis of the United States know well the significance of the panic which followed. It is spoken of in all histories as the panic of 1873, and the widespread ruin and disaster which followed was practically unprecedented in American history. (*Th. Dreiser*)

2. Vanity Fair! Fanity Fair! Here was a man, who could not spell, and did not care to read – who had the habits and the cunning of a boor: whose aim in life was pettifogging : who never had a taste, or emotion, or enjoyment, but what was sordid and foul: and yet he had rank, and honours and power, somehow; and was a dignitary of the land, and a pillar of the state. He was high sheriff and rode in a golden coach. Great ministers and statesmen courted him; and in Vanity Fair he had a higher place than the most brilliant genius or spotless virtue. (*W.M. Thackery*) [4, p. 12].

Exercise 11

Classify the following words: a) according to their origin; b) according to their meaning.

Ox, cow, beef, calf, veal, sheep, mutton, pig, bacon, deer, venison, chase, hunt, begin, commence, baker, tailor, weaver, butcher, painter, fisherman, mason, shepherd, lord, baron, lady, count, act, architect, close, compare, lamb, elk, duke, viscount, king, queen, prince, humiliate, pass, propose, resolve, ruin.

Exercise 12

a) Pick out the Russian borrowings. b) Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. Medovucha is a Slavic honey-based alcoholic beverage very similar to mead but cheaper and faster to make. 2. Pelmeni are dumplings consisting of a filling in thin, unleavened dough. 3. A heated metal container traditionally used to heat and boil water in and around Russia is called a samovar. 4. The classic soup which is a mix of mostly raw vegetables, boiled potatoes, eggs, and cooked meat with kvass is called okroshka. 5. Kissel is a viscous fruit dish, popular as a dessert and as a drink. 6. A sarafan is a traditional long, trapeze-shaped jumper dress worn as Russian folk costume by women and girls. Sarafan, along with kokoshnik are purely Russian outfits and are not known among other Slavic peoples. 7. A matryoshka doll is a set of wooden dolls of decreasing size placed one inside another. 8. Rassolnik is a traditional Russian soup made from pickled cucumbers, pearl barley, and pork or beef kidneys. 9. Shchi is a traditional cabbage soup of Russia where it has been known as far back as the 9th century. 10. The balalaika is a Russian stringed musical instrument with a characteristic triangular body and three strings.

Exercise 13

a) Translate the following into Ukrainian. b) State from what languages the following words and expressions are borrowed.

Coup d'état, kindergarten, sable, tête-à-tête, Blitzkrieg, enfant terrible, persona grata, beau monde, leit-motiv, bon mot, prima donna, Hun, nazi, a la carte, forte, Luftwaffe, pavlova, dackshund, a capella, charge d'affaires, kerchief, risotto, Führer, valise, virtuoso, viva voce, camisole, steppe, yoga, uranium, beige, chauffeur, ukaze, curriculum vitae, Kremlin, rouble, Mein Kampf, a priori, haute couture, in vivo, lingua franca, déjà vu.

Exercise 14

Pick out the Ukrainian borrowings. Paraphrase them in English.

1) Once, on Holy Thursday – the dough for the paska was just being started – the chambermaid, white with fear, called me out and said that Stepan had come from the village. (*D. Chaika*)

2) Bit by bit, things began to improve in their home; pyrizhky and balabushki appeared on their table on Sunday, and they scraped together enough to buy themselves boots for the winter. (*L. Yanovska*)

3) The mother, limited to a diet of potatoes and palyanytsi made of rye flour, began to lose her milk, while Trokhym, who was always cold, could not stop hiccuping. (*id.*)

4) "For rags that cost a karbovanets you want to put her to prison?" the teacher stated reproachfully. (*id.*)

5) They worked hard for every pood of grain and every armful of straw, and it took eight more years of unceasing labour as servants before Tetyana and Makar, although still poor, could finally say they were householders. (*id.*)

6) It was at this time the Makar inherited a desyatyna after his father died. (*id.*)

7) Herasym agreed not only to inform the batyushka, but also to make arrangements for the funeral – to haggle with the priest over charges for the Holy Gospel, the church banners, the priest's assistants, and the horses. (*id.*)

8) Makar pulled a kerchief out of the trunk and, untying a knotted corner in which there were two karbovantsi and some small change, gave Horpyna two pyataky. (*id.*)

9) From the look on the face of the matushka, the tear-stained eyes of the servant, and, most of all, from the smell of whiskey, Herasym realised at once that the situation with the unfortunate Father Adralion was no joking matter. (*id.*)

10) People had brought them together and seen to it that they were united on the rushnyk without asking them, if they were in love; there was not a single word about true love, not a single pledge... (*id.*)

11) "Children, sit quietly on the peech; don't open the door unless you have to; don't let out the warm air that, praise God, still lingers in the cottage from the long winter," the mothers urged their

children, shutting tight the mouth of the peech with a charcoal-encrusted metal cover. (*id.*)

12) She had bought and prepared so much for the holiday – but there was no one to host with the delicacies she had baked. Especially the verhuny! (*id.*)

13) Nastya reminded her that it was time to begin preparing the funeral dinner, with its kanun. (*id.*)

Exercise 15

Pick out Ukrainian borrowings. Paraphrase them in English.

1) If she saw a youth, or an older man, or a woman, or a girl, or an indigent married woman, or a lad who reminded her in any way of her lost son, she gave him or her a small Easter-bread and a couple of krashanky. (*O. Kobylianska*)

2) Whenever his wife began to play a kolomyika in an effort to cheer him up, he always yelled at her to stop. (*Yev. Yaroshynska*)

3) I also want to go to church, but first I have to take these pysanky to my grandchildren. (*O. Kobylianska*)

4) The party began, as is always the case at Easter, with the eating of the svyachene. (*id.*)

5) Khutorenko once again snorted in anger: "I am telling you, you fool, that you were served a tykva. This means that the suitor, instead of receiving the rushnyky, is told in a delicate fashion that he is to go away empty-handed." (*O. Pchilka*)

6) Out in pasture, herders were playing their sopilky or building bonfires and roasting fresh corncobs. (*N. Kobryanska*)

7) She stated that it could not be fifteen versts from the village of Ivanivka to the village of Petrivka, but only ten, at the most. (*O. Pchilka*)

8) And the lips of the lords themselves – and even those of the ladies – time and again pronounced such unseemly Ukrainain words as potert', papusha, and makhorka. And all of this was said without any translating! (*id.*)

9) For those who are interested in the history of our Ukrainian language in higher circles – where they don't "speak" it – it should be

added that other Ukrainian words were also used without translation, words such as perezymok, zbirka, pasynkuvat', and odvolohnuty. (*id.*)

10) It is all too evident that his family prospered by dealing in khomuty. (*id.*)

11) Perhaps Sonka appealed to him more – really, to Khomutovnikov and the likes of him, a herhepa like Sonka may have more appeal. (*id.*)

12) I did not invite you untill now, it is because our Society does not have suitable accomodation – we save every kopiyka for our modest publications, and we conduct our meetings and do our work in what might be called a cellar. *(L. Yanovska)*

13) The boys were carrying a huge pyrih in their hands. The son of a wealthy kozak lived in the house. (*id.*)

Exercise 16

a) Explain the origin of the words given in bold type. b) State in what spheres of life these words are used.

1. The **U-boats** had broken through our lines of **defense**, undetected by **asdic**. With heart-stopping suddenness, two **ships** in the **convoy** exploded, the first one three patterns away from us to starboard, then the American **freighter** in our own pattern, right ahead of us. The **tanker**, following it at two ship-lenghts' distance, had to do some hairbreadth **maneuvering** to avoid the sinking ship. While I summoned the crew to the **boats** with our **foghorn**, the air shook with **explosions** and the *Isabel Kwel* rolled violently: two **destroyers**, racing by at full speed, had started throwing depth **charges** within seconds after the **torpedoes** struck. (*J. de Hartog*)

2. Our two boats were lowered in record time. We were by then **sailing** through wreckage, and the sea was slimy with oil. During lulls in the thunder of the **gunfire** and the expolosions all around us, I heard shrill voices wailing. I watched both boats **haul** in bodies and make their way back to us, heavily **loaded.** I had rehearsed the rescue drill until the **crew** could do it automatically. **First aid** was to be given in the **messroom**; but as we started dragging the black, slippering bodies aboard, a **launch** approached flying the white ensign of the British Navy. (*id.*)

Exercise 17

State the origin and the meaning of the suffixes in the following words.

childhood, friendship, hardship, freedom, toward, backward, manhood, brotherly, boredom, rider, granny, teacher, aunty, hatred, hireling, village, hindrance, drunkard, limitation, reinforcement, cheefulness.

Exercise 18

a) Pick out the words with diminutive suffixes. b) Comment on their formation.

1. He left the bathroom and went into his room. Larry and Rosa were helping Celia bring up cookies. The Duke was in charge of the beer. (*P. Abrahams*) 2. "My ducky, it's only just eleven now." Little Jon was silent, rubbing his nose on her neck. "Mum, is daddy in your room"? (*J. Galsworthy*) 3. My old Auntie Katie upon me takes pity. (*R. Burns*) 4. There are many stories for which we are indebted to the old grannies in every village. (*Murray*) 6. So I asked my daddy's leave to study painting. (*Wolcott*) 7. But hark you, duckling: be sure you do not tell him that I am let into the secret. (*Murray*) 8. Like most southern children, I was brought up and cared for by a "black mammy." (*Evans*) 9. He got a generous gift of leaflets for home use and distribution among neighbours. (*Daily Worker*) 10. The dews and rains are conveyed in small rivulets. (*J. Swift*) [4, p. 25].

