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**ТЕОРЕТИЧНИЙ КУРС АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ
ЯК ДРУГОЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ**

Навчально-методичний посібник

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як навчально-методичний посібник для студентів I курсу СВО “магістр”
спеціальності 035.05 Філологія (романські мови та літератури) (переклад
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Навчально-методичний посібник з теоретичного курсу англійської мови як другої іноземної призначений для студентів першого курсу СВО магістр. Мета навчально-методичного посібника – ознайомити студентів з сучасним підходом до вивчення питань курсу, запропонувати студентам інформацію щодо сучасних наукових розвідок у царині як вітчизняного, так і зарубіжного мовознавства; поглибити нормативні знання з англійської мови; сформувати у студентів уявлення про системність лексичного складу англійської мови, структуру англійської мови та правила її функціонування в процесі комунікації.

Посібник містить лекційний матеріал, теоретичні та практичні завдання, плани семінарських занять, питання для самоконтролю, тестові завдання, тематику рефератів, список базової та допоміжної літератури. Тестові завдання дозволяють студентам перевірити ступінь засвоєння теоретичного матеріалу. Самостійна робота студентів має на меті формування професійних знань, створення достатньої теоретико-методологічної компетенції з основ фаху, розвиток аналітико-пошукових навичок. Структура навчально-методичного посібника та його наповнення сприятиме розвитку самостійного критичного мислення, а також професіоналізації теоретичного курсу.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Навчально-методичний посібник адресовано студентам, що здобувають ступінь вищої освіти “магістр” зі спеціальності 035.05 Філологія (романські мови та літератури (переклад включно) (французька) / (іспанська).

Посібник має на меті ознайомити студентів із сучасним підходом до вивчення питань курсу, запропонувати студентам інформацію щодо сучасних наукових розвідок у царині як вітчизняного, так і зарубіжного мовознавства; поглибити нормативні знання з англійської мови; сформувати у студентів уявлення про системність лексичного складу англійської мови, структуру англійської мови та правила її функціонування у процесі комунікації.

Структурно посібник поділено на дві частини: теоретичну та практичну. У теоретичному розділі подано конспекти лекцій з курсу. Практичний розділ представлений практичними завданнями до семінарських занять, питаннями для самоконтролю, темами для підготовки доповідей, термінологічним словником, довідковим матеріалом. До посібника входять 10 лекцій та 8 семінарських занять відповідно до вимог навчальної програми з “Теоретичного курсу другої іноземної мови (англійська)”.

Тести проміжного та прикінцевого контролю уможливають самостійний контроль успішності засвоєння теоретичного та практичного матеріалу. Додатки представляють собою органічне доповнення до основної частини посібника. Навчально-методичний посібник надає можливість студентам якісніше здійснювати самостійне навчання, що, як відомо, є однією з основних вимог Болонського процесу.

У результаті опрацювання посібника студент набуває навичок та вмінь використовувати результати досліджень в навчальному процесі та при вивченні споріднених дисциплін; отримує знання про закономірності та особливості функціонування одиниць номінації сучасної англійської мови; характеризувати різні підходи до класифікації теоретичних питань курсу; застосовувати базові фундаментальні знання при виконанні індивідуальних завдань курсу.

I. LECTURE NOTES

LECTURE 1 LEXICOLOGY. GENERAL LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND.

Outline:

1. Lexicology as a branch of Linguistics.
2. Lexical units.
3. Morphemic structure of words. Classification of morphemes.
4. Types of meaning of morphemes.
5. Morphemic types of words.
6. Types of word-segmentability
7. Procedure of morphemic analysis.

1. Lexicology as a branch of Linguistics.

The term **lexicology** is composed of two Greek morphemes: *lexis* meaning ‘word, phrase’ (hence *lexicos* ‘having to do with words’) and *logos* which denotes ‘learning, a department of knowledge’. Thus, **lexicology** is a part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of the language. It also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.

The term **word** denotes the basic unit of a language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. The word is a structural and semantic entity within the language system. The word is a two-facet unit possessing both form (sound form) and content (meaning). Neither can exist without the other.

When used in actual speech the word undergoes certain modification and functions in one of its forms. The system showing a word in all its word-forms is called its **paradigm**. The lexical meaning of a word is the same throughout the paradigm, i.e. all the word-forms of one and the same word are lexically identical.

The grammatical meaning varies from one form to another (cf. *to walk, walks, walked, walking or singer, singer’s, singers, singers*’). Therefore, when we speak of the word ‘singer’ or the word ‘take’ as used in actual utterances (cf., His brother is a well-known singer or I wonder who has taken my umbrella) we use the term ‘word’ conventionally, because what is manifested in the speech event is not the word as a whole, but one of its forms which is identified as belonging to one definite paradigm.

Vocabulary is a system formed by the total sum of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. It is an adaptive system adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural surrounding.

The term **system** as used in the present course do not denote merely the total sum of English words. The term **system** denotes a coherent homogeneous whole, constituted by interdependent elements of the same order related in certain specific ways. Lexicology studies this whole by determining the properties of its elements and the different relationships existing between them within a language, as well as the ways in which they are influenced by extra-linguistic reality.

Linguistic relationships between words are classified into **syntagmatic** and **paradigmatic**.

Syntagmatic relations are based on the linear character of speech, i.e. on the influence of context. The term context is defined as the minimum stretch of speech necessary and sufficient to determine which of the possible meanings of a polysemantic word is used (e.g. *blue eyes* and *to feel blue*). In some cases the microcontext, i.e. that of a sentence or a syntagm, is not sufficient, and a broader context, or macrocontext is necessary. For instance in “The Posthumous Papers of the Pickwick Club” by Charles Dickens, we come across the phrase: “There were Blue shops and Buff shops, Blue inns and Buff inns”; to understand it the reader must know that the Blues and the Buffs were the two rival leading parties of the town.

Paradigmatic linguistic relations determining the vocabulary system may be subdivided as follows: 1) the interdependence of elements within words; 2) the interdependence of words within the vocabulary; 3) the influence of other aspects of the same language.

Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes which make up words. Lexicology is subdivided into several branches:

– *General Lexicology* is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language;

– *Special Lexicology* studies the lexical system of a particular language (English, Ukrainian, German etc.), i.e. is occupied with the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units, primarily words as the main units of language.

– *Historical Lexicology and Etymology* which study lexical system in diachrony, discussing the evolution of vocabulary and the origins of words, and investigating the linguistic and extra-linguistic forces that influence the changes in the vocabulary of a given language.;

– *Descriptive Lexicology* deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structures as a characteristic inherent in the system;

– *Comparative Lexicology* studies closely related languages from the point of view of relationships between language families (such as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Germanic and Romance languages, etc);

– *Contrastive Lexicology* aims at establishing facts of typological similarities and differences between both related and unrelated languages;

– *Semasiology* is the area of lexicology which discusses the word meaning, its structure and the classification of changes in the meanings of words;

– *Word-formation* is the area of lexicology which deals with derivation patterns in a particular language, categories and types of word-formation devices and the lexical units built with the help of these devices;

– *Phraseology* is the area of lexicology which studies the word groups viewed as functionally and semantically inseparable units (phraseologisms or idioms) with a fully or partially transferred meaning;

– *Applied Lexicology* covers terminology, lexicography, translation, linguodidactics and pragmatics of speech.

There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material: the synchronic and the diachronic approaches (Ferdinand de Saussure).

The **synchronic (descriptive)** approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time or at the present time. It refers to Descriptive Lexicology that deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time.

The **diachronic (historical)** approach refers to Historical Lexicology that deals with the evolution of the vocabulary units of a language over time. English Historical Lexicology studies the origin of English vocabulary units, their change and development, the linguistic and extra-linguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage within the history of the English language.

2. Lexical units.

Lexicology studies various lexical units: morphemes, words, variable word-groups and phraseological units.

The **morpheme** is the smallest indivisible two-facet language unit, which occurs in speech only as a constituent part of a word.

The **word** is the basic unit of language system, the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plan of linguistic analysis. The word is a structural and semantic entity within the language system.

The **word-group** is the largest two-facet lexical unit comprising more than one word.

Phraseological units as well as words are names for things, names of actions, objects, qualities, etc. Unlike words proper, phraseological units are word-groups consisting of two or more words whose combination is integrated as a unit with a specialised meaning of the whole. For example, *flower*, *wall*, *taxi* are words denoting various objects of the outer world. The (lexical) vocabulary units *black frost*, *red tape*, *a skeleton in the cupboard* are phraseological units: each is a word-group with a specialised meaning of the whole, namely *black frost* is 'frost without snow', *red tape* denotes 'bureaucratic methods', *a skeleton in the cupboard* refers to a fact of which a family is ashamed and which it tries to hide.

3. Morphemic structure of words. Classification of morphemes.

Word-structure is internal organization of words. The **morpheme**, as it is aforesaid, is the smallest indivisible two-facet language unit. They are not independent sense units as words or sentences are. They are always used as parts of words. Like a word a morpheme is a two-facet unit, unlike the word a morpheme is not an autonomous unit and can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word. It is the smallest meaningful language unit.

Morphemes may have different phonetic shapes. In the word-cluster *please*, *pleasing*, *pleasure*, *pleasant* the root-morpheme is represented by phonemic shapes: [pli:z] in *please* and *pleasing*, [ple□] in *pleasure* and [plez] in *pleasant*. All the representations of the given morpheme that manifest alteration are called **allomorphs** of that morpheme or **morpheme variants**. Thus, [pli:z], [plez] and [ple□] are allomorphs of one and the same morpheme.

Morphemes may be classified from the semantic and structural points of view.

Semantically morphemes fall into two types:

1) **Root-morphemes (radicals)** are the lexical nucleus of words, it has an individual lexical meaning shared by no other morpheme of the language, for example, in the words *rewrite*, *hopeful*, *disorder* the root-morphemes *-write*, *hope-*, and *-order* are understood as the lexical centres of the words. The root-morpheme is isolated as the morpheme common to a set of words making up a word-cluster, for instance, the morpheme *work-* in *to work*, *worker*, *working* or *theor-* in *theory*, *theorist*, *theoretical*, etc.

2) **Non-root morphemes** include inflectional morphemes (inflections) and affixational morphemes (affixes). Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and thus are relevant only for the formation of word-forms, whereas affixes are relevant for building various types of stem. Lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes.

Structurally morphemes fall into three types:

1) A **free morpheme** is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form. A great many root-morphemes are free morphemes, for example, the root-morpheme *friend-* of the noun *friendship* is naturally qualified as a free morpheme because it coincides with one of the forms of the noun *friend*.

2) A **bound morpheme** is a morpheme that must be attached to another element. It occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are bound morphemes for they always make part of a word, for example, the suffixes *-ness*, *-ship*, *-ise (-ize)* in the words *kind-ness*, *friend-ship*, *real-ize*; the prefixes *un-*, *dis-*, *de-* in the words *un-tidy*, *dis-like*, *de-mobilize*.

Combining forms are morphemes borrowed namely from Greek or Latin in which they exist as free forms. They are considered to be bound roots, for instance, the word *tele-phone* consists of two bound roots, whereas the word *cycl-ic* – of a bound root and an affix.

3) **Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes** are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme. For example, the morpheme *well* and *half* on the one hand occur as free morphemes that coincide with the stem and the word-form in utterances like *sing well*, *half a month*, on the other hand they occur as bound morphemes in words like *well-known*, *half-eaten*, *half-done*.

Thus, semantically morphemes fall into root-morphemes and affixational morphemes (prefixes and suffixes); structurally into free, bound and semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes.

4. Types of meaning of morphemes.

Different types of meaning can be singled out in morphemes depending on the semantic class they belong to. Root-morphemes possess lexical, differential and distributional types of meaning. Affixational morphemes have lexical, part of-speech, differential and distributional types of meaning. Both root-morphemes and affixational morphemes are devoid of grammatical meaning.

The lexical meaning of root-morphemes differs from that of affixational morphemes. Root-morphemes have an individual lexical meaning shared by no other morphemes in the language, for instance, *light*, *deaf*, *deep*, etc. The lexical meaning of affixational morphemes is, as a rule, of a more generalizing character. For example, the

suffix *-en* carries the meaning ‘the change of a quality’, for example, *to lighten* – ‘to become lighter’, *to deafen* – ‘to make somebody deaf’, *to deepen* – ‘to become deeper than it was before’.

As in words lexical meaning in morphemes may be also analyzed into denotational and connotational components. The connotational component of meaning may be found not only in root-morphemes but in affixational morphemes as well, for instance, the suffixes *-ette* (*kitchenette*); *-ie* (*dearie, girlie*); *-ling* (*duckling*) bear a heavy emotive charge.

The affixational morphemes with the same denotational meaning sometimes differ only in connotation. For example, the morphemes *-ly, -like, -ish* in the words *womanly, womanlike, womanish* have the same denotational meaning of similarity but differ in the connotational component (cf. the Ukrainian equivalents: жіночний – жіночий – бабський).

Stylistic reference may also be found in morphemes of different types. For instance, the affixational morphemes *-ine* (*chlorine*), *-oid* (*rhomboid*) are bookish.

Differential meaning is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from all others containing identical morphemes. In words consisting of two or more morphemes, one of the constituent morphemes always has differential meaning. For example, in the word *forehead* the morpheme *-head* serves to distinguish the word from other words containing the morpheme *fore-*: *forefoot, forepart, foreground*.

Distributional meaning is the meaning of the order and arrangement of morphemes making up the word. It is found in all words containing more than one morpheme. For example, the word *teacher* is composed of two morphemes *teach-* and *-er* both of which possess the denotational meaning ‘to help students to learn something’ and ‘the doer of the action’. A different arrangement of the same morphemes **erteach* would make the word meaningless.

Part-of-speech meaning is the indicative of the part of speech to which a derivational word belongs. For instance, the affixational morpheme *-ness* (*darkness*) is used to form nouns, while the affixational morpheme *-less* (*careless*) forms adjectives. Sometimes the part-of-speech meaning of morphemes predominates. For example, the morpheme *-ice* in the word *justice* serves principally to transfer the part-of-speech meaning of the morpheme *just-* into another class and namely that of the noun.

5. Morphemic types of words.

According to the number of morphemes words are classified into:

I. **Monomorphemic** or **root-words** which consist of only one root-morpheme, for example, *small, dog, make*, etc.

II. **Polymorphemic words** according to the number of root-morphemes are classified into:

1. **Monoradical words** (having one-root morpheme) fall into three subtypes:

a) **radical-suffixal words**, i.e. words consisting of one root-morpheme and two or more suffixal morphemes, for example, *respectable, respectability*;

b) **radical-prefixal words**, i.e. words consisting of one root-morpheme and a prefixal morpheme, for example, *overcome, unbutton*;

c) **prefixo-radical-suffixal words**, i.e. words which consist of one root, prefixal and suffixal morphemes, for instance, *unforgettable, misinterpretation*.

2. **Polyradical words** (having words consisting of two or more roots) fall into two subtypes:

a) polyradical words which consist of two or more roots with no affixational morpheme, for example, *pen-friend*, *copybook*;

b) polyradical words which contain at least two roots and one or more affixational morpheme, for instance, *safety-pin*, *light-mindedness*, *pen-holder*.

6. Types of word-segmentability.

Word-segmentability is the division of words into morphemes. Three types of morphemic segmentability of words are distinguished: complete, conditional, defective.

Complete segmentability is characteristic of words, the morphemic structure of which is transparent enough, as their individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word and can be easily isolated. The morphemes making up words of complete segmentability are called **morpheme proper** or **full morphemes**. The transparent morphemic structure of the segmentable words *useless*, *hopeful* is conditioned by the fact that their constituent morphemes recur with the same meaning in other words: *use*, *to use*, *a hope*, *to hope* and *homeless*, *powerful*.

Conditional segmentability characterizes words whose segmentation into the constituent morphemes is doubtful for semantic reasons. In the words *retain*, *detain* or *deceive*, *receive* the sound-cluster – [ri-] and [di-] seem to be singled out easily due to their recurrence in a number of words. But, they have nothing in common with the phonetically identical morphemes *re-*, *de-*, for instance, in *rewrite*, *reorganize* or *decode*, *reorganize*. Neither the sound-cluster [ri-], [di-] nor [-tain], [si:v] possess any lexical or part-of-speech meaning of their own. The types of meaning that can be ascribed to them are differential and distributional: the [ri-] distinguishes *retain* from *detain* and the [-tein] distinguishes *retain* from *receive*, whereas their order and arrangement point to the status of the *re-*, *de-* as different from that of the *-tain* and *-ceive* within the structure of the words. The morphemes making up words of conditional segmentability do not rise to the status of full morphemes for semantic reason and that is why are called **pseudo-morphemes** or **quasi-morphemes**.

Defective segmentability is the property of words whose component morphemes seldom or never recur in other words. One of the component morphemes of these words is a unique morpheme in the sense that it does not recur in a different linguistic environment. A unique morpheme is isolated and understood as meaningful because the constituent morphemes display a more or less clear denotational meaning. In the word *hamlet* the morpheme *-let* has the meaning of diminutiveness. This morpheme occurs in the words *ringlet*, *leaflet*, *streamlet*. The sound-cluster [hæm-] that is left after the isolation of the morpheme *-let* does not recur in any other English word. The morpheme *ham-* carries a differential and distributional meaning as it distinguishes *hamlet* from *streamlet*, *ringlet*. This morpheme is qualified as unique.

7. Procedure of morphemic analysis.

The procedure of segmenting words into the constituent morphemes is known as **the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents** (any of two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unit (L. Bloomfield)). It is based on a binary principle, i.e. each stage of the procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into.

At each stage these two components are referred to as **the Immediate Constituents** (ICs). Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in its turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These morphemes are referred to as the **Ultimate Constituents** (UCs). For example, the noun *friendliness* is first segmented into the ICs 1) *friendly-* (recurring in the adjectives *friendly* and *friendly-looking*) and 2) *-ness* (found in a countless number of nouns), for instance, *happiness*, *darkness*. The IC *-ness* is at the same time an UC of the noun, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning. The IC *friendly-* is next broken into the ICs 1) *friend-* (recurring in *friendship*, *unfriendly*) and 2) *-ly* (recurring in *wifely*, *brotherly*). The ICs *friend-* and *-ly* are both UCs of the word under analysis.

The division into ICs and UCs can be carried out on the basis of two principles: the affix principle and the root principle.

According to **the affix principle** the segmentation of the word into its constituent morphemes is based on the identification of an affixational morpheme within a set of words, for example, the identification of the morphemes *-less* leads to the segmentation of words like *thoughtless*, *careless*, *merciless* into the suffixational morpheme *-less* and the root-morphemes *thought-*, *care-*, *merci-* within a word-cluster.