Exercise 19

Give the corresponding words denoting living beings of the female sex:

hero, don, signor, ancestor, widower, actor, sorcerer, abbot, duke, mister, emperor, poet, governor, count, doctor, singer, lion, tiger.

monk, bachelor, boy, brother, father, gentleman, husband, king, lad, lord, man, nephew, son, uncle, bridegroom.

bull, cock, drone, horse, ram, gander, drake, boar, ox, stag, fox [4, p. 26].

Exercise 20

Comment on the origin and meaning of the prefixes in the following words:

1. akin, afoot, anew, alight, along, arise, awaken, aware, afford, afloat, afresh, atheist;

2. besmear, bemoan, beseech, bequest, below, belie, belittle, befriend, behead, behold;

3. unwilling, untie, unbearable, unbind, unbend, uncork, uncover, uncool, uncut;

4. display, disobey, disease, displease, disaffectation, disclose, disagree, disallow [4, p. 28].

Exercise 21

a) Analyse the words given in bold type. b) State to what part of speech they belong and comment on their formation and meaning.

1. She looked at him as **uncomprehendingly** as a mouse might look at a gravestone. (*A. Coppard*) 2. Still **unrelenting, unregretting, unyielding,** she seemed rather **undecided** as to what her revenge had been. (*id.*). 3. Aware that the expression was softening as he looked at her, Soames frowned to preserve the **unemotionalism** proper to a Forsyte. (*J. Galsworthy*) 4. **Undoubtedly** philosophers are in the right when they tell us that nothing is great or little otherwise than by comparison. (*J. Swift*) 5. Cuff's fight with Dobbin, and the **unexpected** issue of that contest, will long be remembered by every man who was educated at Dr. Swishtail's famous school. (*W.M. Thackeray*) 6. Mrs. Watkinson's children were of that **uncomfortable** species who never go to bed; at least never without all manner of resistance. (*E. Leslie*) 7. We never let cakes, sweet-meats, confectionary, or any such things enter the house, as they would be very **unwholesome** for the children, and it would be sinful to put temptation in their way. (*id.*) 8. Turning from the window, he **undressed** and went back into the bedroom. (*J. Galsworthy*) 9. Later they had thought he was certain to die. But again they have proved wrong. For a week he had been **unconscious**. But he had lived. (*P. Abraham*) 10. I helped Catherine clear the table: the ruined roses, the **uncut** cakes, the vegetables no one had touched. (*T. Capote*)

11. Draping her skirt, she dropped on the moss and settled beside her an **unwilling** Elizabeth. (*id.*) 12. **Uncorking** the rose and raisin wine, Riley spilled its topaz colour into four glasses. (*id.*) 13. So she kept a few yards behind them, **unobserved** by Tom. (*G. Eliot*) [4, p. 29-30].

Exercise 22 *a) Comment on the meaning and form of the following compounds. b) Compare the meaning of the compound with that of its components.*

1. butterball, buttermilk, butterfingers, buttercream, buttercup, butterfly, butterscotch;
2. ashman, dustman, motorman, milkman, fisherman, shipman, postman, clergyman, seaman, oilman, boatman, woodman, noblemean, madman;
3. craftsman, salesman, batsman, oarsman, kinsman, herdsman, statesman, sportsman, tradesman, doorsman, yachtsman, spokesman;
4. butterwoman, milkwoman, horsewoman, tartwoman, applewoman, kinswoman;
5. pot-boy, stableboy, post-boy, cowboy, doughboy;
6. lady-bird, lady-bug, lady-help, lady-in-waiting, lady-killer, lady-love [4, p.38].

Exercise 23
Translate the compound words into Ukrainian.

mother-of-pearl, mother-of-thousands, cock-a-hoop, man-of-war, stay-at-home, good-for-nothing, sister-in-law, rank-and-file, mum-to-be, lily-of-the-valley, forget-me-not, husband-to-be, hide-and-seek, bread-and-butter, milk-and-water, melt-in-the-mouth, stick-in-the-mud, merry-go-round, maid-of-all-work, here-and-now, free-for-all, do-or-die, Jack-of-all-trades, head-to-toe, pink-and-white, door-to-door, pepper-and-salt, heart-to-heart, hand-to-mouth, happy-go-lucky, head-to-head, left-of-centre.

Exercise 24
Fill in the blanks with suitable compounds from the list given below: apple-trees, shirt-frill, skylight, pocket-book, blue-linen-suited,

watch-chain, wine-merchant, sunlight, blackbeetle, stairway, coal-merchant, bedroom, commission-agent.

1. Through the massive … illuminating the hall at Robin Hill, the July … at five o'clock fell just where the broad … turned; and in that radiant streak little Jon Forsyte stood … (*J. Galsworthy*). 2. From where he sat he could see a cluster of … in blossom (*id.*). 3. His … was of the whitest, his clothes of the blackest and sleekest, his gold … of the heaviest (*Ch. Dickens*). 4. In his musty old … he carried contradictory cards, in some of which he called himself a … , in others a …., in others a … , as if he really didn't know the secret himself (*id.*). 5. The sensation with which Soames dropped the letter was similar to that he would have had entering his … and finding it full of … (*J. Galsworthy*) [4, p. 41].

Exercise 25
Form as many compounds as possible, using the following stems as their first component:

lady-, grass-, hand-, ink-, horse, mother-, pack-, steel-, tom-, self-, half-, after-.

Exercise 26
Form as many compounds as possible, using the following stems as their second components:

-tree, -man, -berry, -woman, -boy, -room, -looking, -like, -nosed, -eyed, -minded, -hearted, -legged, -tempered, -sick.

Exercise 27
a) Translate the sentences; b) Analyse semantic relations between the converted verbs in bold type and the nouns.

1. Isabel **wirelessed** him from the ship. (*W.S. Maugham*) 2. At three o'clock that afternoon Reginald Corby was **telephoning** his home. (*J. Trevor*) 3. Then they go to Bratt's half hoping to find friends, but, more often than not, taking a melancholy satisfaction in finding

the club deserted or **peopled** by strangers. (*E. Waugh*) 4. Jimmie is singing as he **milks** the goat, I think a Dutch song. (*M. Spark*) 5. She would have said more, had not the door opened and Phyllis **sailed** in to take away the tea. (*E. Bowen*) 6. It's hardly becoming in a gentleman approaching middle age who's **chained** to an invalid bed. (*W. S. Maugham*) 7. Laurence **piloted** her out of the taxi, for she had been wobbly even when they arrived. (*M. Spark*) 8. His client Mr Richard had to be punctual, indeed his appointment was **timed** for 10 o'clock – although the trial was not due to begin until 10.30. (*H. Cecil*) 9. Molly was nine, the eldest, and when she remembered this superiority, she **mothered** the party. (*J. Cary*) 10. My wife was **dogged** by ill health for twelve years. (*M. Spark*) 11. She smiled at him over her drink, for their immediate haste was over and Laurence had **fished** out the bottle which she had packed in his suitcase very carefully in its proper corner. (*id.*) 12. Not that I actually expected to find anything – I was just **nosing** round so to speak. (*A. Cristie*) 13. When is she going to **face** facts? (*P. Mortimer*). 14. The silence lengthened and he could feel Bachixa starting to **eye** him. (*K. Amis*) 15. She **fingered** a lace scarf. (*W.S. Maugham*) [5, p. 118-119].

Exercise 28

a) Translate the sentences. b) Analyse semantic relations between the converted nouns in the bold type and the verbs.

1. This was Helena's last **try**. (*M. Spark*) 2. Jimmie Wat Erford got off with a few **cuts** and bruises. (*id.*) 3. I don't keep up this house to be a hostel of **bores** to come and gossip in. (*id.*) 4. I am afraid I can't ask you in for a **drink**. (*id.*) 5. He did not at all like the **look** or **feel** of the bed; the springs were broken in the centre and it creaked ominously when he lay down to try it. (*id.*). 6. The line of least resistance, backed up by cloudy visions of **gain**, had brought him here, rather against his better judgement and his conscience. (*K. Amis*) 7. Bowen's first **kill** was a big insect with an important, matriarchal appearance. (*id.*) 8. It was a dark night, not cold, with low cloud **cover**. (*C.P. Snow*) 9. He was not allowed a **say** for one single minute. (*E. Bowen*) 10. I thought I was just having a **run** of bad luck or that I didn't play as well as I did. (*W. S. Maugham*) 11. Now the children and I were just going up to the

house for a **bite**, and we want you to come along with us. (*B. MacDonald*) 12. He hadn't said anything to me because he didn't want to disappoint me if the ranch had proved a poor **buy**. (*id.*) 13. The creature asked Jonah who he was and how he was enjoying his **swim**. (*E. Gurney*) 14. She was wearing a tweed coat trimmed with fur, smart travelling clothes, foreign in **make** and **cut**. (*A. Christie*) 15. When it got dark I could thumb a lorry lift and get a free **ride** north with somebody who might not give me away. (*A. Sillitoe*) [5, p. 121].

Exercise 29

a) Translate the following sentences; b) Determine the type of the abbreviation in bold type.

1. The windows have green Venetian blinds and **rep** curtains. (*B. Shaw*) 2. On the polished **lino** the old noised-up cleaner sounded like a squadron of aeroplanes. (*J. Trevor*) 3. I suppose I shall find the adress in the **phone** book. (*W. S. Maugham*) 4. Wishing you **congrats** and all the best from my wife and I, Yours faithfully, Mr and Mrs Harper. (*M. Spark*) 5. Tony spoke to the **vet's** wife and Mr Partridge from the shop, then he was joined by the vicar. (*E. Waugh*) 6. "I'll leave you those **mags**," she said, "You ought to read them sometime". (*P. Mortimer*) 7. Well, you know we were going to Spain these **hols**. (*id.*) 8. I do nearly all shopping and most of the cooking since my old **ma's** had her **op**. (*J. Cary*) 9. When I came back from France they all wanted me to go to college. I couldn't. After what I'd been through I felt I couldn't go back to school. I learnt nothing at my **prep** school anyway. (*W.S. Maugham*) 10. Put the **mac** over your head, do. (*M. Spark*) 11. You don't mean to say that bloody British **gent** is coming to inspect you? (*J. Cary*) 12. He wrote their language in his occasional sales **memos** to Mr Callendar. (*J. Trevor*) 13. Going out, having lost the firm's expensive **dem** model and with its commission, Arnold met Miss Riley's friend coming in with a bundle of foolscap sheets. (*id.*) 14. "Look, I'll **rev** the engine again, and you watch the back wheels." (*I. Murdoch*) 15. The young woman in the **slacks** who had spoken to him suddenly at Frankfurt had had an eager intelligent face. (*A. Christie*) [5, p. 127].