According to **the root principle** the identification of the root-morpheme, for example, *agree-* in the words *agreeable*, *agreement*, *disagree* makes it possible to split these words into the root *agree-* and the affixational morphemes *-able*, *-ment*, *dis-*.

As a rule, the application of one of these principles is sufficient for the morphemic segmentation of words.

LECTURE 2 WORD-FORMATION

Outline:

1. Main types of forming words:

1.1. Affixation in English: Suffixation and Prefixation.

1.2. Conversion

1.3. Word-composition

2. Minor types of forming words (shortening, blending, acronymy, sound-interchange, sound imitation, reduplication, back-formation, distinctive stress).

1. Main types of forming words.

Word-formation is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.

Two main types of word-formation are **word-derivation** and **word-composition**.

Word-derivation is the formation of new words with the help of affixes, or affixational word-formation. The basic ways of forming words in word-derivation are:

1. **Affixation** is the formation of a new word with the help of affixes, for instance, *pointless* (from *point*), *to overcome* (from *to come*). **An affix** is an addition to the base form or stem of a word in order to modify its meaning or create a new word.

2. **Conversion** is the formation of a new word by bringing a stem of this word into a different formal paradigm, for example, a fall (from to fall), a cut (from to cut).

Word-composition is the formation of a new word by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms, for instance, *door-bell*, *house-keeper*.

1.1. Affixation in English: Suffixation and Prefixation.

Affixation can be defined as formation of new words by means of adding affixes (either suffixes or prefixes or both) to existing stems or roots. Affixation has always been very productive in English, as well as in many other Indo-European languages. Affixation can be further classified into **prefixation** and **suffixation**, according to the type of affix added.

In modern English suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is typical of verb-formation. As a rule, prefixes only modify the lexical meaning of a stem, and changes its part-of-speech meaning, e.g. *care* (v) – *careless* (adj), *suit* (v) – *suitable* (adj), *good* (adj) – *goodness* (n).

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes, which usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a different part of speech. A **suffix** is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different word class (-en, -y, -less in *heart-en*, *heart-y*, *heart-less*).

There are suffixes which do not shift words from one part of speech into another. Such suffixes usually transfer a word into a different semantic group, for example, a concrete noun becomes an abstract one: *child* – *childhood*, *friend* – *friendship*, etc. Suffixes can be classified into different types in accordance with different principles.

According to the lexico-grammatical character of the base suffixes are usually added to, they may be:

1) **deverbal** suffixes (those added to the verbal base), e.g. -er (*speaker*), -ing (*reading*), -ment (*agreement*), -able (*suitable*);

2) **denominal** suffixes (those added to the nominal base), -less (*endless*), -ful (*armful*), -ist (*novelist*), -some (*troublesome*);

3) **deadjectival** suffixes (those added to the adjectival base), e.g. -en (*widen*), -ly (*rapidly*), -ish (*wittish*), -ness (*brightness*).

According to the part-of-speech formed suffixes fall into several groups:

1) **noun-forming suffixes** are: -age (*breakage*, *bondage*), -ance/-ence (*assistance*, *reference*), -er, (*writer*), -ist (*journalist*), -ment (*government*), -ness (*whiteness*, *tenderness*), -ess (*lioness*, *actress*), -ship (*relationship*, *friendship*), -ism (*feminism*), -or (*author*), -dom (*freedom*), -ation (*civilization*), etc.

2) **verb-forming suffixes** are: -ize (*neutralize*), -fy/-ify (*terrify*, *electrify*), -ate (*navigate*), -en (*redden*), -er (*glimmer*), -ish (*establish*) etc,

3) **adjective-forming suffixes** are: -ish (*reddish*), -able/-ible/-uble (*eatable*, *edible*, *soluble*), -less (*fearless*), -ful (*doubtful*), -ic (*poetic*), -ous (*courageous*), -al (*formal*, *official*), -ant/-ent (*repentant*, *dependent*), -ed (*wooded*), -ive (*active*) etc.

4) **adverb-forming suffixes** are: -ly (*quickly*), -wise (*crosswise*), -ward/wards (*southward*, *backwards*).

5) **numeral-forming suffixes**: -fold (*twofold*), -teen (*fourteen*), -th (*seventh*), -ty (*sixty*).

Suffixes can be classified semantically, according to the meaning they express or the meaning they add to the stems of words (the meaning of the derived words).

1) **monosemantic**, e.g. the suffix *-ess* has only one meaning 'female' – *waitress*, *lioness*.

2) **polysemantic**, e.g. the suffix *-hood* has two meanings:

a) condition or quality – *falsehood*, *womanhood*;

b) 'collection or group' – *brotherhood*.

Suffixes can be classified etymologically, i.e. from the point of view of their origin. We could differentiate **native** and **borrowed** suffixes, which in their turn are classified according to the language of their origin. Native suffixes are: *-er*, *-ish*, *-en*, *-ness*, *-ship*, *-hood*, etc.; borrowed suffixes are: *-or*, *-able*, *-ment*, *-tion*, *-ism*, *-ist*, *-if*, etc.

Suffixes can be classified according to their generalizing denotational meaning. For example, noun-suffixes fall into those, denoting:

1) the agent of the action, e.g. *-er* (*baker*), *-ant* (*assistant*);

2) appurtenance, e.g. *-an/-ian* (*Victorian*, *Russian*); *-ese* (*Chinese*);

3) collectivity, e.g. *-dom* (*officialdom*); *-ry* (*peasantry*).

4) diminutiveness, e.g. *-ie* (*birdie*), *-let* (*cloudlet*), *-ling* (*wolfing*).

Suffixes can be classified according to their stylistic reference into **neutral** and **marked** or **having certain stylistic value**, the two main classes being **neutral** and **bookish**. Neutral suffixes *-able* (*agreeable*), *-er* (*writer*), etc. can occur in words of both neutral and bookish character, marked, like *-oid*, *-aceous*, *-tron* are restricted to learned words like *ovoid*, *asteroid*, *cyclotron*.

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes, which are derivational morphemes, affixed before the derivational base. A **prefix** is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its meaning (*understand* – *mis-understand*, *correct* – *in-correct*).

Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the base. They seldom shift words from one part of speech into another, for example, *to rewrite* < *to write*. There are about 25 prefixes, which can modify the part-of-speech meaning of stems – usually changing nouns to verbs or nouns to adjectives: *gulf* (*n*) – *engulf* (*v*), *war* (*n*) – *prewar*, *antiwar* (*adj*), *tank* (*n*) – *anti-tank* (*adj*), *wit* (*n*) – *outwit* (*v*).

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles. According to the lexico-grammatical character of the base prefixes are usually added to, they may be:

a) **deverbal**, e.g. *re-* (*rewrite*), *over-* (*overdo*), *out-* (*outstay*);

b) **denominal**, e.g. *un-* (*unbutton*), *de-* (*detrain*), *ex-* (*expresident*);

c) **deadjectival**, e.g. *un-* (*uneasy*), *bi-* (*biannual*).

According to the class of words they preferably form prefixes are divided into:

a) **verb-forming** prefixes, e.g. *en-/em-* (*embed*, *enclose*), *be-* (*befriend*), *de-* (*dethrone*);

b) **noun-forming** prefixes, e.g. *non-* (*non-smoker*), *sub-* (*subcommittee*), *ex-* (*ex-husband*);

c) **adjective-forming** prefixes, e.g. *un-* (*unfair*), *il-* (*illiterate*), *ir-* (*irregular*);

d) **adverb-forming** prefixes, e.g. *un-* (*unfortunately*), *up-* (*uphill*).

Semantically prefixes are classified according to the meaning they convey to the modified word:

- a) **monosemantic**, e.g. the prefix *ex-* has only one meaning ‘former’ – *ex-boxer*;
- b) **polysemantic**, e.g. the prefix *dis-* has four meanings:
- 1) ‘not’ (*disadvantage*);
 - 2) ‘reversal or absence of an action or state’ (*diseconomy*);
 - 3) ‘removal of’ (*to disbranch*);
 - 4) ‘completeness or intensification of an unpleasant action’ (*disgruntled*).

According to their generalizing denotational meaning prefixes fall into:

- a) prefixes with a **negative meaning**: *un-* (*ungrateful*), *in-* (*incorrect*), *dis-* (*disloyal*), *non-* (*nonpolitical*), *a-* (*amoral*);
- b) **reversative prefixes**: *un₂-* (*untie*), *dis₂-* (*disconnect*), *de-* (*decentralize*);
- c) **pejorative prefixes**: *mis-* (*mispronounce*), *mal-* (*maltreat*), *pseudo-* (*pseudoscientific*);
- d) **prefixes denoting time and order**: *fore-* (*foretell*), *pre-* (*prewar*), *post-* (*post-war*), *ex-* (*ex-president*).
- e) **locative prefixes**: *super-* (*superstructure*), *sub-* (*subway*), *inter-* (*intercontinental*), *trans-* (*transatlantic*);

According to the stylistic reference prefixes fall into:

- a) **neutral**: *over-* (*oversee*), *under-* (*underestimate*), *un-* (*unknown*);
- b) **possessing stylistic value**: *pseudo-* (*pseudo-classical*), *super-* (*superstructure*), *ultra-* (*ultraviolet*), *uni-* (*unilateral*), *bi-* (*bifocal*). These prefixes are of a literary-bookish character.

According to their origin prefixes are classified into **native** (*mis-*, *under-*) and **borrowed** ones. These may be of Latin (*pre-*, *post-*, *re-*), French (*dis-*) and Greek (*anti-*) origin.

The word-forming activity of affixes may change in the course of time. This raises the question of **productivity of derivational affixes**, i.e. the ability of being used to form new, occasional or potential words, which can be readily understood by the language-speakers. Thus, **productive affixes** are those used to form new words in this particular period of language development:

Noun-forming suffixes -er (*manager*), -ing (*playing*), -ness (*darkness*), -ism (*realism*), -ist (*parachutist*), -ation (*automation*), -ancy (*redundancy*), -ry (*gimmickry*), -or (*reactor*), -ics (*cybernetics*).

Adjective-forming suffixes -y (*tweedy*), -ish (*smartish*), -ed (*learned*), -able (*tolerable*), -less (*jobless*), -ic (*electronic*).

Adverb-forming suffixes -ly (*equally*)

Verb-forming suffixes -ize/-ise (*realise*), -ate (*oxidate*), -ify (*qualify*).

Prefixes un- (*unhappy*), re- (*reconstruct*), dis- (*disappoint*)

Non-productive affixes are the affixes which are not able to form new words in this particular period of language development:

Noun-forming suffixes -th (*truth*), -hood (*sisterhood*), -ship (*scholarship*).

Adjective-forming suffixes -ly (*sickly*), -some (*tiresome*), -en (*golden*), -ous (*courageous*), -ful (*careful*)

Verb-forming suffix -en (*strengthen*)

The productivity of an affix should not be confused with its **frequency of occurrence** that is understood as the existence in the vocabulary of a great number of words containing the affix in question. An affix may occur in hundreds of words, but if it is not used to form new words, it is not productive.

1.2. Conversion.

Conversion is one of the principal ways of forming words in Modern English. Conversion consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech. The morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged: *love – to love, paper – to paper, brief – to brief, work – to work*, etc.

Among the main varieties of conversion are:

1. **verbalization** (the formation of verbs): *to ape* (from *ape* (n));
2. **substantivation** (the formation of nouns): *a private* (from *private* adj.);
3. **adjectivation** (the formation of adjectives): *down* (adj) (from *down* (adv));
4. **adverbialization** (the formation of adverbs): *home* (adv) (from *home* (n)).

The new word acquires a meaning, which differs from that of the original one though it can be easily associated with it. The converted word acquires also a new paradigm and a new syntactic function (or functions), which are peculiar to its new category as a part of speech, for example, *a plant – to plant*.

Conversion in English is characterized by semantic patterns – there are some typical relationships between the meaning of the original word and the one, derived by conversion.

Verbs converted from nouns are called **denominal verbs**. If the original word is a noun, the derived verb may imply:

- a typical action associated with it (*a butcher* (n) – *to butcher* (v) – ‘kill animals for food, cut up a killed animal’);
- an instrumental use (*a screw* (n) – *to screw* (v) – ‘fasten with a screw’; *a whip* (n) – *to whip* (v) – ‘strike with a whip’);
- addition or modification to the object (*fish* (n) – *to fish* (v) – ‘catch or try to catch fish’; *a coat* (n) – ‘covering of paint’ – *to coat* (v) – ‘put a coat of paint on’);
- deprivation of the object (*dust* (n) – *to dust* (v) – ‘remove dust from something’; *skin* (n) – *to skin* (v) – ‘strip off the skin from’).

Nouns converted from verbs are called **deverbal substantives**. If the original word is a verb, the derived noun may imply:

- an instance of the corresponding action (*to jump* (v) – *a jump* (n) – ‘sudden spring from the ground’; *to move* (v) – *a move* (n) – ‘a change of position’);
- the agent or doer of the action (*to bore* (v) – *a bore* (n) – ‘a person that bores’; *to cheat* (v) – *a cheat* (n) – ‘a person who cheats’);
- place of the action (*to drive* (v) – *a drive* (n) – ‘a path or road along which one drives’; *to walk* (v) – *a walk* (n) – ‘a place for walking’);
- object or result of the action (*to find* (v) – *a find* (n) – ‘something found’, especially something valuable or pleasant’).

If the original word is polysemantic, conversion may produce several homonyms, as “*to dust*” (to remove dust and spray with dust (in agriculture), while “*a drink*” is both “an instance of drinking” (*he stopped to have a drink of water*) and “an object of

drinking' (*Pepsi and Coke are both soft drinks*). Knowledge of these standard semantic patterns in conversion helps in determining the derivational history of a conversion pair.

1.3. Word-composition.

Compounding or **word-composition** is one of the productive types of word-formation in Modern English. Compounds are made up of two ICs which are both derivational bases. Compounds are inseparable vocabulary units. Structurally compound words are characterized by the specific order and arrangement in which bases follow one another. The order in which the two bases are placed is rigidly fixed.

Compound words have *three stress patterns*. A high or unity stress on the first component as in *honeymoon*. A double stress with a primary stress on the first component and a weaker secondary stress on the second one, e.g.: *washing-machine*, *blood-vessel*. A double stress with the same level on each component, e.g.: *arm-chair*.

Semantically compounds are generally motivated units. The meaning of the compound is first of all derived from the combined lexical meanings of its components. If the stem of the word is polysemantic, its multiple meanings may serve as different derivational bases forming separate sets of compounds, for example the stem *board*. If the base *board* has a meaning 'a flat piece of wood square' it makes compounds *chess-board*, *notice-board*, *key-board*. Compounds *paste-board*, *car-board* are built on the base meaning 'thick, stiff paper'.

The semantic center of the compound is the lexical meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first. The semantic centers refer compounds to certain lexico-semantic groups and semantic sets such as:

- 1) compounds denoting action described as to its agent, e.g.: *sunrise*, *handshake*;
- 2) compounds denoting action described as to its time or place, e.g.: *street-fight*;
- 3) compounds denoting individual objects designed for some goal, e.g.: *birdcage*;
- 4) compounds denoting objects that are parts of the whole, e.g.: *shirt-collar*;
- 5) compounds denoting active doers, e.g.: *book-reader*.

The lexical meanings of both components are closely fused to create a new semantic unit with a new meaning which is not a mere sum of component meanings of the bases but dominates them and is characterized by some additional semantic component not found in any of the bases. For example a *hand-bag* is 'a bag designed to be carried in the hand' but it is also 'a woman's bag to carry money, papers, cosmetics'.

The bulk of compound words is monosemantic and motivated, but motivation like in all derivatives varies in degree. There are compounds that are **completely motivated** like *tea-taster*, *sky-blue*, **partially motivated** such as a *hand-bag*, a *castle-builder*, and those that are **non-motivated**, i.e. the native speaker doesn't see any obvious connection between the word-meaning, the lexical meanings of the bases and the meaning of the pattern, e.g.: *a night-cap* – 'a drink taken before going to bed at night', *eye-wash* – 'something said or done to deceive a person'.

Sometimes motivated and non-motivated meanings of the same word are so far apart that they are felt as homonyms, e.g.: *a nightcap* is 1) a cap worn in bed at night, and 2) a drink before going to bed.

From the point of view of the degree of semantic independence between the ICs of compounds there are two types of relations: **coordination** and **subordination**.

In coordinative compounds the two ICs are semantically equally important as in *girl-friend, oak-tree*. The coordinative compounds are divided into three groups:

a) reduplicative compounds which are made up by the repetition of the same base: *pooh-pooh, fifty-fifty*;

b) compounds formed by joining the phonically varied rhythmic twin forms: *chit-chat, zig-zag* (with the same initial consonants but different vowels), *walkie-talkie, clap-trap* (with different initial consonants but the same vowels);

c) additive compounds which are built on stems of the independently functioning words of the same part of speech: *actor-manager, queen-bee*.

In subordinate compounds the components are neither structurally nor semantically equal and are based on the domination of the head-member which is as a rule the second IC, e.g.: *a baby-sitter, road-building*. Subordinate compounds make the bulk of Modern English compounds because of the productivity.

According to the part of speech compounds represent they fall into:

1) **compound nouns**: *sunbeam, maidservant*;

2) **compound adjectives**: *heart-free, far-reaching*;

3) **compound pronouns**: *somebody, nothing*;

4) **compound adverbs**: *nowhere, inside*;

5) **compound verbs**: *to offset, to bypass, to mass-produce*.

From the diachronic point of view many compound verbs of the present day language are treated not as compound verbs proper but as polymorphic verbs of secondary derivation. They are termed pseudo-compounds and are represented by two groups:

a) verbs formed by means of conversion from the stems of compound nouns: *to spotlight* (from *spotlight*);

b) verbs formed by back-derivation from the stems of compound nouns: *to babysit* (from *baby-sitter*).

However synchronically compound verbs correspond to the definition of a compound as a word consisting of two free stems and functioning in the sentence as a separate lexical unit. Thus, it seems logical to consider such words as compounds by right of their structure.

According to the means of composition compound words are classified into:

1) compounds composed without connecting elements: *toothache, dog-house*;

2) compounds composed with the help of a vowel or a consonant as linking elements: *handicraft, speedometer, statesman*;

3) compounds composed with the help of linking elements represented by preposition or conjunction stems: *daughter-in-law, bread-and-butter*.

According to the type of bases that compounds form the following classes can be singled out:

1) **compounds proper** that are formed by joining together bases built on the stems or on the word-forms with or without a linking element: *door-step, street-fighting*;

2) **derivational compounds** that are formed by joining affixes to the bases built on the word-groups or by converting the bases built on the word-groups into other parts of speech: *long-legged* → (long legs) + *-ed*; *a turnkey* → (to turn key) + conversion.

Thus, derivational compounds fall into two groups:

a) derivational compounds mainly formed with the help of suffixes *-ed* and *-er* applied to bases built, as a rule, on attributive phrases: *narrow-minded*, *doll-faced*, *lefthander*;

b) derivational compounds formed by conversion applied to bases built, as a rule, on three types of phrases – verbal-adverbial phrases (*a breakdown*), verbal-nominal phrases (*a kill-joy*) and attributive phrases (*a sweet-tooth*).

2. Minor types of forming words.

Besides principal, there are some minor types of modern word-formation:

1) **shortening** is the formation of a word by cutting off a part of the word. According to the part of the word that is cut off (initial, middle or final) there are the following types of shortenings: a) initial (or aphaesis): *fend* (v) < *defend*, *phone* < *telephone*; b) medial (orsyncope): *specs* < *spectacles*, *fancy* < *fantasy*; c) final (or apocope): *lab* – *laboratory*, *exam* – *examination*; d) both initial and final: *flu* < *influenza*, *fridge* < *refrigerator*;

2) **blending** is the formation of a new word by combining parts of two words: *smog* – *sm(oke)* and *(f)og*; *telecast* – *tele(vision)* and *(broad)cast*;

3) **acronymy** (or graphical abbreviation) is the formation of a word from the initial letters of a word combination. There are **two basic types of acronyms**:

– acronyms which are read as ordinary English words, for instance, *UNESCO* – [*ju:'nesk□u*] *the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization*;

– acronyms with the alphabetic reading, for example, *BBC* – [*bi:bi:'si:*] *the British Broadcasting Corporation*;

4) **sound-interchange** is the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonetic composition of its root. Sound-interchange falls into two groups:

– vowel-interchange (or ablaut): *full* – *to fill*, *blood* – *to bleed*, *food* – *to feed*. In some cases vowel-interchange is combined with suffixation: *long* – *length*, *strong* – *strength*, *broad* – *breadth*;

– consonant-interchange: *advice* – *to advise*;

– consonant-interchange and vowel-interchange may be combined together: *life* – *to live*;

5) **sound imitation (or onomatopoeia)** is the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with it, e.g.: *cock-a-doodle-do* (*English*) – *кy-кa-пe-кy* (*Ukrainian*). Semantically, according to the source sound, many onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups:

– words denoting sounds produced by human being in the process of communication or expressing their feelings: *babble*;

– words denoting sounds produced by animals, birds, insects: *mew*, *croak*, *buzz*;

– words imitating the sound of water, the noise of metallic things, a forceful motion, movement: *splash*, *clink*, *bang*;

6) **back-formation (reversion)** is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words. The process is based on analogy, for example, the word *to butle* ‘to act or serve as a butler’ is derived by subtraction of *-er* from a supposedly verbal stem in the noun *butler*;

7) **distinctive stress** is the formation of a new word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word, e.g.: 'export (n) – to ex'port; 'import (n) – to im'port; 'conduct (n) – to con'duct; 'present (n) – to pre'sent, etc.

8) **reduplication** is the repetition of the sound-complex comprising the stem either completely or partially, that is, in combination with changes in the root vowel (e.g. dilly-dally, shilly-shally, bibble- babble, chitchat, clitter-clatter).

LECTURE 3. SEMASIOLOGY AS A PART OF LEXICOLOGY

Outline:

1. Semasiology. Approaches to Defining Meaning.
2. Types of Meaning.
3. Aspects of lexical meaning.
4. Word-meaning and motivation. Types of motivation.
5. Semantic change.

1. Semasiology/

The term 'semasiology' was introduced into linguistic studies in 1825 when the classical scholar C. Reisig in his university lecture on Latin philology set up a new division of grammar (semasiology, etymology and syntax). He regarded semasiology as historical discipline that should establish the principles of governing the development of meaning.

In modern linguistics **Semasiology** – is a branch of Lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning. There is no universally accepted definition of meaning.

There are three main approaches to defining meaning:

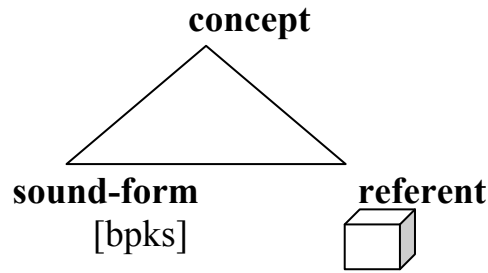
- referential approach;
- functional (contextual) approach;
- operational approach.

The word is the fundamental unit of language it is a two-facet unit as it has a form and its content. Its content or meaning reflects human notions. Concepts fixed in the meaning of words are formed as generalized reflections of reality therefore in signifying them words reflect reality in their content. The acoustic aspect of the word serves to name objects of reality. When a word first comes into existence it is built out according to the existing patterns of the elements available in the language.

The essential characteristic of the referential approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning:

- 1) the **sound-form** of the linguistic sign;
- 2) the **concept** underlying this sound-form;
- 3) the **referent** – the part of aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.

The referential model of meaning is called **basic triangle**:



The **sound-form** of the linguistic sign *box* is connected with our **concept** of the object it denotes and through it with the **referent**, i.e. the actual box existing in reality. The common feature of the referential approach is that the meaning in some way is connected with the referent. The referential approach seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the connection of words and the things or concepts they denote.

Here, we should analyse the place of the **sound-form** in the basic triangle. It is easily observed that the sound form of the word is not identical with its meaning, e.g. [bpks] is the sound-form to denote an object of reality having its specific qualities. The connection of the sound-form and the meaning of the word is conventional and arbitrary. This can be easily proved if we compare the sound-forms of words of different languages having one and the same meaning: зошит (Ukrainian), le cahier (French), das Heft (German), notebook, exercise book (English). If the meaning and the sound-form were equal, the sound-form of words having the same meaning in different languages would be similar or close to being similar.

Although the meaning of the word is closely connected with the underlying concept, it is not identical with it either. The **concept** is a generalized idea of a class of objects, summing up the most essential features of the given class thus distinguishing it from other classes. Being the result of abstraction and generalization all concepts (notions) are almost the same for all the peoples of the world. The meanings of words, however, are different in different languages. That is words expressing identical concepts may have different semantic structures in different languages. Let us compare the linguistic expressions of one and the same concept in different languages, e.g. “a building for human habitation” – *house* (English)/*дім* (Ukrainian); “fixed residence of family or household” – *home* (English)/*дім* (Ukrainian). Thus, concepts expressed by the same word in one language can be expressed by two different words in the other language.

To distinguish meaning from the **referent**, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign, is of the utmost importance. Meaning and referent cannot be equated as meaning is linguistic while the denoted object is beyond the sphere of language. Besides attention should be paid to the fact that a person can denote one and the same object or referent by more than one word of a different meaning. For example, ‘*a house*’ can be denoted by the words ‘*a house, building, this, that, thing*’ etc. Meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent. Thus, meaning is not identical with any of the three angles of the triangle, but is closely connected with them.

Ogden and Richards regard meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle within the framework of the given language, i.e. the interrelation of the sound-form, the concept and the referent, but not as an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Some linguists proceed from the basic assumption of the objectivity of

language and meaning and understand the linguistic sign as a two-facet unit. They consider meaning as a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign – its so-called inner facet whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet.

The functional approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit can be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. It is based on the analysis of various contexts. For instance, the meanings of the words *arrive* and *arrival* are different because these words occupy different positions in relation to other words: *arrive at*, *arrive in*. *Arrival* may be followed by a preposition *arrival of my friend* and preceded by an adjective *early*, *late*, *sudden*, etc.

The position of a word in relation to other words is called **distribution of the word**. As the distribution of these words is different they belong to different classes of words and their meanings are different.

The same is true of different meanings of one and the same word, for example, *take in*, *take off*, *take out*, *take down*, etc. The functions in different linguistic contexts are different. The term **context** is defined as the minimum stretch of speech necessary and sufficient to determine which of the possible meanings of a polysemantic word is used.

It follows that in the functional approach semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of meaning understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. When comparing the two approaches it is seen that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory.

The operational approach or information-oriented is centered on defining meaning through its role in the process of communication. Thus, this approach studies words in action and is more interested in how meaning works than in what it is. The information-oriented approach began to take shape with the growing interest of linguists in the communicative aspect of the language when the object of study was shifted to relations between the language we use and the situations within it is used, thus exploring the capacity of human being to use the language appropriately.

Within the framework of the trend described meaning is defined as information conveyed from the speaker to the listener in the process of communication. This definition is applicable both to words and sentences.

Besides the direct meaning in the sentence *Ann arrived at 5 o'clock*, it may imply additional information that 'Ann was some hours late'; 'Failed to keep her promise'; 'She was punctual as usual', etc. In each case the implication depends on the specific situation of communication. The direct information conveyed by the units constituting the sentence may be referred to as **meaning**, while the information added to the extra-linguistic situation may be called **sense**.

2. Types of meaning.

Word-meaning is made up of various components, which are described as types of meaning: grammatical, lexical and part-of-speech.

The grammatical meaning is defined as an expression of relationship between words in speech. Grammatical meaning is the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. For instance, the tense meaning in the word-forms of the verbs: *went*, *played*, *saw*; the case meaning in the word-forms of

various nouns: *boy's, children's, brother's*; the meaning of plurality in the word-forms of nouns: *toys, books, joys*.

The lexical meaning of the word is the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. The word-forms *go, goes, went, going, gone* possess different grammatical meanings (tense, person, number), but in each form they have the same semantic component denoting 'the process of movement'.

Both the lexical and grammatical meanings cannot exist without each other. The Ukrainian word *відомості* is not semantically identical with the English equivalent *information* because the last word does not possess the grammatical meaning of plurality, which is a part of the semantic structure of the Ukrainian word. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. For example, in the verb *to be* the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails.

The essence of **the part-of-speech meaning** expresses the reference to a certain class of words. Major word-classes are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs; minor word-classes are articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component as lexical one of a part-of-speech meaning. For example, all nouns have the meaning of thingness or substantiality, though they possess different grammatical meanings of number and case.

The grammatical aspect of part-of-speech meaning is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms: number *lamp-lamps*; and case *sister – sister's*.

3. Aspects of lexical meaning/

In the general framework of lexical meaning several aspects can be singled out. They are: the denotational aspect, the connotational aspect and the pragmatic aspect.

The denotational aspect of lexical meaning is the part of lexical meaning which establishes correlation between the name and the object, phenomenon, process or characteristic feature of objective reality (or thought as such), which is denoted by the given word. The term 'denotational' is derived from the English word *to denote* which means 'be a sign of' or 'stand as a name or symbol for'. For instance, the denotational meaning of *booklet* is 'a small thin book that gives information about something'.

It is through the denotational aspect of meaning that the bulk of information is conveyed in the process of communication. The denotational aspect of lexical meaning expresses the notional content of a word. The denotational aspect is the component of the lexical meaning that makes communication possible.

The connotational aspect of lexical meaning is the part of meaning which reflects the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about. Connotation conveys additional information in the process of communication.

Connotation includes:

– **the emotive charge** is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as linguistic units that forms part of the connotational component of meaning, for example, *daddy* as compared to *father*.

– **evaluation**, which may be positive or negative, for instance, *clique* (a small group of people who seem unfriendly to other people) as compared to *group* (a set of people);

– **imagery**, for example, *to wade* – to walk with an effort (through mud, water or anything that makes progress difficult). The figurative use of the word gives rise to

another meaning, which is based on the same image as the first – *to wade through a book*;

– *intensity/expressiveness*, for instance, *to adore* – *to love*.

The pragmatic aspect is the part of lexical meaning that conveys information on the situation of communication. Like the connotational aspect, the pragmatic aspect falls into four closely linked together subsections.

1) **Information on the ‘time and space’ relationship of the participants.** Some information which specifies different parameters of communication may be conveyed not only with the help of grammatical means (tense forms, personal pronouns, etc.), but through the meaning of the word. For example, the words *come* and *go* can indicate the location of the speaker who is usually taken as the zero point in the description of the situation of communication.

The time element when related through the pragmatic aspect of meaning is fixed indirectly. Indirect reference to time implies that the frequency of occurrence of words may change with time and in extreme cases words may be out of use or become obsolete. Thus, the word *behold* – ‘take notice, see (smth. unusual)’ as well as the noun *beholder* – ‘spectator’ are out of use now but were widely used in the 17th century.

2) **Information on the participants and the given language community.** The language used may be indicative of the social status of a person, his education, profession, etc. The pragmatic aspect of the word also may convey information about the social system of the given language community, its ideology, religion, system of norms and customs. Let us consider the following sentences:

a) *They chucked a stone at the cops, and then did a bunk with the loot.*

b) *After casting a stone at the police, they absconded with the money.*

Sentence A could be said by two criminals talking casually about the crime afterwards. Sentence B might be said by the chief inspector in making his official report.

3) **Information on the tenor of discourse.** The tenors of discourse reflect how the addresser (the speaker or the writer) interacts with the addressee (the listener or reader). Tenors are based on social or family role of the participants of communication. There may be situation of a mother talking to her small child, or about her children, or a teacher talking to students, or friends talking to each other.

4) **Information on the register of communication.** The conditions of communication form another important group of factors. The register defines the general type of the situation of communication grading the situations in formality.

Three main types of the situations of communication are usually singled out: **formal**, **neutral** and **informal**. Thus, the pragmatic aspect of meaning refers words like *cordial*, *fraternal*, *anticipate*, *aid* to formal register while units like *cut it out*, *to be kidding*, *stuff*, *hi* are to be used in the informal register.

4. Word-meaning and motivation. Types of motivation.

The process of motivation depends upon the inner form of a word. The **inner form** is central point in the lexical meaning which helps to get an insight into the features chosen as the basis for nomination.

Motivation is used to denote the relationship between the phonetic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other. There are three main types of motivation:

– **phonetical motivation** implies a direct connection between the phonetic structure of the word and its meaning, for example, *cuckoo* denotes a bird whose call is like its name. Thus, there is a certain similarity between the sound-form of the word and the sound the bird produces;

– **morphological motivation** implies a direct connection between the lexical meaning of the component morphemes, the pattern of their arrangement and the meaning of the word. Thus, the main criterion in morphological motivation is the relationship between morphemes, for example, the derived word *to rethink* is motivated through its morphological structure which suggests the idea of ‘thinking again’;

– **semantic motivation** implies a direct connection between the central and marginal meanings of the word, for example, the compound noun *eyewash* has two meanings: 1) a lotion for the eyes (примочка, лосьон для очей); 2) something said or done to deceive a person so that he thinks what he sees is good though in fact it is not (замилювання очей). The first meaning is based on the literal meanings of the components, i.e. the meanings of the morphemes *eye-* and *-wash*. It is a morphological motivation. The second meaning of *eyewash* is metaphoric or figurative. In this case the motivation is semantic, which is based on the coexistence of direct and figurative meanings within the semantic structure of the word.

5. Semantic change.

Words have changed their meanings in the course of their development. This change is called **semantic change**. Every word in its development has undergone many semantic changes. There are distinguished causes of semantic change, nature and results of the process of change of meaning.

The factors accounting for semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into two groups: extra-linguistic and linguistic.

By **extra-linguistic causes** various changes in the life of speech community are meant, i.e. changes in economic and social structure or scientific concepts. For example, changes in the way of life of the British brought about changes in the meaning *hlaford* meant ‘bread-keeper’ and later on ‘master, ruler’.

The word *car*, for example, ultimately goes back to Latin *carrus* which meant ‘a four-wheeled wagon’ (Middle English *carre*). Now *car* denotes ‘a motor-car’, ‘a railway carriage’ (in the USA), ‘that portion of an airship, or balloon which is intended to carry personnel, cargo or equipment’.

Linguistic causes are factors acting within the language system. The commonest form which this influence takes place is called **ellipsis** – the omission of one word in a phrase, for instance, the verb *to starve* in Old English meant ‘to die’ and was habitually used in collocation with the word *hunger*. Later this verb itself acquired the meaning ‘to die of hunger’. Similar semantic changes may be observed in Modern English when the meaning of one word is transferred to another because they habitually occur together in speech.

Another linguistic cause is **discrimination/differentiation of synonyms**, for example, in Old English the word *land* meant both ‘solid of earth’s surface’ and ‘the

territory of a nation'. In the Middle English period the word *country* was borrowed as its synonym. The meaning of the word *land* was altered and 'the territory of a nation' came to be denoted by the borrowed word *country*.

One more linguistic cause of semantic change is called **fixed context**. For example, the word *token* brought into competition with the word *sign* and became restricted in use to a number of set expressions, such as *love token*, *token of respect* and became specialized in meaning.

A necessary condition of any semantic change is some connection, some association between the old meaning and the new one. There are two kinds of association involved in various semantic changes:

- a) similarity of meanings;
- b) contiguity of meanings.

Similarity of meanings or **metaphor** may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other. The word *hand*, for example, acquired in the 16th century the meaning of 'a pointer of a clock or a watch' because of the similarity of one of the functions performed by the hand ('to point to smth.')

and the function of the clock-pointer. Since metaphor is based on the perception of similarities it is only natural that when an analogy is obvious, it should give rise to a metaphoric meaning. This can be observed in the wide currency of metaphoric meanings of words denoting parts of the human body in various languages (cf. 'the leg of the table', 'the foot of the hill', etc.). Sometimes it is similarity of form, outline, etc. that underlies the metaphor.

Contiguity of meanings or **metonymy** may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. This can be illustrated by the use of the word *tongue* – 'the organ of speech' in the meaning of *language* (as in mother tongue). The word *bench* acquired the meaning 'judges' because it was on the bench that judges used to sit in the law court, similarly *the House* required the meaning of 'members of the House' (Parliament).

It is generally held that metaphor plays a more important role in the change of meaning than metonymy.

Results of semantic change generally take place in the changes of the denotational and connotational components of the word.

Results of semantic change can be observed in the **changes of the denotational meaning** of the word, i.e. in **restriction** or **extension** of meaning.

Restriction of meaning can be illustrated by the semantic development of the word *hound* which used to denote 'dog of any breed' but now denotes only 'a dog used in the chase'. If the word with a new restricted meaning comes to be used in the specialized vocabulary of some limited group within the speech community it is usual to speak of **the specialization of meaning**.

For example, we can observe restriction and specialisation of meaning in the case of the verb *to glide* (Old English *glidan*) which had the meaning 'to move gently and smoothly' and has now acquired a restricted and specialised meaning 'to fly with no engine'.