Exercise 30

Explain the formation of the following blends and translate them into Ukrainan.

(a) flush, glaze, slash, smog, flurry, twirl, chort, dumbfound, cablegram, electrocute, galumph, swellegant, zebrule, dollarature, animule, fruice [4, p. 55];

(b) slanguage, hustle, gasohol, acromania, bit, cinemaddict, chunnel, dramedy, detectifiction, faction, informercial, medicare, magalog, slimnastics, sociolite, slanguist [3, p. 69];

(c) advecture, advertorial, automagical, bleen, brunch, Dunglish, cosplay, crunk, dancercise, mobitone, Oxbridge, skort, Spanglish, toytoons, trill, webzine, Chinglish [2].

Exercise 31

Translate the following sound-imitative words into Ukrainian.

meow, quack, hiss, gobble, cluck, buzz, thud, click, pop, tic-tock, aw, caw, yap, ee, croak, bray, splot, chirp, pow, ugh, hoot, yoom, purr, grunt, crack, wiz, yip, peep, cheep, howl, bark, hum, coo, neigh, koing, squeal, snap, oink, squawk, bleat, yelp, bonk, twitter, moo, crow, zap [1, p. 100].

Exercise 32

Translate the following sentences paying attention to the different meanings of the words in bold type. Point out the central and the secondary meanings in each case.

A. NOUNS

1. It was an ugly, amiable, precocious **face** … (*C.P. Snow*) 2. Taking up a planishing hammer, he set to work, smoothing the metal's surface with the hammer's highly polished **face**. (*J. Lindsay*) 3. Eddie's eyes ran over her doubtful **face** – the light seemed to concentrate in their brilliant shallows; his pupils showed their pinpoints of vacuum. (*E. Bowen*) 4. He was being matter-of-fact in the **face** of the excitement. (*C.P. Snow*) 5. He could find the grandfather clock –

a tall and ancient figure of black in the lesser blackness – but he was unable to read its **face**. (*Ph. Pearce*)

1. He asks me to ring him up at the **office** … (*E. Bowen*) 2. Let us study Cabinet and Government by seeing what important **offices** of State the Prime Minister has to fill when he first comes into office after a successful election. (*C.E. Eckersley*) 3. This means that he must be in the Home **Office** or Foreign **Office** for example, for a considerable length of time most days of the week. (*id.*). 4. But thank you for reminding me of my **office**. (*C.P. Snow*) 5. I am capable of carrying out my **office** as I decide it should be carried out. (*id.*)

1. It is important to note that the **terms** Government and Cabinet are not synonymous. (*C.E. Eckersley*) 2. … but he and she were on the whole on such easy **terms** that she had given up caring. (*E. Bowen*) 3. He stayed at the school only a year or two: he was not clever, and left early: but for the first **term**, before we were arranged in order of examination results, we shared the same desk because our names came next to each other in the list. (*C.P. Snow*) 4. He was engaged on the same **terms** by other houses in the Square ... (*id.*) 5. "I've got to admit it," he told Martin, "I can't come to **terms** with some of those chaps of ours." (*id.*) [5, p. 14, 10, 8].

B. VERBS

1. It could **turn** to pneumonia the doctors say. (*C.P. Snow*) 2. Brown **turned** his head towards Nightingale. (*id.*) 3. I **turned** and recognized the first obstacle in my professional path. (*R. Gordon*) 4. In the train to London I pulled the latest medical journal from my overcoat pocket and sadly **turned** to the advertisements, which were conveniently arranged alphabetically under specialities from Anaesthetics to Venerology. (*id.*) 5. Following the direction of his short pointing arm, I went down a corridor, **turned** a corner and was immediately lost. (*Ch. Dickens*) 6. As I **turned** into a passage, she would be just disappearing at the far end and up the stairs … (*id.*)

1. I remember wondering at the time what the old lady would do with the sandwiches she had **made** for next day. (*P. Stanley*) 2. At the foot of the precipice beyond the paling, the lake **made** black wounds in the white mist. (*E. Bowen*) 3. … he pulled aside each curtain to **make** sure that the window behind it was latched for the night. (*C.P. Snow*)

4. This won't really **make** any difference. (*E. Bowen*) 5. With only that will **to make** he could not **make** any conditions. (*id.*) 6. He would have **made** a very fair small shopkeeper of mildly bookish tastes. (*C.P. Snow*) 7. Today we … were taken to look at historical dresses at the London museum, which **made** a change. (*E.Bowen*)

1. He gave me no more assurance than I could **stand**. (*C.P. Snow*) 2. He **stood** me some tea – extremely bad teas they have taken to giving you in the club … (*id.*) 3. When they **stood** for Parliament, it was as supporters of Salisbury, Balfour, Bonar law. (*id.*) 4. He had returned from Switzerland that day, deeply sun-burned; his strong fine-drawn face – I thought all of a sudden, seeing him **stand** there unsmiling – became more El Greco-like as the years passed. (*id.*) 5. … it is important to see that the heart will **stand** the strain in such a nervous creature. (*R. Gordon*) [5, p. 37-38].

Exercise 33
Translate the following sentences; make up synonymic groups.

1. a) Where had the chatty, happy smiling girl go? b) He suddenly became talkative, his face slightly flushed, his eyes much brighter. c) He had neither the patience, nor the tact for managing loquacious parliamentary pedants. d) Mom, who is usually loud and garrulous, was surprisingly quiet as a mouse this morning.

2. a) I tremble to write these following lines. b) As she talks, her voice quivers with outrage and indignation. c) She opened her eyes when nothing happened, shaking from both cold and fear. d) His voice quavered while giving his presentation to the class because he was very nervous. e) The sound of nails down the chalkboard caused the child shudder and shake. f) The poor boys were shivering with fear.

3. a) My father had fallen sideways, away from the wheel, and seemed unconscious, his head leaning against the window at an odd angle. (*W. Boyd*). b) Out the corner of my eye I was surprised to notice a strange look on Martha's face. c) But I have noticed that many queer things happen in fairy countries. d) He was in a strange unruly mood and he had already criticised me for my choice of lipstick. (*W. Boyd*)

4. a) He was staring at me intently as I spoke as if I were saying something of profound importance instead of chit-chat. (*W. Boyd*)

b) Nicholas went to her, kissed her hand, and sitting down silently at her table began to watch her hands arranging the cards. c) He could not help eyeing the cakes hungrily. d) She was talking with her mother and Sarah, but must have felt his gaze because she peered at him quizzically. e) She looked at the heavy silver and Bakelite bracelet on her wrist as if she had forgotten she had put it on. (*id.*)

Exercise 34
In columns "B" find synonyms to the words in columns "A".

A		**B**	
criminal	kill	weak	maintain
dispute	modernize	renovate	wetness
feeble	moisture	gleeful	real
keep	happen	perfect	illegal
genuine	harmless	aim	debate
gay	objection	heaven	assassinate
absolute	paradise	innocent	occur
objective	strange	disapproval	odd
hopeless	need	desperate	necessity

Exercise 35. *Instead of the words given in bold type use their synonyms.*

1. If standing **alone** on the back doorstep, Tom **allowed** himself to **weep** tears, they were tears of **anger**. He looked his good-bye at the garden, and **raged** that he had to **leave** it – leave it and Peter. They had **planned** to spend their time here so **joyously** these holidays. (*Ph. Pearce*)

2. They drove in silence. Their route took them through Ely; but they stopped for Alan Kitson **to buy** a picture-postcard of the cathedral tower. It was for Tom. Tom was **bitterly disappointed** that he was not allowed to **climb** the tower, but his uncle **pointed out** to him with great **reasonableness** that this was **quite** out of the question: he was in quarantine for measles. (*id.*)

3. Tom had few **ideas** on the **causes** and cures of sleeplessness, and it never occurred to him **to complain**. At first he **tried** to read himself to sleep with Aunt Gwen's school-girl stories. They did not even **bore** him enough for that; but he **persevered** with them. After that Tom was **rationed** to ten minutes reading in bed; and he had **to promise** not to switch the bedroom light on again after it had been switched off and his aunt had **bidden** him good night. He did not **regret** the reading, but the dragging hours **seemed** even longer in the dark. (*id.*)

Exercise 36

In the following sentences, find homophones and translate them into Ukrainian. Transcribe them.