Extension of meaning may be illustrated by the word *target* which originally meant 'a small round shield' but now means 'anything that is fired at'. If the word with

extended meaning passed from the specialized vocabulary into common use, the result of the semantic change is described as **generalization of meaning**.

The word *camp*, for example, which originally was used only as a military term and meant 'the place where troops are lodged in tents' (cf. Latin *campus* — 'exercising ground for the army') extended and generalised its meaning and now denotes 'temporary quarters' (of travellers, nomads, etc.).

Results of semantic change can be also observed in **the alteration of the connotational aspect** of meaning.

Amelioration of meaning implies the improvement of the connotational component of meaning, for example, the word *minister* originally denoted 'a servant' but now — 'a civil servant of higher rank, a person administrating a department of state'.

Deterioration of meaning implies the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge, for instance, the word *boor* was originally to denote 'a peasant' and then acquired a derogatory connotational meaning and came to denote 'a clumsy or ill-bred fellow'.

It is of interest to note that in derivational clusters a change in the connotational meaning of one member does not necessarily affect the others. This peculiarity can be observed in the words *accident* and *accidental*. The lexical meaning of the noun *accident* has undergone pejorative development and denotes not only 'something that happens by chance', but usually 'something unfortunate'. The derived adjective *accidental* does not possess in its semantic structure this negative connotational meaning (cf. also *fortune*: *bad fortune*, *good fortune* and *fortunate*).

LECTURE 4. POLYSEMY AND HOMONYMY

Outline:

1. Polysemy.
2. Diachronic vs Synchronic Approach to Polysemy.
3. Semantic Structure of a Polysemantic Word.
4. Polysemy and Context. Types of Context.
5. Homonymy.
6. Classifications of Homonyms.
7. Polysemy and Homonymy.

1. Polysemy.

Polysemy is the ability of a word to possess several meanings or lexico-semantic variants (LSV), for instance, *bright* means 'shining' and 'intelligent'. It is a phenomenon, which has an exceptional importance for the description of a language system and for the solution of practical tasks connected with an adequate understanding of the meaning of a word and its use.

A word having only one meaning is called **monosemantic**, for example, *hydrogen*, *molecule*. Such words are few in number.

A word having several meanings is called **polysemantic**. Such words are the bulk of the English vocabulary.

The problem of polysemy was greatly developed by Academician V.V. Vinogradov, who differentiated the meaning from the usage (a contextual variant). **Meanings** are fixed and common to all people, who know the language system. The **usage** is only possible application of one of the meanings of a polysemantic word, sometimes very individual, more or less familiar. Meaning is not identical with usage.

Polysemy exists only in language, not in speech. Polysemy belongs to paradigmatic description. The meaning of the word in speech is contextual. Polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of a language because in every particular case the situation or context, i.e. environment of the word, cancels all unnecessary meanings and makes speech unambiguous.

Professor A.I. Smirnitsky claimed that all the meanings of the word form identity supported by the form of the word. His term 'a lexico-semantic variant' (LSV) is a two-facet unit. The formal facet of it is a sound-form of a word, while the content facet is one of the meanings of a given word, i.e. the designation of a certain class of objects. Words with one meaning are represented in the language system by one LSV, polysemantic words – by a number of LSVs. All LSVs of a word form a homogeneous semantic structure ensuring semantic unity of the given word. They are united together by a certain meaning – **the semantic centre of the word**, i.e. the part of meaning which remains constant in all the LSVs of the word.

2. Diachronic vs synchronic approach to polysemy.

If polysemy is viewed diachronically it is understood as the growth and development or as a change in semantic structure of the word. Polysemy in diachronic term implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones.

According to this approach in the semantic structure of a word two types of meaning can be singled out: **the primary meaning** and **the secondary meaning**.

In the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemantic word *table* we find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary meaning is 'a flat slab of stone or wood', which is proper to the word in the Old English period (OE. *tabule* from L. *tabula*); all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later.

The main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word. Semantic changes result as a rule in new meanings being added to the ones already existing in the semantic structure of the word. Some of the old meanings may become obsolete or even disappear, but the bulk of English words tend to an increase in number of meanings.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language. In the course of a synchronic semantic analysis of the word *table* all its meanings represent the semantic structure of it. The central (basic) place in the semantic structure occupies the meaning 'a piece of furniture'. This emerges as the **central (basic) meaning** of the word, and all other meanings are **marginal (minor) meanings**.

The central meaning occurs in various and widely different contexts, marginal meanings are observed only in certain contexts. There is a tendency in modern linguistics to interpret the concept of the central meaning in terms of the frequency of occurrence of

this meaning. The word *table* in the meaning of ‘a piece of furniture’ possesses the highest frequency of value and makes up the highest percent of all uses of this word.

3. Semantic structure of a polysemantic word.

The semantic structure is never static, the relationship between the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of individual meanings may be different in different periods of the historical development of language. The primary meaning of the word may become synchronically one of its marginal meanings and diachronically a secondary meaning may become the central meaning of the word.

For example, originally the word *evidence* first appeared in Middle English in the 13th century and denoted ‘significant appearance, token’. In the Middle English this meaning was both primary (diachronically) and central (synchronically). Later on, the word acquired other meanings and among them ‘information tending to establish fact’.

In Modern English, while we still can diachronically describe the meaning ‘significant appearance, token’ as primary it is no longer synchronically central as the arrangement of meanings in the semantic structure of the word *evidence* has changed and its central and the most frequent meaning is ‘information tending to establish fact’.

The actual arrangement of meanings in the semantic structure of any word in any historical period is the result of the semantic development of this word within the system of the given language.

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 process of polysemy development involves both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. When analyzing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis.

On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings. For example, the semantic structure of the noun *dull* is as follows:

***Dull*, adj.**

1. Uninteresting, monotonous, boring: *a dull book, a dull film.*
2. Slow in understanding, stupid: *a dull student.*
3. Not clear or bright: *dull weather, a dull day, a dull colour.*
4. Not loud or distinct: *a dull sound.*
5. Not sharp: *a dull knife.*
6. Not active: *Trade is dull.*
7. Seeing badly: *dull eyes* (arch.).
8. Hearing badly: *dull ears* (arch.).

In the following list of meanings of the adjective *dull* one can hardly hope to find a generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

However, one distinctly feels that there is something that all these seemingly miscellaneous meanings have in common, and that is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (3), wits (2), interest (1), sharpness (5), etc. The implication of insufficient quality can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning.

In fact, each meaning definition in the given scheme can be subjected to a transformational operation to prove the point.

Dull, adj.

1. Uninteresting → deficient in interest or excitement.
2. Stupid → deficient in intellect.
3. Not bright → deficient in light or colour.
4. Not loud → deficient in sound.
5. Not sharp → deficient in sharpness.
6. Not active → deficient in activity.
7. Seeing badly → deficient in eyesight.
8. Hearing badly → deficient in hearing.

The transformed scheme of the semantic structure of *dull* clearly shows that the centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain component that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning.

This brings to the second level of analysis of the semantic structure of a word. The transformational operation with the meaning definitions of *dull* reveals something very significant: the semantic structure of the word is 'divisible, as it were, not only at the level of different meanings, but also at a deeper level.

Each separate meaning seems to be subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components. The scheme of the semantic structure of *dull* shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, for each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own.

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels: a) of different meanings; b) of semantic components within each separate meaning. For a monosemantic word the first level is naturally excluded.

4. Polysemy and context. Types of context.

Context is the minimum stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. Context can be linguistic (verbal) or extra-linguistic (non-verbal). Linguistic context can be subdivided into lexical and grammatical.

In **the lexical context** of primary importance are the groups of lexical items combined with the polysemantic word under consideration. For example, the adjective *heavy* used with the words *load, table* means 'of great weight'. When combined with the words denoting natural phenomena such as *rain, storm, snow* the adjective *heavy* is understood as denoting 'abundant, striking, falling with force'. If used with the words *industry, artillery, arms* and the like, *heavy* has the meaning 'the larger kind of something'.

Thus, the main factor in bringing out the individual meanings of the adjective *heavy* is the lexical meaning of the words with which this adjective is combined. The meanings of *heavy* may be analyzed through its collocability with the words *weight, suitcase, table; snow, wind; industry, artillery* which is sometimes described as meaning by collocation.

In **grammatical context** it is the grammatical (syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word.

The meaning of the verb *to make* – 'to force, to induce' is found only in the grammatical context possessing the syntactic structure 'to make+pronoun+verb (*to make smb laugh, work, dance, etc.*). Another meaning of this verb – 'to become' is

observed in the context of a different syntactic structure – to make+adj+noun (*to make a good wife, good teacher, etc.*). Such meanings are sometimes described as grammatically bound meanings.

There are cases when the meaning of a word is ultimately determined by the actual speech situation in which the word is used, i.e. by **the extra-linguistic context** (or **context of situation**). In the sentence *John was looking for the glasses*, the meaning of word *glasses* has two readings. This is ambiguous because it might refer to ‘spectacles’ or to ‘drinking vessels’. **Lexical ambiguity** is a situation in which a single form has two or more meanings. Thus, it is possible to state the meaning of the word *glasses* only through the extended context or situation.

5. Homonymy.

Homonymy is recognized as a language universal. It creates lexical ambiguity in that a single form has two or more meanings.

Homonyms are the words of one and the same language which are identical phonetically or graphically in all or several grammar forms (and in all or several phonetic and graphic variants) but which have essential difference in lexical or grammatical meanings.

Modern English is exceptionally rich in homonymous words and word-forms. It is sometimes suggested that abundance of homonyms in Modern English is to be accounted for by the monosyllabic structure of the commonly used English words.

Let us consider the following sentences:

A penny is one cent.

Do not steal.

The soap has a nice scent.

The bridge is made of steel.

She sent me a letter.

Homonymy is the result of various processes which take place in a language.

In English quite a number of homonyms have been created through the break of polysemy: **semantic divergence (split polysemy)**, for example, the history of form words such as prepositions, conjunctions (*for, owing, provided*) proves that. **Diverging meaning development** is the process when different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other that they come to be regarded as two separate units.

The creation of homonyms was due to a great number of **loan words which were adapted** to the English standards in their pronunciation and spelling, for example, *fair* (a market) was borrowed from Latin ‘*faria*’, and *fair* (light colour, not dark) was developed from Old English ‘*fæger*’ “pleasing to the sight (of persons and body features, also of objects, places, etc.); beautiful, handsome, attractive”.

Homonyms can be created by **shortening of words**, for example, *flu*, short for *influenza* is homonymous to *flew*, past tense of the verb ‘to fly’.

Homonyms may be formed through the changes in the meanings of words. Different meanings of one and the same word may lose their semantic connection and may form different words which coincide in their phonetic form (phonetic convergence) but have nothing in common in their meanings, for example, *flower – flour, sea – see*. **Convergent sound development** – the coincidence of two or more words which were phonetically distinct at an earlier date.

Homonyms can also be formed by means of **conversion**: *I need some good paper for my rooms* and *He is papering his room*.

6. Classifications of homonyms.

There exist several classification of homonyms. Some words are homonymous in all their forms. **Full homonyms** are identical in sound in all their forms of paradigms of two or more different words, for example, in *seal*₁ – ‘a sea animal’ and *seal*₂ – ‘a design printed on paper by means of a stamp’. The paradigm ‘seal, seal’s, seals, seals’ is identical for both of them and gives no indication of whether it is *seal*₁ or *seal*₂.

<i>seal</i> ₁	<i>seal</i> ₂
<i>seals</i>	<i>seals</i>
<i>seal’s</i>	<i>seal’s</i>
<i>seals’</i>	<i>seals’</i>

In other cases, for example, *seal*₁ – ‘a sea animal’ and (*to*) *seal*₃, – ‘to close tightly’ we see that although some individual word-forms are homonymous, the whole of the paradigm is not identical. Compare the paradigms:

<i>seal</i> ₁	(<i>to</i>) <i>seal</i> ₃
<i>seal</i>	<i>seal</i>
<i>seal’s</i>	<i>seals</i>
<i>seals</i>	<i>sealed</i>
<i>seals’</i>	<i>sealing, etc.</i>

Only some of the word-forms (e.g. *seal, seals, etc.*) are homonymous, whereas others (e.g. *sealed, sealing*) are not. In such cases we speak only of homonymy of individual word-forms or of **partial homonymy**.

This is true of a number of other cases, for example, compare *find, found, found*, and *found, founded, founded*; *know* and *no*; *knows* and *nose*, *knew* and *new* in which partial homonymy is observed.

Homonyms may be also classified by the type of meaning into lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical homonyms (prof. A.I. Smirnistky).

1) **Lexical homonyms** have no link between their lexical meanings, for example, *fair* (ярмарок) – *fare* (плата за проїзд); *ear* (вухо) – *ear* (колос); *ball* (м’яч) – *ball* (бал). Lexical homonyms differ in lexical meaning.

2) **Grammatical homonyms** belong to different parts of speech, for example, *milk* – *to milk*; *practice* – *to practise*. Modern English abounds in homonymic word-forms differing in grammatical meaning only. In the paradigms of the majority of verbs the form of the Past Tense is homonymous with the form of Participle II, for instance, *asked* – *asked*. In the paradigm of nouns we usually find homonymous forms of the Possessive Case Singular and the Common Case Plural, for instance, *brother’s* – *brothers*. **Grammatical homonymy** is the homonymy of different word-forms of one and the same word.

3) **Lexico-grammatical homonyms** have no link between their lexical meaning and they belong to different parts of speech, for instance, *tear* (n) – *tear* (v), *bear* (n) – *bare* (adj). There may be cases however when lexico-grammatical homonymy is observed within the same part of speech, for example, in the verbs *to find* and *to found*, where the homonymic word-forms *found* – Past Tense of *to find* and *found* – Present Tense of *to found* differ both grammatically and lexically.

W.W. Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound form and pointed out three types of homonyms in English.

1) **Homonyms proper (perfect homonyms)** are words identical in their sound-form and spelling but different in meaning, e.g.: *club* (n) (an association of persons meeting periodically) – *club* (n) (a heavy staff for use as a weapon); *bank* (n) (a financial institution) – *bank* (n) (a raised area of land along the side of a river); *light* (adj) (not heavy) – *light* (n) (illumination).

2) **Homophones** are words with the same sound-form but different spellings and different meanings, e.g.: *piece* (n) (part separated from smth.) – *peace* (n) (a situation in which there is no war between countries); *knight* (n) (in the past, a European soldier from a high class) – *night* (n) (the part of each 24-hour period when it is dark).

3) **Homographs** are words different in sound-form and in meaning but identical in spelling, e.g.: *bow* (n) [bou] (a weapon for shooting arrows) – *bow* (n) [bau] (a forward movement of the body or head to show respect); *lead* (v) [li:d] (to conduct) – *lead* (n) [led] (a soft heavy grey metal).

In this classification of homonyms the three aspects: sound-form, graphic form and meaning are taken into account.

The criterion of distribution (the position of a word in relation to other words) is undoubtedly helpful, but mainly in cases of lexico-grammatical and grammatical homonymy. For example, in the homonymic pair *paper* (n) – *to paper* (v) the noun may be preceded by the article and followed by a verb, while *to paper* can never be found in identical distribution. This formal criterion can be used to discriminate not only lexico-grammatical but also grammatical homonyms, but it often fails in cases of lexical homonymy, not differentiated by means of spelling. Thus, the context serves to differentiate meanings but is of little help in distinguishing between homonymy and polysemy.

7. Polysemy and homonymy.

The demarcation line between homonymy and polysemy is one of the most debatable problems. With polysemy a single word has several connotations while with homonymy different words coincide in form. In case of homonymy different meanings of words are mutually independent. There is no connection between such words as *write* and *right*, *night* and *knight*, *sea* and *see*.

When a word is polysemantic, it has a variety of synonyms each corresponding to one of its meanings; it often has a set of antonyms. Homonymy as well as polysemy creates lexical ambiguity in that a single form has two or more meanings. Let us consider the following joke:

- *Waiter, what's this?*
- *It's **bean** soup.*
- *I can see that. But what is it now?*

Bean (n) and *been* (Past Participle) of *to be* are homophones. As the example shows, they are the same in sound but different in spelling.

LECTURE 5. PHRASEOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Outline:

1. **Phraseology. Free word-groups vs Phraseological units.**
2. **Classifications of Phraseological Units.**
3. **Semantic Structure of Phraseological Units.**
4. **Types of Transference of Phraseological Units.**

1. **Phraseology. Free word-groups vs phraseological units.**

Phraseology is a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions, which like words name various objects and phenomena. They exist in the language as ready-made units.

Phraseological units can be defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech, but are reproduced as ready-made units. It is a group of words whose meaning cannot be deduced by examining the meaning of the constituent lexemes. The essential features of phraseological units are: 1) lack of motivation; 2) stability of the lexical components.

In modern linguistics, there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian scholars use the term “**phraseological unit**” which was first introduced by Academician V.V. Vinogradov. The term “idiom” widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into native phraseology. The term “idiom”, both in this country and abroad, is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings, that is to ones in which the meaning of the whole unit does not correspond to the current meanings of the components. There are many scholars who regard idioms as the essence of phraseology and the major focus of interest in phraseology research.

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

There are differences between word-groups and phraseological units. Free word-groups are formed in the process of speech according to the standards of the language, while phraseological units exist in the language side by side with separate words. Phraseological units are reproduced in speech as ready-made units whereas free word-groups are constructed in the process of communication by joining together words into a phrase. The difference often is in the interrelation of lexical components, for example: *a blue ribbon* (or *red, brown, etc.*), but *blue ribbon* – an honour given to the winner of the first prize in a competition – no substitution is possible in a phraseological unit; *to stretch one's legs* (to go for a short walk, typically after sitting in one place for some time), *to see eye to eye* (to agree entirely), *under one's hand* (authenticated by the handwriting or signature of; as, the deed is executed under the hand and seal of the owner), *to stew in one's own juice* (to think about or suffer the results of your own actions, without anyone giving you any help).

In free word-groups each of its constituents preserves its denotational meaning. In the case of phraseological units however the denotational meaning belongs to the word-group as a single semantically inseparable unit. For example, compare a free word-group *a*

white elephant and a phraseological unit *white elephant* (a possession that is useless or troublesome, especially one that is expensive to maintain or difficult to dispose of).

Phraseological units possess a greater structural unity than free word-groups. Components of a free word-group may have any of the forms of their paradigm. The components of a phraseological unit very often have just one form of all the forms of their paradigm. The distinctive features of free word-groups and phraseological units see in Table 1.