1.Wild pigeons rose heavily from the rows of peas where they had been browsing, and made their way back to the safety of the wood. (*Ph. Pearce*) Several birds rose in a flurry, but the boy he had called so loudly by name paid no attention. (*id.*)

2.'Yes, a child of your age needs ten hours of sleep. You must realise that, Tom'. (*id.*) He had always remembered his first tree in the garden – one of the yews round the lawn. He had never climbed a yew before, and was inclined to think ever afterwards that yews were best. (*id.*)

3. Tom, made uneasily aware of the passage of time, crept back by the way he had come – back into the garden. (*id.*) His attention was caught by a movement inside one of the rooms: it came, he saw, from the same maid he had once seen in the hall. (*id.*)

4. He could see the house: there was Susan leaning from an upper window to blow a kiss to somebody in the garden – Abel, he supposed. (*Ph. Pearce*) So the river slipped away into the distance, in the direction of Castleford and Ely and King's Lynn, to the grandeur of the sea. (*id.*)

5. They were still more like ragged holes than windows. (*id.*) 'If you were up here yourself to see ...' Tom said; and his words floated high over the whole garden. (*id.*)

6. It was a door he had never seen opened – the Kitsons used the door at the front. (*id.*) The scene tempted him even now; it lay so inviting and clear before him. (*id.*)

7. My father, a clever boy, won an exhibition to Lincoln College, Oxford, and became a professional writer. (*W. Boyd*) One today is worth two tomorrows. (*A. Kunin*)

8. I was touched to see that his moustache was trimmed and dyed a hazelnut brown. He looked almost like his old self and I complimented him. (W. Boyd) Life is complicated enough and I think I felt that, now my father had died, I didn't need any more complications. (*id.*)

Exercise 37
In columns 'B' find antonyms to the words in columns 'A'.

A		**B**	
accord	hopeless	deny	encourage
normal	masculine	incompetent	hopeful
discourage	wonderful	abnormal	feminine
able	marriage	discontinue	ordinary
begin	hope	abolish	separation
establish	truthful	reasonable	hopelessness
attentive	fierce	displeasure	lazy
absurd	merry	inexact	gentle
accurate	fatigue	despise	dishonest
admit	distant	disjoin	disagreement
adore	depression	energy	absent-minded
connect	delete	elation	add
delight	busy	near	sad

Exercise 38
Pick out antonyms and arrange them in three columns: derivational antonyms (model: careful – careless), absolute antonyms (model: slow – fast), mixed antonyms (model: correct – incorrect, wrong).

mobile, little, glooming, happy, full, furious, tactful, honest, difficulty, insincere, convenient, compulsory, merciless, horrible,

hopeful, sour, satisfaction, ease, awkward, gorgeous, darkness, rival, miserable, hostile, love, pitiful, preserve, disappointment, large, unhappy, big, empty, tactless, dishonest, sincere, inconvenient, merciful, friendly, hate, pitiless, sweet, waste, calm, immobile, upright, optional, wonderful, hopeless, ugly, brightness, happy, ally.

Exercise 39
Give derivational antonyms to the following adjectives.

masculine, meaningful, moderate, observant, ordinary, satisfactory, shameful, sympathetic, legal, regular, thoughtful, certain, common, expected, healthy, important, interesting, kind, lawful, legitimate, necessary, occupied, pleasant, tidy, usual, active, adequate, agreeable, applicable, appropriate, real, natural, artful, attentive, attractive, available, competent, complete, conspicuous, frequent, costructive, contented.

Exercise 40
a) Pick out antonyms from the following English proverbs and sayings. b) Analyse the proverbs and sayings.

1. A good name is sooner lost that won. 2. If you want peace, be prepared for war. 3. A light purse is a heavy curse. 4. Small rain lays great dust. 5. Little strokes fell great oaks. 6. Be swift to hear, slow to speak. 7. An angry man opens his mouth and shuts his eyes. 8. Be slow to promise and quick to perform. 9. Better an open enemy than a false friend. 10. Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven. 12. Desperate diseases must have desperate cures. 13. A joke never gains an enemy, but often loses a friend. 14. Misfortunes tell us what fortune is. 15. Money is a good servant but a bad master. 16. A small leak will sink a great ship. 17. Drunkenness reveals what soberness conceals. 18. Better a glorious death that a shameful life [7].

References

1) Diachuk N.O. Picture the World. – Lviv: АПРІОРІ, 2002. – 180 p.

2) Diachuk N.O. Language Calendar 2008. – Lviv: РА Золоті ідеї, 2008. – 15 p.

3) Dubenets E.M. The Modern English Language: Lexicology. – M: ГЛОССА-ПРЕСС, SPb: КАРО, 2004. – 192 p.

4) Grinberg L.E., Kuznets M.D., Kumacheva A.V., Meltser E.M. Exercises in Modern English Lexicology. – M.: Higher School Publishing House, 1966. – 238 p.

5) Kashcheyeva M.A., Potapova I.A, Tyurina N.S. Practical Lexicology. – L.: Prosveshcheniye, 1974. – 204 p.

6) Kveselevich D.I., Sasina V.P. Modern English Lexicology in Practice. – Vinnytsa: Nova Knyha Publishers, 2003. – 125 p.

7) Kunin A.V. English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary. – M.: the Russian language, 1984. – 944.

MODULAR QUIZZES ON ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

Modular quiz № 1.

Variant 1.

Task 1. *Make the morphemic analysis of the following words. Classify the morphemes of these words into free, bound, semi-bound:* fib, joyfully, misgivings, half-hope, well-dressed, icy-faced, tearfully, full-lipped, self-obsessed, half-dry, forehead, wall-sized, mood, slug, round-the-world.

Task 2. *Classify the words given below into simple, derived, compound and derived compound; write down the patterns of the following words:* way, sun-kissed, pleasure, pants, sweetness, star-shaped, sad-eyed, ill-fated, photocopier, half-clad, indefinable, newness, calfskin, over-friendly, criss-crossing.

Task 3. *Analyze the following words into their immediate and ultimate constituents:* singlehandedly, tear-stained, good-humouredly, half-tester, replacement, sunglasses, pale-faced, sheepishly, puke-coloured, half-eaten, mothball-scented, pain-filled, ever-increasingly, tight-lipped, dishwasher.

Modular quiz № 1.

Variant 2.

Task 1. *Make the morphemic analysis of the following words. Classify the morphemes of these words into free, bound, semi-bound:* sad, wooden, half-expecting, showbusiness, herself, fig, lovingly, glass-fronted, self-hatred, wolfishly, sweatshirt, outfit, fresh-faced, penmanship, sick.

Task 2. *Classify the words given below into simple, derived, compound and derived compound; write down the patterns of the following words:* dad, heart-shaped, braless, kid, hard-as-nails, uncharitable, droplet, flatmate, mother-of-the-bride, resounding, half-eleven, misunderstanding, red-rimmed, gin, eye-lash.

Task 3. *Analyze the following words into their immediate and ultimate constituents:* afterwards, unaccountably, disapproval, great-grandmother, horsemanship, wastepaper-basket, self-centeredness, disembody, restraining, handwriting, pseudo-realism, fortune-hunting, signify, triumphantly, likelyhood.

Modular quiz № 1.

Variant 3.

Task 1. *Make the morphemic analysis of the following words. Classify the morphemes of these words into free, bound, semi-bound*: after-math, tear-streaked, staff, hostess, half-nine, ankle-length, self-pity, olive-skinned, misleading, boss, open-mouthed, backwards, rap, armpit, thoughtlessness.

Task 2. *Classify the words given below into simple, derived, compound and derived compound; write down the patterns of the following words*: silver-chased, grab, speedboat, overcrowded, fog, afterwards, bridesmaid, demi-god, well-travelled, tomboyish, courtyard, flagstones, hit, butter-coloured, dreamland.

Task 3. *Analyze the following words into their immediate and ultimate constituents*: moth-eaten, inch, stone-floored, rash, bedside, cheesecake, thankfully, incredible, notelets, cat-like, bad-tempered, man-free, discharged, grey-haired, marksmanship.

Modular quiz № 1.

Variant 4.

Task 1. *Make the morphemic analysis of the following words. Classify the morphemes of these words into free, bound, semi-bound*: remilitarize, toothless, goggle-eyed, mat, gamesmanship, counterblow, half-hatred, sickeningly, goose-pimpled, pillow-case, half-expect, tunafish, eye, child-catcher, moon-faced.

Task 2. *Classify the words given below into simple, derived, compound and derived compound; write down the patterns of the following words*: watchmanship, hack, bloodshot, meaningfully, distastefully, weakfish, displacement, oil-slick, gasometer, bulllike, lion-hearted, hand-to-mouth, teacherdom, gumshoeing, hag.

Task 3. *Analyze the following words into their immediate and ultimate constituents*: guardsman, foxhunting, fresh-faced, gall-stone, cross-legged, brainless, un-office-like, blue-striped, motorway, deadline, landownership, cross-training, undoubtedly, underbuy, life-threatening.

Modular quiz № 2.

Variant 1.

Task 1. *State from what languages the following words and expressions are borrowed and translate them.*

mazurka, kindergarten, tête-à-tête, persona grata, beau monde, curriculum vitae, Abwehr, Reichsfürer SS, grandeur, apparatchick, escalope, fuselage, avocado.

Task 2. *From the following sentences, pick out all special terms which have become international and state which of them are formed from Latin or Greek roots and give their meanings.*

1) Many of the things that we knew later were not then in existence – the telegraph, telephone, express company, ocean steamer, city delivery of mails. 2) One atom of sulphur will combine with two atoms of hydrogen or with one atom of bivalent metal, forming sulphides. 3) The air around us is always under a pressure, which we call atmospheric pressure or barometric pressure. 4) The larger air-cooled engines have the cylinders arranged radially. 5) The shock of the explosion was felt over a radius of forty miles. 6) The seismograph is an instrument that measures and records the movement of the earth during an earthquake.

Modular quiz № 2.

Variant 2.

Task 1. *State from what languages the following words and expressions are borrowed and translate them.*

caftan, garçon, perestroika, Blitzkrieg, labour, fiancé, Nazi, prima donna, glacé, sevruga, peseta, enfant terrible, persona non grata.

Task 2. *From the following sentences, pick out all special terms which have become international and state which of them are formed from Latin or Greek roots and give their meanings.*

1) The purity of cotton cellulose accounts for its use in manufacture of gun cotton for high explosives. 2) Wood is a heterogeneous substance fibrous in structure and made up of very small cells. 3) Bearings of the ball or roller type may be used in motors of high-speed fans, or other machinery where it is desirable to prevent damage from oil leakage. 4) The theory of atomic structure developed by Bohr has the electrons distributed around the nucleus in orbits.

5) The thermometer is a piece of equipment that measures the temperature of the air, your body etc. 6) He did fashion photography of Vogue magazine.

Modular quiz № 2.
Variant 3.

Task 1. *State from what languages the following words and expressions are borrowed and translate them.*

kaput, Wehrmacht, leit-motiv, ma chere, mango, monsieur, opera, persona grata, rector, sable, shawl, silhouette, soprano, system.

Task 2. *From the following sentences, pick out all special terms which have become international and state which of them are formed from Latin or Greek roots and give their meanings.*

1. Some epitaphs are actually written by the deceased persons before their death; other epitaphs are written by friends, family members or other loved ones. 2. Mechanics is the branch of science concerned with the behaviour of physical bodies when subjected to forces or displacements. 3. Ophthalmology is the branch of medicine that deals with the anatomy, physiology and diseases of the eye. 4. The aims of pedagogy range from the full development of the human being to skills acquisition. 5. In psychology, stimuli are energy patterns which are registered by the senses. 6. The derivation of a theorem is often interpreted as a proof of the truth of the resulting expression.

Modular quiz № 2.
Variant 4.

Task 1. *State from what languages the following words and expressions are borrowed and translate them.*

Reichskommissariat, bon mot, genius, kangaroo, operetta, pagoda, rouble, tant meux, tragedy, sympathy, propaganda, Ostministerium, vodka.

Task 2. *From the following sentences, pick out all special terms which have become international and state which of them are formed from Latin or Greek roots and give their meanings.*

1. Bacillus includes both free-living and pathogenic species. 2. An epitaph is a small bit of text placed on a person's grave to honor or

commemorate them. 3. Television is a telecommunication medium for transmitting and receiving moving images that can be monochrome or colored, with or without accompanying sound. 4. An ophthalmologist is a specialist in medical and surgical eye problems. 5. The learner must learn how to learn while developing existing schema and adopting knowledge from both people and the environment. 6. The ability of an organism or organ to respond to external stimuli is called sensitivity.

Modular quiz № 3.
Variant 1.
Task 1. *a) Give antonyms to the following words. b) Arrange them in three columns: derivational antonyms (model: careful – careless), absolute antonyms (model: slow – fast), mixed antonyms (model: correct – incorrect, wrong).*

alert, amity, active, ugly, appearance, arrange, attentive, safety, aware, convenient, continue, preceding, sufficient, distinct, expensive, hostile, wet, employed, lower, misanthropy, improper, order, uniformity, sane, rational, distrust, ignoble, underestimate, revolutionary.

Task 2. *Pick out the synonyms from the following sentences.*

1. I went upstairs with my candle directly. It appealed to my childish fancy, as I ascended to the bedroom. 2. They are exactly unlike. They are utterly dissimilar in all respects. 3. With that Mr. Dombey stalked away to his dressing-room, and Mrs. Dombey went upstairs to hers. Mrs. Skewton and Florence repaired to the drawing-room. 4. I got down the book, and read all I came to read; and then, in an unthinking moment, I idly turned the leaves, and began to indolently study diseases, generally. 5. Along with this welcome gift for her kinsman she sent a doll for a present to my Lord's little daughter Beatrix.

Task 3. *a) Find perfect homonyms in the following sentences and translate them into Ukrainian; b) State their origin and meaning; c) State whether they are complete or partial, lexical or lexico-grammatical homonyms.*

1. Colin managed to slighter on the bank. He was worried by the perfect storm of wildcat money which was floating about and which was constantly coming to his bank. 2. His heart thudded so fast. He

who feasts till he is sick, must fast till he is well. 3. You had to walk about fifty yards along the street in the front. They were all playing in the back yard. 4. He went over again to the sink. He saw the sun sink beyond the horizon. 5. All agreed that to drink of the waters of the well was ominous to the descendant of that house. All is well that ends well.

Modular quiz № 3.

Variant 2.

Task 1. *a) Give antonyms to the following words; b) Arrange them in three columns: derivational antonyms (model: careful – careless), absolute antonyms (model: slow – fast), mixed antonyms (model: correct – incorrect, wrong).*

discord, alive, post-meridian, artless, assist, courage, descend, consistent, timidity, competent, conductor, correct, frequent, faulty, afterthought, faithful, enemy, legal, kind, final, temporary, polite, slow, exhale, post-war, progressive, normal, painful, thesis.

Task 2. *Pick out the synonyms from the following sentences.*

1. He asked me if it would suit my convenience to have the light put out; and on my answering "yes", instantly extinguished it. 2. I found that riches in general were in every country another name for freedom, and that no man is so fond of liberty himself as not to be desirous of subjecting the will of some individual in society to his own. 3. Then old Richards got up, and his wife rose and stood at his side. Her head was bent down, so that none might see that she was crying. 4. They sat in silence for a long time, she thinking desperately and he pondering upon his love which he had departed. 5. He faltered in answering the questions which she, hesitating on her side, began to put to him.

Task 3. *a) Find perfect homonyms in the following sentences and translate them into Ukrainian; b) State their origin and meaning; c) State whether they are complete or partial, lexical or lexico-grammatical homonyms.*

1. They will sack you as soon as things slacken. We are going to take a sack of coal. I shall be obliged to get my breakfast and morning-draught of sack from the old Jacobite ladies. 2. They took up a lot of small fry. It is a shame to fry an egg as fresh as that one was. 3. The little boy was still out. Still waters have deep bottoms. 4. Mabel began

to find out what a mean old rogue he is. What I mean is that he strikes me as a man who has gone to the bottom of things. 5. "The only time I went down a mine was the model one at Blackpool," said Alice, "and that was a waste of threepence". It is no business of mine.

Modular quiz № 4.
Variant 1.

Task 1. *Arrange the compounds given below into 3 three groups: a) juxtapositional compounds, b) morphological compounds, c) syntactic compounds.*

landlady, red-hot, snowfall, bread-and-butter, speedometer, window-sill, mother-in-law, Afro-Asian, V-day, world-famous, salesgirl, home-made, stone-cold, hide-and-seek, toothpaste, old-fashioned.

Task 2. *State to what part of speech converted words belong and give the derivational patterns of conversion.*

1. Miss Watkins was a nobody. She was a drifter. No family, no close friends. (*P. Benchley*) 2. I called Jane in and told her to get all the department heads up into my office… What was the good of being the boss if nobody showed up for you to boss? (*H. Robbins*) 3. George signalled for the check. The waiter brought it and he paid him.(id) 4. The talk reverted to the subject which had been tabooed before. (*A. Christie*) 5. He was sweating a little from being down around the engines, and he straightened up and wiped his face with a piece of waste. (*E. Hemingway*) 6. My thoughts have been much occupied with the ups and downs, the fortunes and misfortunes of married life. (*W.S. Maugham*) 7. She liked the feel of her father's fingers gripping hers as they walked home. (*K. Norris*)

Task 3. *State the origin of the prefixes and suffixes in the following words.*

act**or**, **anti**thesis, aunt**ie**, **bi**cycle, clock**wise**, **co**-operate, **counter**attack, **dis**miss, domest**ic**, free**dom**, home**wards**, **inter**national, leaf**let**, **mis**behave, obedi**ence**, **over**all, **ultra**-modern, dark**ness**, dramat**ist**, emerg**ency**, exist**ence**, fam**ous**, gray**ish**, guid**ance**, **ir**regular, min**er**, mother**hood**, organiz**ation**, **pre**-war.

Modular quiz № 4.

Variant 2.

Task 1. *Arrange the compounds given below into 3 three groups: a) juxtapositional compounds, b) morphological compounds, c) syntactic compounds.*

blackbird, good-for-nothing, looking-glass, stay-at-home, Medium-sized, AA-gun, barometer, herdsman, window-sill, man-of-war, high-heeled, sunlight, Afro-American, world-famous, electromagnetic, bluebell.

Task 2. *State to what part of speech converted words belong and give the derivational patterns of conversion.*

1. He turned his head wearily on the pillow. The nurse shooed us from the room then. (*H. Robbins*) 2. I stood up as they neared my table. (*id.*) 3. Caroline put the palms of her hands out to the sun to get them browned. (*M. Spark*) 4. Mr. Murchison had one little eccentricity, which he kept extremely private. It was a mere nothing, a thought, a whim; it seems unfair to mention it. (*J. Collier*) 5. His face paled. Hatred choked him. (*F.O. Connor*) 6. Down the road, in twos and threes, more people were gathering in for the day of marketing, the day of festival. (*R. Bradbury*) 7. She lay inert in the weakening sun. The sky was yellowing. (*D.H. Lawrence*)

Task 3. *State the origin of the prefixes and suffixes in the following words.*

afternoon, apolog**ize**, bad**ly**, business**like**, **contra**dict, cruel**ty**, doggy**y**, duck**ling**, **ex**ceed, **extra**ordinary, feel**ing**, friend**ship**, gradu**ate**, hero**ism**, hope**ful**, **il**logical, **in**ability, magn**ify**, poet**ess**, **poly**functional, post**age**, **post**-war, quick**en**, streng**th**, **super**natural, trouble**some**, **un**bearable, worth**less**, young**ster**.

VOCABULARY TEST

This is a test of your knowledge of the meanings of different words. It is a moderately difficult test and uses some rarely heard words. Choose the right variant.