Table 1. The distinctive features of free word-groups and phraseological units

Free word-groups	Phraseological units
1. are formed in the process of speech according to the standards of the language;	1. exist in the language side-by-side with separate words;
2. are constructed in the process of communication by joining together words into a phrase;	2. are reproduced in speech;
3. substitution is possible;	3. no substitution is possible;
4. each of its components preserves its denotational meaning;	4. the denotational meaning belongs to the word group as a single semantically inseparable unit;
5. less structural unity;	5. greater structural unity;
6. components may have any of the forms of their paradigm.	6. often have just one form of all the forms of their paradigm.

It is important to note that free word-groups are relatively free. There exist certain logical and linguistic factors that limit the combinative power of lexemes. Free word-groups may possess some of the features characteristic of phraseological units. On the other hand, phraseological units are heterogeneous. Alongside absolutely unchangeable phraseological units, there are expressions that allow some degree of substitution. Phraseology is concerned with all types of set expressions including those that stand for certain sentences.

3. Classifications of phraseological units.

There are different classifications of phraseological units: semantic, structural, structural-semantic, syntactical (functional).

3.1. Semantic classification of phraseological units.

This classification is based on the semantic principle. It goes without saying that semantic characteristics are of immense importance in phraseological units. Vinogradov's classification system is founded on the degree of semantic cohesion between the components of a phraseological unit. Units with a partially transferred meaning show the weakest cohesion between their components. The more distant the meaning of a phraseological unit from the current meaning of its constituent parts, the greater is the degree of semantic cohesion.

According to the degree of idiomatic meaning of various groups of phraseological units, academician V.V. Vinogradov classified them as follows:

- 1) **phraseological fusions** are units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts. The meaning of phraseological fusions is unmotivated at the present stage of language development, for example, *red tape*, *a mare's nest*, *My aunt!*. The meaning of the components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole;
- 2) **phasological unities** are expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components; the meaning of the whole is based on the transferred meanings of the components, for instance, *to show one's teeth* (to be unfriendly), *to stand to one's guns* (to refuse to change one's opinion), etc. They are motivated expressions.
- 3) **phraseological collocations** are not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically, for example, *to meet requirements*, *to attain success*. In this group of phraseological units some substitutions are possible which do not destroy the meaning of the metaphoric element, for instance, *to meet the needs*, *to meet the demand*, *to meet the necessity*; *to have success*, *to lose success*. These substitutions are not synonymic and the meaning of the whole changes, while the meaning of the verb *meet* and the noun *success* are kept intact.

The components of phraseological units can have different **levels of component interdependance** (according to Prof. A. Koonin):

1. Phraseological units with interdependable components that cannot be substituted by any others, i.e. constant components that need each other to express a certain meaning (**constant component interdependance**), e.g. *birds of a feather*, *green room*, *kick the bucket*, *the proof of the pudding is in the eating*, etc.

2. Collocations that have variants or structural synonyms but that do not allow any free elements in their structure (**constant-variable interdependance**), e.g. *not to lift (raise, stir, turn) a finger*, *strait as a poker (as a ramrod)*.

3. Collocations that have variants or structural synonyms and at the same time allow free elements in their structure (**constant variable-free interdependance**), e.g. *give somebody a bit (a piece) of one's mind*, *close (shut) one's eyes to something*, *lay (put) somebody on the shelf*.

4. Collocations that allow free elements but that do not have variants or structural synonyms (**constant interdependance with free elements**), e.g. *give somebody a run for his money*, *take one's time*, etc.

The principle of structural-semantic patterns doesn't work for phraseological units, which means that unlike free collocations phraseologisms can't be built by means of combining different words within a certain pattern.

3.2. Structural classification of phraseological units.

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky classified phraseological units as highly idiomatic set expressions functioning as word equivalents, and characterized by their semantic and grammatical unity. He suggested three classes of stereotyped phrases:

- 1) traditional phrases: *nice distinction*, *rough sketch*;
- 2) phraseological combinations: *to fall in love*, *to get up*;
- 3) idioms: *to wash one's dirty linen in public*;

But only the second group (phraseological combinations) was given a detailed analysis. According to the structure phraseological combinations fall into two groups:

1. **one-top phraseological units**, which were compared with derived words:

1.1. verb-adverb phraseological units of the type to give up: *to bring up, to try out, to look up, to drop in, to come up, etc.*

1.2. phraseological units of the type to be tired: *to be surprised, to be up to, etc.*

1.3. prepositional substantative units: *by heart*.

2. **two-top phraseological units**, which were compared with compound words:

2.1. attributive-nominal: *brains trust, white elephant, blind alley*. Units of this type function as nouns equivalents;

2.2. verb-nominal phrases: *to know the ropes, to take place, etc.*

2.3. phraseological repetitions: *ups and downs, rough and ready, flat as a pancake*, function as adverbs or adjectives equivalents;

2.4. adverbial multi-top units: *every other day*.

3.3. Structural-semantic classification of phraseological units.

According to Prof. A.V. Koonin a phraseological unit is a stable word-group with wholly or partially transferred meaning. Prof. A.V. Koonin develops the theory of stability which consists of the following aspects:

- 1) **stability of usage**, i.e. phraseological units are reproduced ready-made, not created in speech;
- 2) **lexical stability**, i.e. the components of phraseological units are either irreplaceable or partially replaceable within the bounds of phraseological variance:
 - a) lexical, for example, *a skeleton in the cupboard / closet, a blind pig / tiger*;
 - b) grammatical, for example, *to be in deep water / waters, a stony heart – a heart of stone*;
 - c) positional, for example, *a square peg in a round hole – a round peg in a square hole, to dot the i's and cross the t's – to cross one's t's and dot one's i's*;
 - d) quantitative, for example, *Tom, Dick and Harry – every Tom, Dick and Harry*;
 - e) mixed variants, for example, *raise/stir up the nest of hornets' nest about one's ears – to arouse/stir up the nest of hornets*.
- 3) **semantic stability** is based on lexical stability of phraseological units. In spite of occasional changes the meaning of a phraseological unit is preserved. It may only be specified, made more precise, weakened or strengthened.
- 4) **syntactic stability**, i.e. the stability of the word-order within the phraseological unit, where the change is possible only within the limits of variability, structural synonymy or occasional deformation.

According to prof. A.V. Koonin any set expression that lacks one of these aspects of stability cannot be regarded as a phraseological unit.

Thus, the characteristic features of phraseological units are: ready-made reproduction, structural divisibility, morphological stability, permanence of lexical composition, semantic unity, syntactic fixity.

3.4. Structural and syntactical classification of phraseological units.

Structural and syntactical classification of phraseological units was suggested by Prof. I.V. Arnold. Phraseological units may be classified in accordance with their

structure and their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as parts of speech. The classification based on the structural principles distinguishes phraseological units into following classes:

1) **noun** phraseological units denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g.: *cat's paw, ladies' man, the arm of the law; skeleton in the cupboard, green room;*

2) **verb** phraseological units denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g.: *take advantage, pick and choose, snap ones fingers at, give one the bird, see how the land lies;*

3) **adjective** phraseological units denoting a quality, e.g. *high and mighty, as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter;*

4) **adverb** phraseological units, such as: *tooth and nail, by heart, of course, against the grain, once in a blue moon, by hook or by crook, before one can say Jack Robinson;*

5) **preposition** phraseological units, e.g.: *in the course of, on the stroke of, in consequence of, by reason of, on the ground of;*

6) **interjection** phraseological units, e.g. *Catch me!, Well, I never!, Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)!* These are often structured as imperative sentences.

There is one more type of combinations, also rigid and introduced into discourse ready-made but differing from all the types given above in so far as it is impossible to find its equivalent among the parts of speech. These are formulas used as complete utterances and syntactically shaped like sentences, such as *How do you do? or I beg your pardon, It takes all kinds to make the world, Can the leopard change his spots?*

4. Semantic structure of phraseological units.

The semantic structure of phraseological units by prof. V.N. Teliya is formed by semantic ultimate constituents called macrocomponents of meaning. There are the following principal macrocomponents in the semantic structure of phraseological units:

1. **Denotational (descriptive) macrocomponent** contains the information about the objective reality, it is the procedure connected with categorization, i.e. the classification of phenomena of the reality, based on the typical idea about what is denoted by a phraseological unit (about denotatum).

2. **Evaluational macrocomponent** contains the information about the value of what is denoted by a phraseological unit, i.e. what value the speaker sees in this or that object/phenomenon of reality – the denotatum. The rational evaluation may be:

a) positive: *a home from home* – ‘a place or situation where one feels completely happy and at ease’;

b) negative: *the lion's den* – ‘a place of great danger’;

c) neutral: *in the flesh* – ‘in bodily form’.

3. **Motivational macrocomponent** correlates with the notion of the inner form of phraseological unit. The notion ‘motivation of a phraseological unit’ can be defined as the aptness of ‘the literal reading’ of a unit to be associated with the denotational and evaluational aspects of meaning. For example, the literal reading of the phraseological unit *to have broad shoulders* is physical strength of a person. The idea is indicative of a person's strength becomes the base for transference and forms the meaning of ‘being able to bear the full weight of one's responsibilities’.

4. **Emotive macrocomponent** is the contents of subjective modality expressing feeling-relation to what is denoted by a phraseological unit within the range of approval / disapproval, for example, *a leading light in something* – ‘a person who is important in a particular group’ (spoken with approval), *to lead a cat and dog life* – ‘used to describe a husband and wife who quarrel furiously with each other most of the time’ (spoken with disapproval).

5. **Stylistic macrocomponent** points to the communicative register in which a phraseological unit is used and to the social-role relationships between the participants of communication:

- a) formal: *sick at heart* – ‘very sad’;
- b) informal: *be sick to death* – ‘to be angry and bored because something unpleasant has been happening for too long’;
- c) neutral: *pass by on the other side* – ‘to ignore a person who needs help’.

6. **Grammatical macrocomponent** contains the information about all possible morphological and syntactic changes of a phraseological unit, for instance, *to be in deep water* = *to be in deep waters*; *to take away smb’s breath* = *to take smb’s breath away*; *Achilles’s heel* = *the heel of Achilles*.

7. **Gender macrocomponent** may be expressed explicitly, i.e. determined by the structure and/or semantics of a phraseological unit, and in that case it points out to the class of objects denoted by the phraseological unit: men, women, people (both men and women). For instance, compare the phraseological units *every Tom, Dick and Harry* meaning ‘every or any man’ and *every Tom, Dick and Sheila* which denotes ‘every or any man and woman’.

Gender macrocomponent may be expressed implicitly and then it denotes the initial (or historical) reference of a phraseological unit, for example, *to wash one’s dirty linen in public* – ‘discuss or argue about one’s personal affairs in public’. The implicit presence of the gender macrocomponent in this phraseological unit is conditioned by the idea about traditional women’s work (cf. with Russian: *выносить сор из избы*). The implicit gender macrocomponent is defined within the range of three conceptual spheres: masculine, feminine, intergender. Compare, for instance, the implicitly expressed intergender macrocomponent in *to feel like royalty* meaning ‘to feel like a member of the Royal Family, to feel majestic’ and its counterparts, i.e. phraseological units with explicitly expressed gender macrocomponent, *to feel like a queen* and *to feel like a king*.

5. Types of transference of phraseological units.

Phraseological transference is a complete or partial change of meaning of an initial (source) word-combination (a sentence) as a result of which the word-combination (the sentence) acquires a new meaning and turns into a phraseological unit.

1. Transference based on *simile*, i.e. an explicit comparison between two things by the use of *like* and *as*, is the intensification of some features of an object (phenomenon, thing) denoted by a phraseological unit by means of bringing it into contact with another object (phenomenon, thing) belonging to an entirely different class. Compare: *(as) pretty as a picture* – прелестный как картинка, *(as) fat as a pig* – жирный как свинья, *to fight like a lion* – сражаться как лев, *to swim like a fish* – плавать как рыба.

2. Transference based on *metaphor* is a likening (уподобление) of the object (phenomenon, action) of reality to another, which is associated with it on the basis of real or imaginable resemblance. For example, in the phraseological unit *to bend somebody to one's bow* meaning 'to submit someone' transference is based on metaphor, i.e. on the likening of a subordinated, submitted person to a thing (bow) a good command of which allows its owner to do with it everything he wants to.

Metaphors can bear a hyperbolic character: *flog a dead horse* – стегать дохлую лошадь. Metaphors may also have a euphemistic character which serves to soften unpleasant facts: *go to one's long rest, join the majority* – 'to die'.

3. Transference based on *metonymy* is a transfer of name from one object (phenomenon, thing, action, process, etc.) to another based on the contiguity of their properties, relations, etc. The transfer of name is conditioned by close ties between the two objects, for example, the metonymical transference in the phraseological unit *a silk stocking* meaning 'a rich, well-dressed man' is based on the replacement of the genuine object (a man) by the article of clothing which was very fashionable and popular among men in the past.

4. Transference based on *synecdoche* (a variety of metonymy) is naming the whole by its part, the replacement of the common by the private, of the plural by the singular and vice versa. For instance, the components *flesh* and *blood* in the phraseological unit *in the flesh and blood* meaning 'in a material form' as the integral parts of the real existence replace a person himself or any living being. Synecdoche is usually used in combination with other types of transference, for example, metaphor: *to hold one's tongue* – 'to say nothing, to be discreet'.

6. Proverbs.

A **proverb** (from the Latin *proverbium*) is a simple and concrete saying popularly known and repeated, which expresses a truth, based on common sense or the practical experience of humanity. Proverbs are considered to be a separate type of phraseologisms.

The first distinctive feature that strikes one is **the structural dissimilarity**. Phraseological units are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function, more or less as words do. Proverbs, if viewed in their structural aspect, are sentences, and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used.

If one compares proverbs and phraseological units in the **semantic aspect**, the difference seems to become more obvious. Proverbs could be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralize (*Hell is paved with good intentions*), give advice (*Don't judge a tree by its bark.*), admonish (*Liars should have good memories*).

No phraseological unit ever does any of these things. They do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely **nominative** (i.e. they denote an object, an act, etc.). The function of proverbs in speech is **communicative** (i.e. they impart certain information).

The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units and studied together with the phraseology of a language is a controversial one.

A.V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them **communicative phraseological units**. From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a phraseological unit is its stability.

The effectiveness of a proverb lies largely in its brevity and directness. The syntax is simple, the images vivid, and the allusions domestic, and thus easy to understand. Memorability is aided through the use of alliteration, rhythm, and rhyme.

Subgenres include proverbial comparisons (*as busy as a bee*), proverbial interrogatives (*Does a chicken have lips?*) and twin formulae (*give and take*). A similar form is proverbial expressions (*to bite the dust*). The difference is that proverbs are unchangeable sentences, while proverbial expressions permit alterations to fit the grammar of the context. Another close construction is an allusion to a proverb, such as '*The new broom will sweep clean*'.

Typical stylistic features of proverbs are:

- alliteration (*forgive and forget*)
- parallelism (*nothing ventured, nothing gained*)
- rhyme (*when the cat is away, the mice will play*)
- ellipsis (*once bitten, twice shy*)
- hyperbole (*all is fair in love and war*)
- paradox (*for there to be peace there must first be war*)
- personification (*hunger is the best cook*)

LECTURE 6. ETYMOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH WORDS

Outline:

1. **Etymology. Native and Borrowed Words.**
2. **Words of Native Origin.**
3. **Borrowed Words.**
4. **International Words.**
5. **Etymological Doublets and Triplets.**
6. **The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary.**
7. **Assimilation of Borrowings.**

1. Etymology. Native and borrowed words.

The vocabulary of the English language represents a very complicated system. The study of its etymological peculiarities is both difficult and interesting. It may open opportunities of studying the nature of contacts between the English people and other nations and throw a light on the gradual development of the language.

As it has previously been stated, the study of linguistic elements as they appear at a given period, without regard to their historical background, is said to be **synchronic**. On the other hand a study which concerns itself with these elements as they have developed over the course of centuries is called diachronic. The **diachronic** study of words and the morphemes that enter into them, setting aside inflexional endings, is known as **etymology**. Where sufficient written records of a language exist, extending over a considerable span of time, it is possible to compile an etymological dictionary

showing earlier forms with appropriate definitions deduced from usage in contexts. Such materials will often reveal changes not only in forms but in meaning. The shifts in usage sometimes throw very interesting light on the way people of an earlier age envisaged themselves in relation to the universe and one another. A slight modification in the form of a word may be accompanied by a great shift in its meaning, and vice versa.

According to their origin English words may be subdivided into two main sets. The elements of one are **native words**, the elements of the other are **borrowed words**.

The term **native** is conventionally used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes – the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. The term **borrowing** is used to denote the process of adopting words from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself.

2. Words of native origin.

Words of native origin consist for the most part of very ancient elements – Indo-European, Germanic and West Germanic cognates. The bulk of the Old English word-stock has been preserved, although some words have passed out of existence. When speaking about the role of the native element in the English language linguists usually confine themselves to the small Anglo-Saxon stock of words, which is estimated to make 25–30% of the English vocabulary.

To assign the native element its true place it is not so important to count the number of Anglo-Saxon words that have survived up to our days, as to study their semantic and stylistic character, their word-building ability, frequency value, collocability.

Words of the Indo-European origin. These words have cognates in the vocabularies of different Indo-European languages and form the oldest layer. They fall into different semantic groups and express the most vital, important and frequently used concepts:

- family terms: *mother, father, son, daughter, brother*;
- important objects and phenomena of nature: *sun, moon, wind, water, stone, hill*;
- animals and plants: *goose, wolf, cow, tree, corn*;
- parts of human body: *ear, tooth, eye, foot, heart, lip*;
- concrete physical properties and qualities: *hard, quick, slow, red, white, new*;
- numerals from 1 to a 100: *one, two, twenty, eighty*;
- pronouns (personal, demonstrative, interrogative): *I, you, he, my, that, who*;
- some of the most frequent words: *bear, do, be, sit, stand*, etc.

Words of the common Germanic origin. The words of the Common Germanic origin have parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic. They contain a great number of semantic groups which are the same as in the Indo-European group of native words:

- parts of the human body: *head, arm, finger*;
- periods of time: *summer, winter, time, week*;
- natural phenomena: *storm, rain, flood, ice, ground, sea, earth*;
- artifacts and materials: *bridge, house, shop, room, coal, iron, lead, cloth*;

- different kinds of garment: *hat, shirt, shoe*;
- abstract notions: *care, evil, hope, life, need*;
- animals, birds and plants: *sheep, horse, fox, crow, oak, grass*;
- various notional verbs: *bake, burn, drive, buy, hear, keep, learn, make, rise*;
- adjectives of colour, size, etc: *broad, dead, deaf, deep, grey, blue*;
- adverbs: *down, out, before* and others.