1) What is the meaning of *chortle*? (a) wake up, (b) cry, (c) laugh

2) What is the meaning of *discrepancy*? (a) inconsistency, (b) pedantry, (c) ancestry

3) What is the meaning of *trudge*? (a) clean out, (b) walk wearily, (c) serve

4) What is the meaning of *odious*? (a) strong smelling, (b) dislikable, (c) strange

5) What is the meaning of *paradox*? (a) weed killer, (b) type of ghost, (c) self-contradictory statement

6) What is the meaning of *renege*? (a) to rebel, (b) to break a promise, (c) to make white again

7) What is the meaning of *assuage*? (a) argue, (b) decorate, (c) soothe

8) What is the meaning of *pragmatic*? (a) practical, (b) argumentative, (c) difficult

9) What is the meaning of *reticent*? (a) backward, (b) restrained, (c) awkward

10) What is the meaning of *salubrious*? (a) organic solvent, (b) wholesome, (c) salty

11) What is the meaning of *subterfuge*? (a) deception, (b) to dive underwater, (c) piece of classical music

12) What is the meaning of *ubiquitous?* (a) wanting to stop suddenly, (b) omnipresent, (c) made of string

13) What is the meaning of *intractable?* (a) unsolvable, (b) unpopular, (c) unusable

14) What is the meaning of *truculent*? (a) tasty, b) savage, (c) able to pull objects

15) What is the meaning of *vortex*? (a) alien, (b) waterproof, (c) whirlpool

16) What is the meaning of *vex*? (a) seeping wound, (b) annoy, (c) monster

17) What is the meaning of *immolate*? (a) procrastinate, (b) fire sacrifice, (c) brick into the wall

18) What is the meaning of *ignominious*? (a) shameful, (b) type of dwarf, (c) not yet named

19) What is the meaning of *hyperbole?* (a) object in space, (b) exaggeration, (c) Indian snake

20) What is the meaning of *foible*? (a) old fashioned story, (b) weakness, (c) lament

SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS TEST

This test tests your knowledge by the use of synonyms and antonyms. Look at the words and work out which of the three other words below is either its synonym or antonym. For example: 1. Task: *easy*: (a) soft, (b) difficult, (c) spacious; Answer: *easy – difficult A* (Antonyms); 2. Task: *closed*: (a) clear, (b) shut, (c) finished; Answer: *closed – shut S* (Synonyms).

1. *follow*: (a) gallop, (b) lead, (c) wind;
2. *fresh*: (a) stale, (b) loose, (c) flame;
3. *cargo*: (a) freight, (b) transport, (c) huge;
4. *fable*: (a) remark, (b) chain, (c) tale;
5. *respect*: (a) esteem, (b) ordinary, (c) hope;
6. *juvenile*: (a) satirical, (b) adult, (c) court;
7. *leisure*: (a) landing, (b) confidence, (c) work;
8. *permit*: (a) brief, (b) prohibit, (c) proclaim;
9. *journal*: (a) magazine, (b) letter, (c) note;
10. *auspicious*: (a) pertinent, (b) illegal, (c) promising;
11. *striped*: (a) field, (b) packet, (c) plain;
12. *simple*: (a) quaint, (b) zealous, (c) complex;
13. *sketch*: (a) fancy, (b) drawing, (c) palace;
14. *hollow*: (a) solid, (b) collect, (c) polish;
15. *doubt*: (a) yawning, (b) certainty, (c) outlet;
16. *verse*: (a) coarse, (b) douse, (c) prose;
17. *avenue*: (a) park, (b) green, (c) road;
18. *piece*: (a) fragment, (b) escape, (c) target;
19. *infringe*: (a) discuss, (b) transpire, (c) violate;
20. *tidy*: (a) unkempt, (b) engulf, (c) popular.

TEST ON THE THEORY OF ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

(1) Lexicology is a branch of linguistics which deals with:

(a) various means of expressing grammatical relations between words and with the patterns after which words are combined into word-groups or sentences; (b) the outer sound form of the word; (c) lexical units and the vocabulary of a language; (d) the study of nature, functions, and structure of stylistic devices and the investigation of each style of language.

(2) The term *vocabulary* is used to denote:

(a) a stable group of words which exists in a language as a ready-made unit; (b) the system of words and word-combinations the language possesses.

(3) The main branches of lexicology are:

(a) semasiology, etymology, onomasiology, onomastics and others; (b) phonology, grammar, pragmatics, stylistics and others.

(4) The term *word* denotes:

(a) the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sound with a meaning; (b) the smallest meaningful language unit.

(5) A word falls into smaller meaningful structural units which are called …

(a) phonemes; (b) morphemes; (c) lexemes; (d) grammemes; (e) semems.

(6) A morpheme which can stand alone as a word is called:

(a) a free morpheme; (b) a bound morpheme; (c) a semi-bound morpheme.

(7) … are morphemes which serve as stems for derivation but which never occur as free forms.

(a) Bound morphemes; (b) Free morphemes: (c) Combining forms; (d) Bound bases.

(8) The words consisting of only one root morpheme are known as … .

(a) derived words; (b) simple words; (c) compound words; (d) derived compound words.

(9) … is the primary element of the word, its basic part which conveys its fundamental lexical meaning.

(a) The suffix; b) The prefix; (c) The semi-affix; (d) The root.

(10) Bound morphemes like *-ify, -ation, -age* are called … . When they are added to a root morpheme or stem, a new word with a new meaning is received.

(a) inflectional morphemes; (b) derivational morphemes.

(11) Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language is … .

(a) homogeneous; (b) heterogeneous.

(12) By … are meant words of roots common to all (or most) languages of the Indo-European group.

(a) The Germanic element; (b) The Indo-European element; (c) The English proper element.

(13) … can be classified according to different criteria: (a) according to the aspect which is borrowed, (b) according to the degree of assimilation; (c) according the language from which the word was borrowed.

(a) Native words; (b) Borrowed words; (c) Hybrid words.

(14) Translation loans are:

(a) word-for-word or morpheme-for-morpheme translations of some foreign words or expressions; (b) borrowings of morphemes which occur in the source language; (c) borrowings of words with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning.

(15) Barbarisms are …

(a) fully assimilated borrowings; (b) partly assimilated borrowings; (c) non-assimilated borrowings.

(16) … appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning.

(a) Latin and Greek borrowings; (b) Norman-French borrowings; (c) Dutch borrowings.

(17) The French dominance is particularly felt in the vocabulary of … .

(a) law, military affairs and cookery; (b) music, choreography and architecture; (c) science, technology and commerce.

(18) Most music terms in Modern English language are from … .

(a) the French language; (b) the Italian language; (c) the Spanish language.

(19) From Portuguese English borrowed such words as: … .

(a) armada, guava, hammock, maize, negro, potato; (b) banjo, verandah, cobra, auto-da-fe, Madeira; (c) ghetto, trattoria, regatta, rialto, tempo, torso.

(20) There are some … borrowed from German into English.

(a) 800 words; (b) 1600 words; (c) 3200 words.

(21) The following words: *Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bunderswehr, gestapo, gas chamber* were borrowed from German in the period of … .

(a) the First World War; (b) the Second World War; (c) after the Second World War.

(22) More than 2000 … were borrowed into English.

(a) French words, (b) Dutch words; (c) Russian words.

(23) … of the English vocabulary are borrowings.

(a) exactly one-third; (b) about half; (c) about a quarter; (d) more than two-thirds.

(24) Mostly borrowed words in English are words of … .

(a) Germanic origin; (b) Romanic origin; (c) Slavic origin.

(25) The term *word-building* is used to denote the branch of science of language which studies … .

(a) the patterns on which a language forms lexical units; (b) stable word-combinations with a transferred meaning; (c) the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries; (d) the meanings of words.

(26) Affixation, compounding, shortening, conversion and substantivation of adjectives are … types of word-building.

(a) non-productive; (b) semi-productive; (c) highly productive.

(27) Such suffixes as: *-ness, er, -hood, -ship, -ish-, -ly, -y, -en, -wards, -th* are …

(a) native suffixes; (b) borrowed suffixes.

(28) Suffixes *-al, -hood, -ness, -ship, -kin, -let, -ling* are … .

(a) terminal suffixes; (b) non-terminal suffixes.

(29) Prefixes *un-, out-, mis-, over-, up-, with-, be-, fore-* are … from the etymological point of view.

(a) native prefixes; (b) foreign prefixes.

(30) Prefixes *co-, contra-, dis-, intra-, post-, pre-, trans-* can combine … .

(a) only with one part of speech; (b) with two or more parts of speech.

(31) … is the type of word-building in which words are produced by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms.

(a) Affixation; (b) Compounding; (c) Shortening; (d) Blending.

(32) Compounds whose IC-s are merely placed one after another are called … .

(a) morphological compounds; (b) juxtapositional or neutral compounds; (c) syntactic compounds.

(33) Syntactic compounds are … .

(a) compounds whose IC-s are joined together with a vowel or a consonant as a linking element; (b) which are the result of the process of semantic isolation of segments of speech preserving articles, prepositions, adverbs etc; (c) those whose IC-s are merely placed one after another.

(34) Contraction is … .

(a) the way of making a new word by means of clipping a full word; (b) the way of making a new word from the initial letters of a word group.

(35) Medial clipping, or syncope, is … .

(a) clipping or omission of the fore part of the word; (b) omission of the middle part of the word; (c) omission of the fore and the final parts of the word.

(36) The two non-productive types of word-building in Modern English are … .

(a) back-formation and reduplication; (b) blending and sound-imitation; (c) sound-interchange and stress-interchange.

(37) Such words as *mish-mash, chit-chat, dilly-dally, shilly-shally, tip-top, hip-hop, flip-flop, tic-tac, sing-song, ding-dong, King-Kong, ping-pong* belong to … .

(a) reduplicative compounds proper; (b) ablaut compounds; (c) rhyme compounds.

(38) Such words as *babble, bang, buzz, crash, giggle, hiss, purr, rustle, hum* are formed by … .

(a) sound-interchange; (b) sound-imitation; (c) reduplication; (d) blending.

(39) … does not belong either to morphological or syntactico-morphological or syntactical word-building.

(a) back-formation; (b) sound-imitation; (c) conversion; (d) sound-interchange, (e) lexicalization of the plural of nouns; (f) syntactic compounding.