English words proper. English words proper do not have cognates in other languages. These words are few and stand quite alone in the vocabulary system of Indo-European languages: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*. Native words are characterized by:

1) a wide range of lexical and syntactic valency and high frequency value, for example, the verb *watch* can be used in different sentence patterns, with or without object and adverbial modifiers and can be combined with different classes of words: *Do you mind if I watch? Helen watched him with interest. She's a student and has to watch her budget closely. American companies are watching Japanese developments closely. I feel like I'm being watched*;

2) a developed polysemy, for instance, the noun *watch* has the following meanings: 'a small clock to be worn, esp. on the wrist, or carried'; 'the act of watching'; 'a person or people ordered to watch a place or a person'; 'a fixed period of duty on a ship, usually lasting four hours'; 'a film or programme considered in terms of its appeal to the public', etc.;

3) a great word-building power, for example, *watcher, watchful, watchword, watchable, watchfire, watch-out, watchdog*, etc.;

4) the capacity of forming phraseological units, for instance, *watch* enters the structure and forms the semantics of the following phraseological units: *to be on the watch, to keep watch, to watch one's back, to watch one's step*, etc. .

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

3. Borrowed words.

The English language happened to come in close contact with several other languages, mainly Latin, French and Old Norse (or Scandinavian). Due to the great influence of the Roman civilisation Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse was the language of the conquerors who were on the same level of social and cultural development and who merged rather easily with the local population in the 9th, 10th and the first half of the 11th century. French (to be more exact its Norman dialect) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system – developed feudalism, it was the language of upper classes, of official documents and school instruction from the middle of the 11th century to the end of the 14th century.

In the study of the borrowed element in English the main emphasis is as a rule placed on the Middle English period. The greatest number has come from French. They refer to various fields of social, political, scientific and cultural life. A large portion of borrowings (41%) is scientific and technical terms.

The number and character of borrowed words tell us of the relations between the peoples, the level of their culture, etc. Some borrowings, however, cannot be explained by the direct influence of certain historical conditions, they do not come along with any new objects or ideas. Such were for instance the words *air*, *place*, *brave*, *gay* borrowed from French.

Under the influence of the Scandinavian languages, which were closely related to Old English, some classes of words were borrowed that could not have been adopted from non-related or distantly related languages (the pronouns *they*, *their*, *them*, for instance); a number of Scandinavian borrowings were felt as derived from native words (they were of the same root and the connection between them was easily seen), for example, *drop* (AS.) – *drip* (Scand.), *true* (AS.) – *tryst* (Scand.). Here are some examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: *call* (v), *take* (v), *cast* (v), *die* (v), *law* (n), *husband* (n), *window* (n), *ill* (adj), *loose* (adj), *low* (adj), *weak* (adj).

Some of the words of this group are easily recognisable as Scandinavian borrowings by the initial *sk-* combination: *sky*, *skill*, *skin*, *ski*, *skirt*, etc.

The Scandinavian influence even accelerated to a certain degree the development of the grammatical structure of English. So, English during its historical development borrowed words from:

1. Celtic (5th - 6th c. A.D.)
2. Latin
 - 1st group: 1st c. B.C.
 - 2nd group: 7th c. A.D.
 - 3^d group: the Renaissance period (14th – 16th c.)
3. Scandinavian (8th -11th c. A.D.)
4. French
 - a) Norman borrowings: 11th - 13th c. A.D.
 - b) Parisian borrowings: (Renaissance)
5. Greek (Renaissance period)
6. Italian (Renaissance period and later)
7. Spanish (Renaissance period and later)
8. German
9. Indian and others

By **the native element** are meant the words which were not borrowed from other languages but represent the original stock of this particular language.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways:

1) through **oral speech** (by immediate contact between the peoples). They took place in the early periods of history. They are usually short, for instance, L. *inch*, *mill*, *street* and undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption.

2) through **written speech** (by indirect contact through books, etc.). They gained importance in recent times. These words (for example, Fr. *communiqué*, *belles-lettres*, *naïveté*) preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound-form, their assimilation is long and laborious process.

Borrowings can be singled out according to their type:

1) **Translation borrowings** (калька) are words and expressions formed from the material already existing in the English language but according to patterns taken from another language, by way of literal morpheme-for-morpheme translation, for example,

mother tongue < L. *lingua maternal*; *it goes without saying* < Fr. *Cela va sans dire*; *wall newspaper* < Ukr. *стіногазета*).

2) **Semantic borrowing** is understood as the development in an English word of a new meaning under the influence of a related word in another language, for instance, the English word *pioneer* means 'explorer' and 'one who is among the first in new fields of activity'. Under influence of the Ukrainian word 'піонер' it has come to mean 'a member of the Young Pioneers' Organization'.

4. International words.

International words – words which are borrowed by several languages. They convey concepts, which are significant in the field of communication. Many of them are Latin and Greek origin.

1. Names of sciences: *philosophy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, medicine, linguistics, lexicology*.
2. Terms of art: *music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, artist, primadonna*.
3. Political terms: *politics, policy, democracy, revolution, communism, progress*.
4. The English language contributed a number of international words to world languages: *football, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf*, etc.
5. Fruits and foodstuff imported from exotic countries: *coffee, cocoa, chocolate, coca-cola, banana, mango, grapefruit*.

International words are often confused with other words which have the same origin but have diverged in meaning in different languages, for instance, *extravagance*
1. безглуздість, безумство, дурниця; примха; 2) марнотратство; *accurate* – вірний, правильний, точний; 2) акуратний; ретельний; старанний.

5. Etymological doublets and triplets.

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

Others are represented by two borrowings from different languages which are historically descended from the same root: *senior* (L) – *sir* (Fr); *canal* (L) – *channel* (Fr); *captain* (L) – *chieftain* (Fr).

Etymological triplets – group of words of common root: *hospital* (L) – *hostel* (Norm.Fr) – *hotel* (Par.Fr); *to capture* (L) – *to catch* (Norm. Fr) – *to chase* (Par. Fr).

6. Assimilation of borrowings.

Assimilation of borrowings denotes a partial or total confrontation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the English language and its semantic system. There are three degrees of assimilation.

1) **Completely assimilated borrowed words** follow all morphological, phonetical and orthographic standards. They take part in word-formation. Their morphological structure and motivation is transparent. They are found in all layers of older borrowings: *cheese* (L.), *husband* (Sc.), *animal* (L.).

2) **Partially assimilated borrowed words** are subdivided into:

a) borrowings not completely assimilated **graphically**; these are words from French, in which the final consonant is not read: *ballet, buffet*; with a diacritic mark: *café, cliché*; diagraphs ch, qu, ou, etc.: *bouquet, banquet*.

b) borrowings not completely assimilated **phonetically**, for instance, from French with the stress on the final syllable: *machine, cartoon, police* or *bourgeois, prestige, regime*.

c) borrowings not completely assimilated **grammatically**, for example, nouns from Latin and Greek keep their original plural forms: *phenomenon – phenomena; criterion – criteria*.

d) borrowings not completely assimilated **semantically** because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they come, for instance, *sari, sombrero, rickshaw, sherbet*, etc.

3) **Unassimilated borrowings (barbarisms)** are words from other languages used by English people, for example, *ciao* – ‘good-bye’ or *tête-à-tête*.

Substitution of sounds, formation of new grammatical categories and paradigms, morphological simplification and narrowing of meaning take place in the very act of borrowing. Some words however retain foreign sounds and inflexions for a long time. Shift of stress is a long and gradual process; the same is true of the development of new meanings in a borrowed word, while the formation of derivatives may occur soon after the adoption of the word. The degree of assimilation depends on the time of borrowing, the extent to which the word is used in the language and the way of borrowing.

LECTURE 7.

BASIC LINGUISTIC NOTIONS OF THEORETICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Outline:

1. Theoretical grammar and its subject.
2. General principles of grammatical analysis.
3. Language as a system and as a structure.
4. Language and speech. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations.
5. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language.

1. Theoretical grammar and its subject.

The term “grammar” goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the “art of writing”. But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of **linguistics**.

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Its main function is being communicative. It incorporates three constituent parts: 1) phonological system; 2) lexical system; 3) grammatical system.

Each of the aforesaid is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. Grammar can be regarded from the practical or theoretical point of view. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to give a theoretical description

of the grammatical system of a given language, or to analyze scientifically and define its grammatical categories and to study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances out of words. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system. Another aim is to consider mood controversial points on which different points of view can be expressed.

It is worth noting that English grammatical theory is represented by a number of grammatical schools. The most influential of them are:

- the classical scientific grammar (Henry Sweet, Jespersen, etc)
- American structural or descriptive linguistics (Bloomfield, Wells, Nida, Hockett, Fries, Trager, Smith, Pike)
- Transformational generative linguistics (Harris, Chomsky)
- The Soviet school - Vinogradov, Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov, Reformatsky, Vorontsova, Ilyish, Solntsev.

Systemic character of language is especially stressed in Middle English. Its constituent parts form the Microsystems within the framework of the macrosystem of language. This approach was developed by the Russian scholars, Boduen de Kuortane, Ferdinand de Saussure. They outlined the difference between speech proper and language proper.

2. General principles of grammatical analysis.

According to the Bible: 'In the beginning was the Word'. In fact, the word is considered to be the central (but not the only) linguistic unit of language. Linguistic units (or in other words – signs) can go into three types of relations:

a) The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality). E.g. the word 'table' refers to a definite piece of furniture. It may be not only an object but a process, state, quality, etc.

This type of meaning is called **referential** meaning of a unit. It is **semantics** that studies the referential meaning of units.

b) The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units). No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called **syntactic**. Formal relation of units to one another is studied by **syntactics** (or **syntax**).

c) The relation between a unit and a person who uses it. As we know too well, when we are saying something, we usually have some purpose in mind. We use the language as an instrument for our purpose (e.g.). One and the same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called **pragmatic**. The study of the relationship between linguistic units and the users of those units is done by **pragmatics**.

Thus there are three models of linguistic description: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. To illustrate the difference between these different ways of linguistic analysis, let us consider the following sentence: *Students are students*.

The first part of the XXth century can be characterized by a formal approach to the language study. Only inner (syntactic) relations between linguistic units served the basis for linguistic analysis while the reference of words to the objective reality and language users were actually not considered. Later, semantic language analysis came into use. However, it was surely not enough for a detailed language study. Language certainly

figures centrally in our lives. We discover our identity as individuals and social beings when we acquire it during childhood. It serves as a means of cognition and communication: it enables us to think for ourselves and to cooperate with other people in our community. Therefore, the pragmatic side of the language should not be ignored either. **Functional** approach in language analysis deals with the language 'in action'. Naturally, in order to get a broad description of the language, all the three approaches must be combined.

3. Language as a system and as a structure.

Any human language has two main functions: the communicative function and the expressive or representative function – human language is the living form of thought. These two functions are closely interrelated as the expressive function of language is realized in the process of speech communication.

The expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs and that is why we say that language is a **semiotic** system. It means that linguistic signs are of semiotic nature: they are **informative** and **meaningful**. There are other examples of semiotic systems but all of them are no doubt much simpler. For instance, traffic lights use a system of colours to instruct drivers and people to go or to stop. Some more examples: Code Morse, Brighton Alphabet, computer languages, etc. What is the difference between language as a semiotic system and other semiotic systems? Language is universal, natural, it is used by all members of society while any other sign systems are artificial and depend on the sphere of usage.

Language is regarded as a system of elements (or: signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. **System** implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is a structural system. **Structure** means hierarchical layering of parts in 'constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical and supersyntactical.

The levels are represented by the corresponding level units:

The **phonological** level is the lowest level. The phonological level unit is the **phoneme**. It is a distinctive unit (*bag – back*).

The **morphological** level has two level units:

- a) the **morpheme** – the lowest meaningful unit (*teach – teacher*);
- b) the **word** - the main naming ('nominative') unit of language.

The **syntactical** level has two level units as well:

- a) the **word-group** – the dependent syntactic unit;
- b) the **sentence** – the main communicative unit.

The **supersyntactical** level has the **text** as its level unit.

All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis we focus attention on different features of language. Generally speaking, the larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity

and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called **isomorphism**. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

We have arrived at the conclusion that the notions of system and structure are not synonyms – any system has its own structure (compare: the system of Ukrainian education vs. the structure of Ukrainian education; army organization).

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish **the content side** and **the expression side**. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word ‘dog’ happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in Ukrainian by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one.

4. Language and speech. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations.

The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. **Speech** is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess.

Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit **phoneme** is opposed to the speech unit – **sound**: phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech - /s/ and /z/). The **sentence** is opposed to the **utterance**; the **text** is opposed to the **discourse**.

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into **paradigmatic** relations (PR) with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle, cup*, etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same*, etc. According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types: **semantic, formal** and **functional**.

- a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day – He would practice English every day.*
- b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man – men; play – played – will play – is playing.*
- c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of ‘language’.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group A PINT OF MILK the word PINT contrasts SR with A, OF, MILK; within the word PINT – P, I, N and T are in syntagmatic relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate**, **subordinate** and **predicative**.

- a) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you and me*; *They were tired but happy*.
- b) Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach + er* – morphological level; *a smart student* – word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses – sentence level.
- c) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

As mentioned above, SR may be observed in utterances, which is impossible when we deal with PR. Therefore, PR are identified with ‘language’ while SR are identified with ‘speech’.

5. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language.

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words – the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means.

Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – **synthetic** and **analytic**. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of ‘internal’ grammar of the word – most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Ukrainian - *зроблю*, Russian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of ‘external’ grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic – the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way.

As the word is the main unit of traditional grammatical theory, it serves the basis of the distinction which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax. Morphology deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while traditional syntax deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics). We can therefore say that the word is the main unit of morphology.

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. First of all, it is the main **expressive** unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic **nominative** unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of ‘language’ and it

exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept (поняття, ідея) and a sound image and thus has two sides – the content and expression sides (план змісту та план вислову): concept and sound form.

LECTURE 8. THE PARTS OF SPEECH PROBLEM. WORD CLASSES.

Outline:

1. **Notional and Functional Parts of Speech**
2. **Noun: general considerations.**
3. **General characteristic of the adjective. Subclasses of adjectives.**
4. **General characteristic of the adverb. Subclasses of adverbs.**
5. **General characteristic of the verb. Verb classifications.**

1. Notional and functional parts of speech.

The words of language, depending on various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant sets or classes. The traditional grammatical classes of words are called “parts of speech”. Since the word is distinguished not only by grammatical, but also by semantico-lexemic properties, some scholars refer to parts of speech as “lexico-grammatical” series of words, or as “lexico-grammatical categories” (Smirnitsky).

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: **semantic, formal and functional**. The **semantic** criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized meaning, which is characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the “categorical meaning of the part of speech”. The **formal** criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The **functional** criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech. The said three factors of categorical characterization of words are conventionally referred to as, respectively, “meaning”, “form”, and “function”.

In accord with the described criteria, words on the upper level of classification are divided into notional and functional. To the **notional parts of speech** of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb and the adverb.

The **features of the noun** are the following: 1) the categorical meaning of substance (“thingness”); 2) the changeable forms of number and case; the specific suffixal forms of derivation (prefixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech as such); 3) the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative); prepositional connections; modifications by an adjective.

The **features of the adjective**: 1) the categorical meaning of property (qualitative and relative); 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives); the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).

The **features of the numeral**: 1) the categorical meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal); 2) the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms of composition for compound numerals; the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals; 3) the functions of numerical attribute and numerical substantive.

The **features of the pronoun**: 1) the categorical meaning of indication (deixis); 2) the narrow sets of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorical changeability and word-building; 3) the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The **features of the verb**: 1) the categorical meaning of process (presented in the two upper series of forms, respectively, as finite process and non-finite process); 2) the forms of the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms; 3) the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb; the mixed verbal – other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

The **features of the adverb**: 1) the categorical meaning of the secondary property, i.e. the property of process or another property; 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are **functional parts of speech**. To the basic functional series of words in English belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word and the interjection.

The **article** expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The **preposition** expresses the dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents.

The **conjunction** expresses connections of phenomena.

The **particle** unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside other specifying words, should be referred verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The **modal word**, occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or less pronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the functional words of probability (*probably, perhaps, etc.*), of qualitative evaluation (*fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, etc.*), and also of affirmation and negation.

The **interjection**, occupying a detached position in the sentence, is a signal of emotions.

2. Noun: general considerations.

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of “substance” or “thingness”. It follows from this that the noun is the main nominative part of speech. The noun has the power, by way of nomination, to isolate different properties of substances (i.e. direct and oblique qualities, and also actions and states as processual characteristics of substantive phenomena) and present them as corresponding self-dependent substances. E.g.: *Her words were unexpectedly **bitter**. – We were struck by the unexpected **bitterness** of her words.*

This natural and practically unlimited substantivization force establishes the noun as the central nominative lexemic unit of language.

The categorial functional properties of the noun are determined by its semantic properties. The most characteristic substantive function of the noun is that of the subject in the sentence, since the referent of the subject is the person or thing immediately named. The function of the object in the sentence is also typical of the noun as the substance word. Other syntactic functions, i.e. attributive, adverbial, and even predicative, although performed by the noun with equal ease, are not immediately characteristic of its substantive quality as such.

The noun is characterized by some special types of combinability. In particular, typical of the noun is the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb. *E.g.: an entrance to the house; to turn round the corner, red in the face; far from its destination.*

The possessive combinability characterizes the noun alongside its prepositional combinability with another noun. *E.g.: the speech of the President – the President's speech; the cover of the book - the book's cover.*

English nouns can also easily combine with one another by sheer contact, unmediated by any special lexemic or morphemic means. In the contact group the noun in pre-position plays the role of a semantic qualifier to the noun in post-position. *E.g.: a cannon ball; a log cabin; a sports event; film festivals.*

As a part of speech, the noun is also characterized by a set of formal features determining its specific status in the lexical paradigm of nomination. It has its word-building distinctions, including typical suffixes, compound stem models, conversion patterns. It discriminates the grammatical categories of gender, number, case, article determination.

The cited formal features taken together are relevant for the division of nouns into several subclasses, grouped into four oppositional pairs. The first noun subclass opposition differentiates **proper** and **common** nouns. The foundation of this division is “type of nomination”. The second subclass opposition differentiates **animate** and **inanimate** nouns on the basis of “form of existence”. The third subclass opposition differentiates **human** and **non-human** nouns on the basis of “personal quality”. The fourth subclass opposition differentiates **countable** and **uncountable** nouns on the basis of “quantitative structure”. Somewhat less explicitly and rigorously is the division of English nouns into **concrete** and **abstract**.