(40) … is the branch of philology which deals with word meanings, especially with the historical study of the changes of meaning undergone by words.

(a) Lexicology; (b) Semasiology; (c) Pragmatics; (d) Grammar.

(41) Nominative meaning of words is … .

(a) the direct meaning of the word, immediately referring to objects in extralinguistic reality; (b) the meaning which manifests itself in different collocations; (c) the idiomatic meaning which manifests itself only in certain phraseological units.

(42) Connotation is …

(a) the expression of the direct meaning proper of the word without any emotive evaluation or stylistic colouring; (b) the supplementary expressive meaning presented either by emotive charge or by stylistic reference.

(43) Grammatical meanings are … .

(a) recurrent in identical sets of individual forms common to all words of a certain class; (b) semantic elements that are recurrent in all the forms of the word, and in all possible uses of these forms.

(44) There are three main … of English words: monosemy, polysemy and semantic diffusion.

(a) grammatical structures; (b) semantic structures; (c) syntactic structures.

(45) What semantic structure is observed in such words as: *thing, point, matter, case?*

(a) Monosemy; (b) Polysemy; (c) Semantic diffusion.

(46) … manifests itself only in different colligations.

(a) nominative meaning; (b) syntactically conditioned meaning; (c) phraseologically bound meaning.

(47) Words belonging to the same part of speech, differing in sound form, and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings are called … .

(a) synonyms; (b) homonyms; (c) antonyms; (d) paronyms.

(48) Words that have directly opposite meanings are called … .

(a) synonyms; (b) homonyms; (c) antonyms; (d) paronyms.

(49) Words that are identical in spelling but different in sound are called … .

(a) homographs; (b) homophones; (c) homoforms.

(50) … are those which are identical both in sound and spelling.

(a) absolute homonyms; (b) partial homonyms.

ISSUES FOR ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY EXAMINATION

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.
2. The subject-matter and tasks of lexicology.
3. The structure of lexicology.
4. The place of lexicology among other sciences.
5. The morphological structure of English words.
6. The structural types of English words.
7. Native words in the English language.
8. Borrowed words in the English language.
9. Classification of borrowed words according to the borrowed aspect.
10. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation.
11. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed.
12. Romanic borrowings in the English vocabulary.
13. Latin borrowings in English.
14. French borrowings in English.
15. Italian borrowings in English.
16. Spanish and Portuguese borrowings.
17. Germanic borrowings in the English vocabulary.
18. Scandinavian borrowings in English.
19. German borrowings in English.
20. Dutch borrowings in English.
21. Slavic borrowings in the English vocabulary.
22. Russian and Ukrainian borrowings.
23. Morphological word-building in English.
24. Affixation as a word-building process.
25. Compounding as a type of word-building.
26. Shortening of words and word-groups in English.
27. Sound- and stress-interchange.
28. Back-formation as a type of word-building.
29. Reduplication in the system of word-building.
30. Blending as a combined way of word-building.
31. Syntactico-morphological word-building.
32. Juxtapositional compounding.

33. Substantivation of adjectives.
34. Lexicalization of the plural of nouns.
35. Conversion or affixless derivation.
36. Syntactical word-building in English.
37. Sound-imitation as a minor type of word-building.
38. Semasiology as a science about word meaning.
39. Types of lexical meaning of words.
40. Main semantic structures of words.
41. Semantic groups of words.
42. Synonyms and their types.
43. Antonyms and their types.
44. Homonyms and their classification.

GLOSSARY OF LEXICOLOGY TERMS

A

Abbreviation – a shortened form of a written word or phrase used in a text in place of the whole, for economy of space and effort

Absolute synonyms – are synonyms coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics

Affix – a prefix or suffix

Affixal morphemes (affixes) – morphemes which express the specificational part of the meaning of the word, the specifications being of lexico-semantic and grammatico-semantic character

Affixation – the process that consists in coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morheme

Allomorph – a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and so characterized by complementary distribution

Americanism – a word or a set expression peculiar to the English language as spoken in the USA

Analysis – 1) a separation of something into parts; 2) a detailed examination of something

Antonyms – words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings

Aphaeresis – clipping or omission of the fore part of the word; e.g. *car* (from *motor-car)*

Apocope – clipping, or omission, of the final part of the word; e.g. *ad* (from *advertisement*)

Archaism – a word current in an earlier time but rare in present usage

Aspect – one part of a problem or situation

Assimilation of a loan word – a partial or total conformation to the phonetic, graphic and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system

B

Back-formation (reversion) – the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure

Barbarism – a word of foreign origin which has not entirely been assimilated into the English language

Blending (telescopy) – is a special type of compounding by means of merging parts of words into one new word

Blendings (splinters) – the result of conscious creation of words by merging irregular fragments of several words

Borrowing (a loan-word) – word which came into the vocabulary of one language from another and was assimilated by the new language

Bound morpheme – a morpheme that occurs only as a constituent part of a word

C

Change of meaning – the process when the old meaning is completely replaced by the new one

Clipping – the creation of new words by shortening a word of two or more syllables (usually nouns and adjectives) without changing its class membership

Cognates – words of the same etymological root, of common origin

Coinage – a new word or phrase

Composition – the type of word-building in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems

Compound stem – stem containing two or more roots

Compound suffixes – the chains of suffixes occurring in derived words having two or more suffixal morphemes

Compound words – words consisting of two or more stems

Contracted compounds – words with a shortened (contracted) stem in their structure

Conversion – the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with a different distribution characerestic but without adding any derivative elements so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of the derived words are homonymous

D

Dead suffixes – suffixes disclosed by etymological analysis but having no relevance for the present state of the language

Definition – a statement of what a word or a phrase means or of what a thing is

Denotational meaning – the component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible

Derivation morphemes – morphemes which serve to build words

Derivatives (derived words) – words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes)

Derivative stem – stem containing affixes or other stem-building elements

Derived (derivational) compounds – compounds which have affixes in their structure

Descriptive lexicology – the study of the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development

Dictionary – a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and origin

Dominant synonym – a "central" word of a synonymic group whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group

E

Emotive meaning – meaning that materializes a concept in the word and has reference not directly to things or phenomena of objective reality but to the feelings and emotions of the speaker towards these things or to his emotions as such

Encyclopedia – a book or set of books containing all kinds of information

Encyclopedic dictionaries – thing-books that give information about the extra-linguistic world, they deal with concepts (objects and phenomena), their relations to other objects and phenomena etc

English word-formation – that branch of English lexicology which studies the derivative structure of words and the patterns on which the English language builds words

Etymology – the origin of words

Etymology – a branch of linguistics which deals with the origin and development of words tracing them back to their earliest determinable source

F

Free morphemes – morphemes that can build up words by themselves, i.e. can be used "freely"

Free word-groups – structures that are each time built up anew in the speech process

Full homonymy – is homonymy of the paradigm of two or more different words

Full lexical homonyms – are words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm

Function – what somebody or something is there to do

G

General dictionaries – are those which contain lexical units in ordinary use with this or that proportion of items from various spheres of life

General lexicology – is part of general linguistics; it is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language

Glossary – a list of difficult words with their meanings explained

Grammatical homonymy – is the homonyny of different word-forms of one and the same word

Grammatical meaning – is component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g. the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns

H

Historical lexicology – the study of the evolution of any vocabulary, as well as its single elements

Historisms – are words denoting objects and phenomena which are things of the past and no longer exist

Homographs – the words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling

Homonym – a homograph or homophone

Homonyms – two or more words identical in sound and spelling, or, at least, in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning, distribution and (in many cases) origin

Homonyms proper – homonyms which are the same in sound and spelling

Homonymy – a linguistic phenomenon when two or more units of the plane of content correspond to one unit of the plane of expression

Homophones – are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning

Homographs – are the words identical in spelling, but different both in their sound-form and meaning

Hybrids – words that are made up of elements derived from two or more different languages

Hyponymy – is semantic relation of inclusion

Hyponymy – is the hierarchical relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms

I

Ideographic synonyms – are words conveying the same notion but differing in shades of meaning

Idioms – phraseological units with completely transferred meaning, that is, the meaning of the whole does not correspond to the meaning of the components

Infix – an affix placed within the word

Inflection (ending) – any morpheme serving to derive a form of a word and having no lexical meaning

Inflexions – grammatical suffixes which express different morphological categories

Internal structure of the word – its meaning, the word's semantic structure

International words – words borrowed from one language into several others simultaneously or at short intervals one after another

L

Language – a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse

Lexeme – all the lexical meanings of the word, inherent in a morpheme, which unite this word with other words into one group

Lexical homonyms – are homonyms that differ in lexical meaning

Lexical meaning – a means by which a word-form is made to express a definite concept

Lexical meaning – is the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word

Lexical system – the whole set of naming means of language, that is, words and stable word-groups

Lexicalization of the plural of nouns – the cases when the grammatical form of the plural of nouns becomes isolated from the paradigm and acquires a new lexical meaning

Lexico-grammatical homonyms – are words which are the same in sound and spelling but refer to different categories of parts of speech

Lexicography – the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries

Lexicology – is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language

Linguistic dictionaries – are word-books; their subject-matter is lexical units and their linguistic properties such as pronunciation, meaning, peculiarities of use etc

Linguistics – the study of languages

Loan word (borrowed word, borrowing) – a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language

M

Main meaning – is that which possesses the highest frequency at the present stage of development

Meaning – is a component of the word through which a concept is communicated

Method – is an instrument and a way of obtaining knowledge

Mixed clipping – clipping where the fore and the final parts of the word are clipped; e.g. *tec* (from *detective*)

Monosemy – is the existence of only one meaning within one word

Morpheme – the smallest indivisible component of the word possessing a meaning of its own

Morphemes – the smallest meaningful units into which a word form may be divided

Morphological compounds – words in which two compounding stems are combined by a linking vowel or consonant