3. General characteristic of the adjective. Subclasses of adjectives.

Adjective as a part of speech is characterized by the following typical features: (a) lexico-grammatical meaning of substantival property (size, colour, position in space, material, psychic state, etc); (b) the morphological category of comparison; (c) the combinability with nouns, link-verbs, adverbs (mostly of degree), and the prop-word *one*; (d) typical affixes (*-ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ic, un,* etc.); (e) the functions of attribute and predicative in the sentence. However, there is a number of adjectives that can perform only one of the functions: that of attribute, e.g. *absolute (limit), close (friend), perfect (idiot), great (supporter), extreme (enemy), total (nonsense), complete (fool), strong (opponent), firm (friend)*; or that of predicative: *(I'm) sorry/glad*.

Structurally adjectives may be simple (*red*), derived (*typical*) and compound (*black-eyed*). **Semantically** adjectives are traditionally classified into relative and qualitative. **Relative adjectives** express qualities which characterize an object through

its relation to another object: *a historical event* (an event referring to some period in history); *a woolen sweater* (a sweater made of wool, *Siberian wheat* (wheat from Siberia). **Qualitative adjectives** denote various qualities of substances which admit of quantitative estimation, i.e. they denote qualities of size, shape, colour, etc. which an object may possess in various degrees. Thus qualitative adjectives possess the following features: ability of grading (*small –smaller –smallest*), ability to form adverbs (*nice –nicely*) and antonyms (*good –bad*); ability of reduplication (*goodygoody*); ability to be used in structures of grammatical pleonasm (*deaf* *than deaf*).

4. General characteristic of the adverb. Subclasses of adverbs.

The adverb as a part of speech is characterized by (a) the meaning of “a secondary property”, i.e. a non-substantive property – the property of a process, of another property, or circumstances in which the action occurs; (b) the morphological category of comparison; (c) typical affixes, e.g. *-ly*, *-wards*, *-wise*; (d) combinability with verbs, adjectives and other verbs; (e) the function of adverbial modifier in the sentence.

Structurally adverbs may be simple (e.g. *here, there, now, quite, so*), derived (*slowly, sideways, clockwise, away*), compound (*sometimes, nowhere, anyhow*) or composite (*to and fro, upside down*).

Semantically adverbs are subdivided into qualitative, quantitative, and circumstantial. **Qualitative** adverbs denote properties of actions which admit of quantitative estimation, much like qualitative adjectives denote properties of substances: *speak loudly – loud speech*.

Quantitative adverbs show the degree or the quantity of an action or a property. They combine not only with verbs but also with adjectives, adverbs, numerals or nouns. They are subdivided into adverbs of high degree (e.g. *very, entirely, utterly, greatly, absolutely*); adverbs of excessive degree (*too, awfully, tremendously dreadfully, terrifically*); adverbs of unexpected degree (*surprisingly, astonishingly*); adverbs of moderate degree (*fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather*); adverbs of approximate degree (*almost, nearly*); adverbs of optimal degree (*enough, quite, sufficiently*); adverbs of inadequate degree (*insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably*); adverbs of under-degree (*hardly, scarcely*).

Circumstantial adverbs denote various circumstances attending an action such as time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of circumstantial adverbs are used as syntactic connectives and question words (e.g. *now, here, thus, why*). As they do not characterize the action itself they may occupy different positions in the sentence. Though grading is generally characteristic of qualitative adverbs, some circumstantial adverbs become gradable as well if used in the evaluative function: *often, near, far, late, soon*, e.g. *often – oftener (more often)*. Part of circumstantial adverbs have distinct suffixes: *-wards (backwards)*, *-ce (twice)*, etc. Others are homonymous with other parts of speech: prepositions (*He’s in the house. / He’s in. The boy is behind the tree. / Don’t leave him behind.*), conjunctions (*I haven’t seen him since January. / I haven’t met him since.*) and some others.

5. General characteristic of the verb. Verb classifications/

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. First of all it performs the central role in **realizing predication**: connection between situation in the utterance and reality. That is why the verb is of primary informative significance in an utterance. Besides, the verb possesses quite a lot of grammatical categories. Furthermore, within the class of the verb there are various subclass divisions based on different principles.

The verb as a part of speech has an intricate nature combining the features of all other notional parts of speech in the form of the so-called verbids (non-finite forms of the verb). It is characterized by:

(1) The lexico-grammatical meaning of “process” or “action”, which is an abstraction from lexical meanings of individual verbs or groups of verbs: some verbs (*sleep, stand, love*) denote states rather than actions, but these states are presented as processes developing in time and come therefore within the range of the lexicogrammatical meaning of the verb.

(2) Certain typical stem-building elements such as the suffixes *-ize (specialize), -en (blacken), -fy (qualify), etc.*; the prefixes *be- (befriend), re- (reread), en- (enforce), under- (undergo), over- (overestimate), mis- (mistake), un- (undress), etc.*; the word-morphemes (postpositives) *up (bring up), in (give in), off (put off), down (sit down), out (take out), etc.*

(3) Grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood.

(4) Combinability with adverbs and nouns denoting the agent (doer) and the recipient of the action.

(5) The syntactic function of predicate for finite verbs; verbids function as predicates in secondary predication structures, e.g. *I saw him enter that house.*

Structurally verbs fall into simple, derivative, compound, and composite. The number of simple verbs is growing due to conversion which is one of the most productive ways of word-formation in modern English, especially the model N – V (e.g. *ape – to ape, pocket – to pocket*). Sound interchange and the change of stress (*food-feed, import-import*) are not productive means of the formation of verbs. In the class of derivative verbs prefixation is more productive than suffixation. Compound verbs are formed from noun stems by means of conversion (*blackmail – to blackmail*) or back-formation (*babysitter – to baby-sit*). On the whole compounding is not productive for the verb. The composite (phrasal) verbs occupy an intermediary position between the analytical forms of the verb and syntactic word combination. Composite verbs include a verb and a postposed adverb (word-morpheme, a verbal postposition) that has specificational value (modifies or changes the meaning of the verb).

Semantically verbs are divided into verbs of full nominative value (notional verbs), and verbs of partial nominative value (semi-notional and functional verbs). Notional verbs include the bulk of the verbs. Functional and semi-notional verbs include limited sets of verbs characterized by individual relational properties. This subclass division is flexible: the same verb lexeme may belong to different subclasses. Some authors recognize verbs of “mixed”, or “double” lexical character: they realize different meanings depending on the context. Thus the verb *grow* in the meaning of “develop, increase in size” is a notional verb (*How quickly you are growing!*); in the meaning of “become” it is a link verb (*It is growing dark.*). Different meanings of the verb have are

realized in the following sentences: *How much money do you have on you? The Englishman had to make the best of the situation.*

LECTURE 9. SYNTAX. THE WORD-GROUP. THE SENTENCE.

Outline:

1. The definition of the word-group. The word-group and the sentence.
2. Classification of word-groups.
3. The sentence.
4. Classification of sentences.

1. The definition of the word-group. The word-group and the sentence.

Syntax is divided into the phrase sublevel (**minor syntax**) and the sentence sublevel (**major syntax**). The **phrase sublevel** is made up by non-communicative units: word-forms and word-groups. The **sentence sublevel** is comprised by communicative units: the simple sentence (N+V finite) and the composite sentence (clause+clause). The clause is intermediary between the word-group and the sentence: like the sentence it is of finite predication; like the word-group it is a dependent non-communicative unit.

Different terms are used in linguistics to denote a combination of words: “word-group”, “word cluster” and “phrase”. On the whole “phrase” is more popular with American scholars, “word-group”, with the British. Sometimes “phrase” is understood as any syntactically organized word combination consisting of either notional words (e.g. *to ignore the remark*) or of a notional and a functional word (e.g. *under the sun*).

However, the latter are equivalent to separate word in their nominative function; only a combination of notional words can be called a unit of polynomination associated with the word-group. Unlike the sentence, the word-group can undergo grammatical changes: *write a letter, has written letters, wrote the letter, would have written a letter...* are grammatical modifications of the same word-group. Each component of the word-group can be expanded according to the laws of a given language, e.g. *a nice day – an exceptionally nice day*. In the sentence every word has a definite form which cannot be changed.

2. Classification of word-groups.

Word-groups are **classified** according to the following **criteria**: (1) the number of constituents; (2) the nature of constituents; (3) their order; (4) syntactic relations between them.

Theoretically the number of constituents in a word-group is not limited but multiple combinations are usually reduced to elementary ones (two-member).

According to the lexico-grammatical class of the constituents word-groups are classified into substantive (nounal), verbal, adjectival and adverbial. The order of constituents is of primary importance, English being a language of isolating type. The sequence of constituents determines the meaning of a word-group, e.g. *a pot flower – a flower pot, a dog house – a house dog, cane sugar – sugar cane, to read a book – a*

book to read. The second element of a substantive word-group usually conveys a more general meaning while the first element specifies the meaning of the word-group.

Syntactic relations between components can be described in two different ways: (a) in terms of syntagmatic relations of independence, dependence and interdependence and (b) in terms of syntactic functions.

Syntagmatic relations of **independence** are characteristic of **coordinate word-groups**, i.e. word-groups whose components are equal in rank. These relations are also called symmetrical. Words in a coordinate word-group can be connected syndetically or asyndetically (with or without conjunctions). Theoretically coordinate word-groups may include an unlimited number of notional words; in fact there are seldom more than 4 or 5. Lengthy coordinate word-groups are used to create a certain stylistic effect.

Syntagmatic relations of **interdependence** characterize the relations between the subject and the predicate in a predicate word-group. It is a bilateral domination, the subject subordinates the predicate formally; the predicate subordinates the subject semantically. But the very existence of the predicate word-group is a disputable issue. Most grammarians believe that predicate relations are characteristic of the sentence, not the word-group.

Besides interdependence is a variety of **dependence** which is characteristic of **subordinate word-groups**. Subordination is based on inequality of components and these relations are called asymmetrical. The dominating component is the **kernel** (the nucleus, or the headword). The dominated component is the **adjunct** (the complement, or the expansion, or the modifier). Subordination is more widely used in English than coordination. Subordinate word-groups are more restricted as to the number of the components. Word-groups with practically limitless adjuncts are used to create a stylistic effect, e.g. *the man in the store across the street by the bank under the bridg*.

According to the positions of the kernel and the adjunct(s) subordinate word-groups fall into: **regressive** (left-hand position of the adjunct in relation to the kernel, e.g. *an old house, fairly well*), **progressive** (right-hand position of the adjunct, e.g. *a test in grammar, to rely on Jim*) and **central** (the kernel is in the middle of the word-group, e.g. *no particular interest in the subject*).

In terms of **syntactic functions**, relations between the components of the subordinate word-group can be objective or qualifying. **Objective** relations are those between the process and its object and are characterized as very close. Formally they can be prepositional and non-prepositional. From the semantico-syntactic point of view they can be direct (*gave the book*) and indirect, or oblique (*asked the boy, spoke to the boy*).

Qualifying relations can be attributive and adverbial.

In **attributive** word-groups (attribute+noun) the kernel is generally a noun and they are built according to the models: A+N, N+N, Npos+N, Pron/Num+N, Part I/II+N (N – noun, Npos – noun in the possessive case, A – adjective, pron – pronoun, num – numeral, Part I/II – Participle I/II).

Adverbial relations (verb+adverbial modifier) are looser than objective or attributive ones: the adjunct may precede or follow the kernel, e.g. *to reject abruptly – to abruptly reject*.

Syntactic relations between the components of a subordinate word-group can be expressed through agreement, government, connection and parataxis.

Agreement means that the adjunct takes a grammatical form similar to that of the kernel. In modern English this can refer only to the category of number. The only consistent agreement is found between the noun and the demonstrative pronoun, e.g. *this tree – these trees, that child – those children*. The agreement between the subject and the predicate is not consistent, cf. *The family agree. The crew are ready. England (the team) are playing with Scotland. The United Nations is an international organization*. Besides the agreement between the subject and the predicate belongs to the sentence level.

Government is the use of a certain form of the adjunct which is required by the kernel, but not coinciding with its form. It is found in the objective word-group of the model verb+personal pronoun (the latter takes the form of the objective case), e.g. *tell me (us, her, etc.)*. Even this type of government is, however, made somewhat doubtful by the rising tendency to use the forms *me, him, etc.* outside their original sphere (e.g. *It's me*). Some grammarians refer to government adverbial word-groups of the model verb+adverb, e.g. *speak loudly/louder*.

Connection means the use of connective words to express syntactic relations between words, e.g. *go with Alice, come up to the blackboard, etc.*

Parataxis is defined negatively as the absence of agreement, government or connection, e.g. *a nice day, teaching practice, a man to rely on, to read a book, a book to read*. It is primarily expressed through word order and is the most widely used means of expressing syntactic relations in the word-group in modern English.

The stronger are the relations between the components of a word-group the closer is the adjunct to the kernel, e.g. *Happy little children sing songs merrily*. In the nounal phrase *little* (denoting the age) is a more permanent characteristic of the noun than *happy* (denoting the emotional state of the children). In the verbal phrase *songs* is closer to the kernel verb than *merrily*, and these two words could not interchange their positions.

B. Iyish also distinguishes **enclosure** which consists in placing some element of a phrase between two parts of another element, e.g. placing an attribute between an article and the noun which it determines (*on-the spot investigation*) or an adverb inside a prepositional phrase (*...that little thimbleful of brandy ... went sorely against the grain with her*).

3. The sentence.

There exist more than 300 definitions of the **sentence**. M. Blokh defines it in the following way: "The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose."

The sentence is characterized by an intonation contour, sentence stress, predication, modality, and a relatively complete meaning. These characteristics distinguish the sentence as a communicative unit from the word and the word-group as nominative language units.

A sentence may consist of just one word (*Morning. Here. Go.*), but possessing **predication**, it does not only name some referents of the extra-lingual reality but presents them as making up some situational event. Predication establishes the relation of the denoted event to objective reality. The centre of predication in the sentences of the verbal type (which is the dominant type in English) is a finite verb which expresses

predicative meanings of tense, aspect, mood, etc. through grammatical forms. The process denoted by the verb is connected with the agent (the doer of the action), the object and various circumstances of realization of the process.

Thus predication is realized not only through the axis “subject – predicate”, but also through the secondary parts of the sentence.

Unlike the word the sentence does not exist in the language system as a readymade unit. With the exception of a limited number of utterances of phraseological character it is created by the speaker in the course of communication. It is not a unit of language proper, but a part of the text built up as a result of a speech generating process. Being a unit of speech the sentence is intonationally delimited and participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (**modality** of the sentence), e.g. interrogative vs. declarative meanings.

4. Classification of sentences.

Sentences are **classified** according to different criteria: their structure, the purpose of communication, the type of subject and predicate, etc. **Structurally** sentences are divided into simple and composite; one-member and two-member; complete and elliptical. Sentences are differentiated into **simple** and **composite** depending on whether they contain one or more than one predicative lines (axes).

Sentences with both a subject and a predicate are called **two-member (binary) sentences**. Binary sentence structures predominate in modern English. The basic structure is the S – P which can be extended through complementation to S –P–O, S –P –O –D, S–P –O –D –D, etc. If only one of the principal parts is present the sentence is **one-member**: nominal (*Fire!*) or verbal (*Come on!*). Nominal sentences imply the action, verbal sentences imply the agent: (*It is*) *fire!* (*You*) *come on!*

One-member sentences should be differentiated from **elliptical sentences**, i.e. sentences with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context. The main sphere of elliptical sentences is a dialogue where the part of the sentence that is left out can be either supplied from the preceding sentence (pronounced by another speaker) or may be easily dispensed with, e.g. *Where are you going to? –The movies. – Who with? – David.*

According to the **purpose of communication**, sentences fall into declarative, interrogative and imperative. The **declarative** sentence denotes a statement (affirmative or negative) which serves to convey some information. The **interrogative** sentence functions as a question and serves to request information. The **imperative** sentence serves as an inducement (an order or a request) to perform an action. The **exclamatory** sentence functions as an exclamation and serves to express strong emotions.

The **semantic classification** of the simple sentence is based on the following principles:

1) **subject categorial meaning:**

personal sentences

(e) impersonal sentences

human

non-human

(a) definite (b) indefinite (c) animate (d) inanimate

(a) *He came early.* (b) *He who does not work neither shall he eat.* (c) *It (the dog) ran up to me.* (d) *It (my watch) is fast.* (e) *It is never late to learn.*

2) **predicate categorial meaning:**

verbal sentences
(a) actional (b) statal

nominal sentences
(c) factual (d) perceptual

(a) *The window is opening.* (b) *The window is glistening.* (c) *It rains.* (d) *It smells of hay.*

3) **subject-predicate relations:**

subjective sentences (*John lives in London*); objective sentences (*John is reading a book*); neutral, or potentially objective sentences (*John is reading*).

The **composite sentence** expresses a complicated act of thought and reflects two or more situational events as making a unity. It is a syntactic unit formed by two or more predicative lines. Each predicative line in the composite sentence makes up a **clause**, a syntactic non-communicative unit of an intermediary status between the sentence and the word-group.

The composite sentence is differentiated into the compound and the complex sentences. The **compound sentence** is based on coordination: the clauses are equal in rank. In the **complex sentence** clauses are connected on the basis of subordination, with one of the clauses dominating the other(s).

In the complex sentence the dominating clause is called “**principal**” while the dominated clause is “**subordinate**”. However, the dominance of the principal clause over the subordinate clause is also relative. In fact they form a semantico-syntactic unity within the framework of which they are interconnected. In some types of complex sentences the principal clause is distinctly incomplete, e.g. *How he managed to pull through is what baffled me*

LECTURE 10. THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE.

Outline:

1. The notion of the Composite Sentence.
2. Differentiation of Complex and Compound Sentences.
3. The problem of the Compound Sentence. Types of coordination.
4. Classification of Complex Sentences.
5. Classification of Complex Sentences in Cognitive Linguistics.

1. The notion of the composite sentence.

The **composite sentence** expresses a complicated act of thought and reflects two or more situational events as making a unity. It is a syntactic unit formed by two or more predicative lines. Each predicative line in the composite sentence makes up a **clause**, a syntactic non-communicative unit of an intermediary status between the sentence and the word-group.

M. Blokh points out that the correspondence of a clause to a separate sentence is evident while the correspondence of a composite sentence to a sequence of simple sentences is not evident, which is the reason for the very existence of the composite sentence in language. The following extract would hardly make any sense if presented as a sequence of simple sentences: *When I sat down to dinner I looked for an*

opportunity to slip in casually the information that I had by accident run across the Driffields; but news travelled fast in Blackstable (Maugham).