N

Native elements – words which were not borrowed from other languages but represent the original stock of this particular language

Native words – are words comprising the ancient Anglo-Saxon core and also words coined later on their basis by means of various processes operative in English

Neologism – a new word or a new meaning for an established word

Neutral compounds – compounds in which the process of compounding is realised without any linking elements, by a mere juxtaposition of two stems

Notion – the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations

O

Origin of borrowing – the language to which the word may be traced

P

Paradigm – is the system showing a word in all its word-forms

Paronyms – are words resembling each other in form, but different in meaning and usage

Phraseological unit – is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning

Phraseology – is a branch of lexicology specializing in word-groups which are characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning

Polysemantic word – a word which has more than one meaning in the language

Polysemy of words – is the ability of words to have more than one meaning

Prefixes – affixes which preceed the root in the structure of the word

Prefixation – is the formation of words with the help of prefixes

R

Reduplication – is a type of word-building in which new compounds are made by doubling a stem

Root of a word – a lexical morpheme

Root-morpheme – is the lexical nucleus of a word that has an individual lexical meaning shared by no other morpheme of the language

Root-word – word which has only a root morpeme in its structure

S

Semantic diffusion – is observed in words with a very wide conceptual volume; such words denote, in fact, one concept, but can name an indefinitely large number of objects, for instance, the word *thing* denotes any "object of our thought"

Semantic loan – the development in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language

Semantic structure of a word – is its internal structure, or its meaning

Semasiology is the branch of lexicology which is devoted to the study of meaning

Semi-affixes – elements that stand midway between root and affixes

Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes – are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme

Shortening (contraction) – is a way of word-building in which a new word is produced from a syllable of the original word or from the initial letters of a word-group

Shortenings (contractions, curtailed words) – are words produced by the way of shortening (contraction)

Simple neutral compounds – compounds which consist of simple affixless stems

Simple stem – stem containing only the root

Sound-interchange – is the change of a root vowel or root consonant, or both, used to play a certain role in word-building in past though it is no longer active now

Sound-imitation (onomatopoeia) – a type of word-building in which words are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings and inanimate objects

Source of borrowing – the language from which the loan word was taken into English

Special lexicology – is the lexicology of a particular language (e.g. English, Russian), i.e. the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units, primarily words as the main units of language

Stem – is a part of word consisting of the root and affixes

Stress-interchange – a non-productive type of word-building in which a new word in a different part of speech was coined by a change of stress

Stylistics – a discipline studying the expressive means of language

Suffix – a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class

Substantivation – is the process in which adjectives (or participles) acquire the paradigm and syntactic functions of nouns

Suffixation – is the formation of words with the help of suffixes

Syncope – omission of the middle part of the word; e.g. *maths* (from *mathematics*)

Synonyms – are words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same notion but different either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics

Synonymy – a linguistic phenomenon when two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content

Term – is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a notion peculiar to this particular activity

Thematic groups – are groups in which words are joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things or events

Total synonymy – synonymy where the members of a synonymic group can replace each other in any given context

Transference – is the process of the development of a new meaning (or a change of meaning)

Translation dictionaries – are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language

Translation-loans – are words and expressions formed from the material available in the language after the patterns characteristic of the given language, but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions

V

Valency – the combining power of words in relation to other words in syntactically subordinate position

Variants – regional varieties of English possessing a literary form

Vocabulary – the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses

W

Word – the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds susceptible of a given grammatical empolyment

Word-form – one of the different aspects a word may take as a result of inflection

Word-building – processes of producing new words from the resources of the particular language

Word-families – are lexical groups composed of words with semantically and phonemically identical root-morphemes

Literature

1. Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М.: Дрофа, 1999. – 288 с.

2. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка. – М.: Высшая школа, 1986. – 295 с. – На англ. яз.

3. Воробей А.Н., Карапетова Е.Г. Глоссарий лингвистических терминов. – Барановичи: УО БарГУ, 2004. – 108 с.

4. Квеселевич Д.І., Сасіна В.П. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови.– Житомир: Нова книга, 2003. – 128 с.

5. Хокинс Дш. Оксфордский толковый словарь английского языка. – М.: ООО Астрель, ООО АСТ, 2001. – 832 с.

6. Ginsburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M.: Higher School, 1979. – 269 p.

KEY TO EXERCISES AND TESTS

Key to Exercise 14

1) paska – *braided circular Easter bread;*

2) pyrizhky– *turnovers;* balabushki – *filled buns;*

3) palyanytsi – *flatbread;*

4) karbovanets – *paper money;*

5) pood – *40 pounds;*

6) desyatyna – *2.7 acres;*

7) batyushka – *a Ukrainian Orthodox priest;*

8) karbovantsi – *paper money*; pyataki – *nickels;*

9) matushka – *a wife of a Ukrainian Orthodox priest*;

10) rushnyk – *embroidered linen ceremonial cloth*;

11) peech – *a large clay oven with a sleeping area on the top*;

12) verhuny – *deep fried sweet pastries*;

13) kanun – *spiced diluted honey.*

Key to Exercise 15

1) *krashanky* – dyed eggs;

2) *kolomyika* – a high-spirited dance;

3) *pysanky* – intricately decorated Easter eggs;

4) *svyachene* – foods blessed in Church at Easter;

5) *tykva* – a pumpkin; *rushnyky* – embroidered linen ceremonial cloths;

6) *sopilky* – shepherd's flutes;

7) *versts* – kilometres;

8) *potert'* – tobacco remains; *papusha* – roll of tobacco leaves; *makhorka* – tobacco of bad quality;

9) *perezymok* – something kept over the winter; *zbirka* – harvesting; *pasynkuvat'* – to tear off side shoots of plants; *odvolohnuty* – to become damp again;

10) *khomuty* – horse collars;

11) *herhepa* – a big, awkward person;

12) *kopiyka* – a copeck;

13) *pyrih* – a big meat pie; *kozak* – a freedom-loving horseman of the steppes.

Key to Exercise 30

(a) flush = flash + blush,
glaze = glare + gaze,
slash = slay, sling + dash, gash,
smog = smoke + fog,
flurry = flash + hurry,
twirl = twist + whirl,
chort = chuckle + snort,
dumbfound = dumb + confound,
cablegram = cable + telegram,
electrocute = electricity + execute,
galumph = gallop + triumph,
swellegant = swell + elegant,
zebrule = zebra + mule,
dollarature = dollar + literature,
animule = animal + mule,
fruice = fruit + juice;

(b) slanguage = slang + language,
hustle = hurry + bustle,
gasohol = gasoline + alcohol,
acromania = acronym + mania,
bit = binary + digit,
cinemaddict = cinema + addict,
chunnel = channel + tunnel,
dramedy = drama + comedy,
detectifiction = detective + fiction,
faction = fact + fiction,
informercial = information + commercial,
medicare = medical + care,
magalog = magazine + catalogue,
slimnastics = slimming + gymnastics,
sociolite = social + elite,
slanguist = slang + linguist;

(c) advecture = advertising + architecture
advertorial = advertisement + editorial
automagical = automatic + magical,
bleen = blue + green,
brunch = breakfast + lunch,
Dunglish = Dutch + English,
cosplay = costume + play,
crunk = crazy + drunk,
dancercise = dance + exercise,
mobitone = mobile phone + ring tone,
Oxbridge = Oxford + Cambridge,
skort = skirt + short,
Spanglish = Spanish + English,
toytoons = toys + cartoons,
trill = true + real,
webzine = web + magazine,
Chinglish = Chinese + English.

Key to exercise 39

masculine – unmasculine, meaningful – meaningless, moderate – immoderate, observant – unobservant, ordinary – extraordinary, satisfactory – unsatisfactory, shameful – shameless, sympathetic – unsympathetic, legalb– illegal, regular – irregular, thoughtful – thoughtless, certain – uncertain, common – uncommon, expected – unexpected, healthy – unhealthy, important – unimportant, interesting – uninteresting, kind – unkind, lawful – unlawful, legitimate – illegitimate, necessary – unnecessary, occupied – unoccupied, pleasant – unpleasant, tidy – untidy, usual – unusual, active – inactive, adequate – inadequate, agreeable – disagreeable, applicable – inapplicable, appropriate – inappropriate, real – unreal, natural – unnatural, artful – artless, attentive – inattentive, attractive – unattractive, available – unavailable, competent – incompetent, complete – incomplete, conspicuous – inconspicuous, frequent – infrequent, costructive – destructive, contented – discontented.

Key to test № 1

1) chortle	c) laugh
2) discrepancy	a) inconsistency
3) trudge	b) walk wearily
4) odious	b) dislikable
5) paradox	c) self-contradictory statement
6) renege	b) break a promise
7) assuage	c) soothe
8) pragmatic	a) practical
9) reticent	b) restrained
10) salubrious	b) wholesome
11) subterfuge	a) deception
12) ubiquitous	b) omnipresent
13) intractable	a) unsolvable
14) truculent	b) savage
15) vortex	c) whirlpool
16) vex	b) annoy
17) immolate	b) fire sacrifice
18) ignominious	a) shameful
19) hyperbole	b) exaggeration
20) foible	b) weakness

Key to test № 2

Question	Answer
1 follow	b) lead A
2 fresh	a) stale A
3 cargo	a) freight S
4 fable	c) tale S
5 respect	a) esteem S
6 juvenile	b) adult A
7 leisure	c) work A
8 permit	b) prohibit A
9 journal	b) magazine S
10 auspicious	c) promising S
11 striped	c) plain A
12 simple	c) complex A
13 sketch	b) drawing S
14 hollow	a) solid A
15 doubt	b) certainty A
16 verse	c) prose A
17 avenue	c) road S
18 piece	a) fragment S
19 infringe	c) violate S
20 tidy	a) unkempt A

CONTENTS