The composite sentence is more characteristic of written speech where the length limit imposed on the sentence by the recipient's operative memory can be neglected. The **elementary composite sentence** consists of two clauses and is more common in oral speech.

2. Differentiation of complex and compound sentences.

The composite sentence is differentiated into the compound and the complex sentences. The **compound sentence** is based on coordination: the clauses are equal in rank, "equipotent" (according to M. Blokh), or "on an equal footing" (according to B. Ilyish). In the **complex sentence** clauses are connected on the basis of subordination, with one of the clauses dominating the other(s).

Although coordinate clauses are relatively independent each subsequent clause in the compound sentence refers to the whole of the preceding clause, whereas a subordinate clause usually refers to a certain word in the principal clause, as B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya point out, independence of coordinate clauses is not absolute. When united in the compound sentence the base sentences lose their independent status. The first clause becomes "**leading**", the successive clauses are "**sequential**". The content of each successive clause is related to the content of the previous clause. For this reason the order of clauses in the compound sentence is even more rigid than in the complex sentence. In the complex sentence clauses can often interchange their positions, e.g. *If you come at six we'll have dinner together. – We'll have dinner together if you come at six.* Changes are generally impossible in the compound sentence, e.g. *He came at six and we had dinner together.*

In the complex sentence the dominating clause is called "**principal**" while the dominated clause is "**subordinate**". However, the dominance of the principal clause over the subordinate clause is also relative. In fact they form a semantico-syntactic unity within the framework of which they are interconnected. In some types of complex sentences the principal clause is distinctly incomplete, e.g. *How he managed to pull through is what baffled me.*

Neither does the principal clause necessarily convey the central informative part of the communication. The order of clauses is an important factor in distributing primary and secondary information in the utterance: in a neutral context the rheme tends to the end of the sentence. Sometimes the principal clause becomes a sheer introducer of the subordinate clause. This function of the principal clause is called **phatic**: to maintain the immediate connection with the listener. Such introductory principal clauses are easily transformed into parenthetical clauses, e.g. *You know there was no harm in him. – There was no harm in him, you know.*

3. The problem of the compound sentence. Types of coordination.

"The problem of the compound sentence" means doubts as to its existence. These doubts are caused by the fact that semantic relations between coordinate clauses are similar to those between independent sentences; non-final coordinate clauses can be pronounced with the falling, finalizing tone like independent declarative sentences. According to L. Iofik and some other grammarians, the compound sentence is a

fictitious notion developed under the school influence of written presentation of speech. Thus what is called the compound sentence is really a sequence of semantically related sentences not separated by full stops in writing because of an arbitrary school tradition.

However, though semantic relations between clauses are similar to those between sentences, in the compound sentence the connections between the related events are shown as more close. As to the falling tone for non-final clauses, though it is possible, the rising tone is more common.

The compound sentence distinguishes four types of coordinate connection that is expressed not only by coordinating conjunctions and adverbs but by the general meaning of clauses revealed through their lexical and grammatical content.

Copulate coordination implies that the events denoted by the clauses are merely united in time and place. The clauses are joined together with copulative connectors *and, nor, neither ... nor, not only ... but (also), as well as, then, moreover* or asyndetically, e.g. *The bus stopped, the door sprang open, a lady got in, then another lady.*

Adversative coordination unites clauses expressing opposition, contradiction or contrast using the connectors *but, while, whereas, yet, still, nevertheless, only*, e.g. *The story was amusing but nobody laughed.*

Disjunctive coordination is used when clauses denote a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives. Disjunctive connectors are *or, either ... or, else (or else), otherwise*, e.g. *We were talking about a lot of things, or rather he was talking and I was listening.*

Causative-consecutive coordination unites two clauses, one of which denotes the reason (cause) of an action and the other, the consequence. The clauses are joined together with the conjunction *for* or asyndetically, e.g. *At first I thought they were brothers, (for) they were so much alike.*

4. Classification of complex sentences.

Classification of complex sentences may be based on the categorial or the functional principles. According to the **categorial principle** subordinate clauses are classified into three categorial-semantic groups:

(1) **Substantive-nominal** whose semantics is similar to that of the noun or the nominal phrase, e.g. *That you mimic so much does not make you very attractive.*

(2) **Qualification-nominal** whose function is to give a characteristic to a substance, e.g. *The man who came in the morning left a message.*

(3) **Adverbial** which characterize a process, e.g. *Describe the picture as you see it.*

The inherent nominative properties of the categorial-semantic groups are revealed through a question-test or a substitution, e.g. *That you mimic so much does not make you very attractive.* – *Your mimicking does not make you very attractive.*

Basing on the **functional principle** subordinate clauses are classified on the analogy of parts of the simple sentence. B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya point out that clauses differ from parts of the simple sentence in predication; the function of a clause is often defined by the conjunction or adverb while the function of a part of the sentence is determined mostly by its position; there is sometimes no correspondence between a clause and a part of the sentence. Still, as M. Blokh remarks, a general

analogy between a subordinate clause and a part of the sentence exists, which allows to discriminate **subject, predicative, objective, attributive and adverbial clauses**.

N. Pospelov divided elementary complex sentences into one-member and two-member sentences. **One-member sentences** are characterized by a comparatively close (obligatory) connection between clauses: the subordinate clause is so closely related (formally and semantically) to the principal clause that the principal clause could not exist without it as a complete syntactic unit. Such are sentences with subject and predicative clauses as well as some object and attributive clauses, e.g. *All I know is that I know nothing. Tell me what you want.*

Two-member sentences are characterized by a comparatively loose (optional) connection between clauses: the subordinate clause could be deleted from the sentence without destroying the structural completeness of the principal clause, e.g. *If you insist I'll tell you the truth.*

According to M. Blokh, obligatory subordinate connection underlies **monolithic** complexes, optional subordinate connection, **segregative** complexes. Monolithic complexes fall into:

(a) **Merger** complex sentences in which the subordinate clause is fused with the principal clause, e.g. *What he says makes sense.*

(b) **Valency** complex sentences in which the subordinate clause is governed by the valency of the verb in the principal clause, e.g. *Put it where you've taken it.*

(c) **Correlation** complex sentences based on subordinate correlation (mutual subordination), e.g. *The more we study, the more we know.*

(d) **Arrangement** complex sentences which are monolithic only when the subordinate clause precedes the principal clause, otherwise they are segregate, e.g. *If he comes tell him to wait.*

In complex sentences with two or more subordinate clauses subordination may be parallel or consecutive. In case of **parallel subordination** all subordinate clauses depend on the principal clause. If it is **homogeneous** parallel subordination they are subordinated to the same part of the principal clause and perform the same function, e.g. *I know that he came and that you gave him the letter.* If it is **heterogeneous** parallel subordination the subordinate clauses refer to different parts of the principal clause and perform different syntactic functions, e.g. *All she saw was that she might go to prison for the crime she had not committed.*

Consecutive subordination presents a hierarchy of clausal levels: each subsequent clause is subordinated to the previous clause, e.g. *I've no idea why she said she could not call on us at the time I had suggested.* The **depth of subordination** results from the number of consecutive levels of subordination. In colloquial speech it seldom exceeds three levels.

5. Classification of complex sentences in cognitive linguistics.

In cognitive linguistics the classification of clause complexes is based on the criterion of the degree of integration between clauses. J.R. Taylor distinguishes minimal integration, coordination, subordination, complementation, clause fusion which reveals the highest degree of integration.

Clause complexes of minimal integration. Two clauses are simply juxtaposed, with no overt linking, e.g.: *I came, I saw, I conquered.* The clauses are in sequential

relation to each other – the first mentioned was the first to occur. **Clause complexes of coordination.** Each clause could in principle stand alone as an independent conceptualization. The clauses are linked by means of words such as *and*, *but*, *or*, e.g.: *She prefers fish, and/but I prefer pasta.* **Clause complexes of subordination.** Here, there are two clauses, but one is understood in terms of a particular semantic relation (temporal, causal, etc.) to each other. Typical subordinators are *after*, *if*, *whenever*, *although*. **Clause complexes based on complementation.** Complementation represents a closer integration of clauses, in that one clause functions as a participant in another. There are different syntactic forms that a complement clause can take. A complement clause functions as the subject or the object of the main verb. The complement clause may appear as: an infinitive without *to*, e.g.: *I saw them break into the house*; “*to*”-infinitive, e.g.: *To finish it in time was impossible. I advise you to wait a while. I want to go there myself*; “*ing*”-form of the verb, e.g.: *I avoided meeting them. I can’t imagine him saying that*; subordinate clause, introduced by *that* or question words, e.g.: *I hope that we will see each other again soon, I wonder what we should do.* **Clause fusions** represent the highest degree of integration. It occurs when two clauses fuse into a single clause, e.g.: *These cars are expensive to repair.* One could “unpack” this sentence into two independent clauses, designating two different processes: “someone repairing the cars” and “this process is expensive”. In the example the two clausal conceptions have fused into one.

II. SEMINARS

SEMINAR №1. LEXICOLOGY. MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

Issues for discussion

1. Lexicology as a branch of Linguistics.
2. Lexical units.
3. Morphemic structure of words. Classification of morphemes.
4. Types of meaning of morphemes.
5. Morphemic types of words.
6. Types of word-segmentability
7. Procedure of morphemic analysis.

EXERCISES

1. Segment the following words into morphemes.

a) define the semantic types of morphemes (root/non-root) constituting the given words:

successful, rehearsal, educational, unconsciously, disrespect, overdo, cowboy, inhaled, unjust, frank-mannered, absent-minded, guilty, myself, strawberry, misunderstood, remarkable, greyish, sixteen, grandfather, jeans, disappeared, thirty, valuable, kingdoms, forehead, journalist. participate, development, steamer, hairless, schooling, frustration, deliberate, breakage, economic, disconnect;

b) define the structural types of morphemes (free/bound/semi-bound) constituting the given words:

light-eyed, dislike, responsible, handful, fireman, elderly, clean-shaven, half-eaten, overdone, enliven, weaken, whitewashed, porter, darkness, battered, hearing, flower-pot, structural, identification, spoonful, immovable, blackboard, harmless, intake, fruitfulness, morphologically.

2. Identify the lexical meaning of morphemes in the following words:

colourless, wonderful, briefly, unbalance, homeless, changeable, discomfort, betrayal, pre-war, friendship, eyelet, kitchenette, thoughtful.

3. Classify the following words according to the part-of-speech meaning of their affixational morphemes:

weaken, sympathy, befriend, extremely, inflectional, usage, productive, arrival, actress, editor, eastward, identify, ridiculous, suitability, analyze, curious, handsome, revolution, breakage, eatable, neighbourhood, obligatory.

4. Analyze the italicized words according to their morphemic types. Identify the subtypes of polymorphic words:

1. This was because he had contacted with my *ex-wife*. 2. There are no houses near, and no *people* in it except a few *gamekeepers*: I spent *long* days in it *without* meeting a human being. 3. As to how long this war will last, it's an *unanswerable* question. 4. Adults often *look* back on their *childhood* as a *golden* age. 5. Amalie was dressed *completely* in *black*, right down to black *lipstick* and a black *earring*. 6. Well, it might not be *ladylike* but I'm going to pull my *skirt* up to get over this *fence*. 7. Don't

cook *vegetables* for too long – they’ll lose all their *goodness*. 8. That car’s been nothing but *bloody* trouble since I got it. 9. I was *breathless* after climbing the *stairs*. 10. A qualified teacher, he *moonlighted* as a cabbie in the evenings to pay the *rent*.

5. Classify the words in accordance with the type of word-segmentability they refer to: 1) complete segmentability; 2) conditional segmentability; 3) defective segmentability:

Remain, fraction, shorten, nameless, pretend, assist, lifeless, mirror, friendliness, proceed, retain, carefulness, receive, stressful, strawberry, hostage, overweight, dismiss, pocket, spacious, detail, manic, effectiveness, discuss.

6. Analyze the italicized words using the morphemic analysis.

Model: *dishonestly*

The morphemic analysis of the word is based on the application of the affixational principle and includes the following stages: 1) *dishonest-* (IC) + *-ly* (*commonly*, *slowly*) (IC/UC); 2) *dis-* (*disable*, *discrete*) (IC/UC) + *-honest* (IC/UC). The word consist of 3 UCs.

1. The student’s *disobedience* shocked the teacher. 2. She said she supported nuclear *disarmament*. 3. There’s no arguing that Beyoncé delivers the most *unforgettable* looks, especially during her 2016 Formation World Tour. 4. She looked like she was going to laugh again, but she just gave an *unladylike* snort and wagged her head. 5. She had a *beautiffulness* of soul that made any consideration of her physical plainness irrelevant. 6. Children are supposed to achieve some measure of *independence* by the time they are 18. 7. The *speechlessness* of our cat never seemed so frustrating as the time that it was seriously sick. 8. The *injustice* of the coach's accusation that I’d been lazy frustrated and angered me.

7. Read the following sentences; analyze the words in italics into their ultimate constituents.

1. ... and I’m not a *forgetter*. 2. Morris was *cheeky* with words, superbly *confident*, but he knew the value of *identical* paint. 3. William *undressed* and lay among his heaps of luggage. His anger *softened* and turned to shame, then to a light *melancholy*, soon he fell asleep. 4. Adam telephoned his page through to the “Excess”, and soon after this a *coloured singer* appeared, paddling his black suede shoes in a pool of limelight, who excited Ginger’s *disapproval*. 5. As soon as the spoke, Mr. March resented his *flirtatious* air; and Mr. March’s own manner became more *formidable* and at the same time more intimate. 6. Katherine still remained *suspicious*. For days before the dance she and Charles *re-examined* each clue with their native *subtlety*, *repetitiveness*, *realism*, and *psychological* quest. 7. The question nagged at me, *meaninglessly* important, fretting with anxiety. 8. I recall that shortly after our first *acquaintance* we had an *unfortunate* difference of opinion upon the future of the world. 9. He loved argument: he was sometimes *ashamed* of the harshness that leapt to his tongue, but when he let himself go, argument made him fierce, *cheerful*, quite *spontaneous* and *self-forgetful*.

SEMINAR №2. WORD-FORMATION

Issues for discussion

1. Main types of forming words:
 - 1.1. Affixation in English: Suffixation and Prefixation.
 - 1.2. Conversion
 - 1.3. Word-composition
2. Minor types of forming words (shortening, blending, acronymy, sound-interchange, sound imitation, reduplication, back-formation, distinctive stress).

EXERCISES

1. Analyze the structure of the derived words:

1. Puzzled by that sudden *inaccessibility*, Nick ran back to the stream. 2. It was almost a *misfortune* to get into her clutches. 3. The man's face *reddened*, his whole body *tightened*. 4. The very thought of her *ennobled* and *purified* him. 5. In a *thoughtless* moment he put his hand in his pocket. 6. His words were *playful* but his look became grave. 7. The song seemed to be in the old Irish *tonality* and the *singer* seemed *uncertain* both of his words and his voice. 8. She was so different from anyone he had ever known, with her *quietness*, her *fragility*, her dark *intelligent* eyes. 9. No fear of *under-work*, no fear of *over-work*, no fear of wage reduction in a land where none are *unemployed*. 10. He was an *ex-seaman*, *ex-boxer*, *ex-fisher*, *ex-porter* – indeed to everyone's knowledge, *ex-everything*. 11. I need not say a breach of confidence is *unthinkable*. 12. In a few moments the company *reassembled*.

2. Form words with the following productive affixes. State to what part of speech they belong to. Give their Ukrainian equivalents.

a) -er(-or), -ist, -eer(-ier), -ian(-an,-n), -ant(-ent), -ness, -ism, -dom, -hood, -al, -ship, - (i)ty, -ment, -ion(-tion), -age, -ing, -ie(-y), -ful, -less, -able (-ible), -y, -ish, -ly, -ary(-ory), -ic(-ical), -ive, -ous(-eous), -ious), -ward, -ed, -ize, -ate, -(i)fy, -en;

b) un-, de-, anti-, non-, in-(il-,im-,ir-), dis-, out-, over-, under-, re-, co-, ex-, pre-, post-, sub-, super-, extra-, ultra-, inter-, trans-, mis-, be-, en-(em-).

3. Combine one of the prefixes in Column A with one of the words in Column B to form a new word which matches one of the definitions listed below (1-16).

A	B
co- dis- im- in- inter- mid- mis- non- out- pre- re- self- sub- super- un- under-	active centred continental day fiction fortune gain heat human pack paid polite run satisfied standard worker
1. take your things out of a suitcase	_____ <i>unpacked</i> _____
2. rude	_____
3. selfish	_____
4. a story based on fact	_____
5. colleague	_____
6. happening between Europe and Asia	_____
7. noon	_____
8. not earning enough money	_____
9. go faster than the other competitors in	_____

the race	_____
10. greater than the powers of an ordinary person	_____
11. not good enough	_____
12. not working or moving	_____
13. something unlucky	_____
14. not pleased	_____
15. get something back again	_____
16. allow to get hot in advance	_____

4. Identify the following words in accordance with their derivational structure: a) suffixal derivatives; b) prefixal derivatives:

accountable, befriended, discovery, dishearten, disguise, endangerment, insensible, irresponsible, impression, indefensible, impersonal, outrageous, renewable, unwomanly, unimaginable, unfriendly, undeveloped.

5. Make any necessary corrections to the adjectives in the sentences below. The may be either of logic or word-formation. The exercise starts with an example.

unemotional

1. The British are generally regarded as ~~inemotional~~ race.
2. What's wrong? You seem very uncontented with your job these days.
3. No one is completely invulnerable to stress.
4. The police were not fooled by their unconvincing story.
5. I wouldn't trust him at all. He's one of the most dishonest men I know.
6. They seemed unaware that there was anyone else in the room.
7. The children were impatient for the film to start.
8. I couldn't help thinking that all their lavish praise was really unsincere.
9. I'm afraid Joan is very disattentive in lessons.
10. He's not very good-looking but, there again, he's not inattractive either.

6. Fill the blanks with the suitable prefixal antonyms of the root word suggested in brackets.

1. She was hateful, of course, but she was ... (resist). 2. A strange, wild, haughty looking creature! Swithin observed his clothes with some ... (approve). 3. He looked at his son. Now they had actually come to discuss a subject connected with the relations between the sexes he felt ... (trust). 4. The teacher expressed his great ... (content) with the works of his pupils. 5. He was still mysterious, withdrawn within himself, extraordinarily ... (interest) in his physical surroundings. 6. And though nine-tenth of the inhabitants never went outside the gates, the definite and absolute closing of them ... (moral) all hearts. 7. 'Do you think I don't know,' said my aunt, 'what kind of life you must have led, that poor, unhappy ... (direct) baby?' 8. A wife has to overlook the little ... (perfect) in her husband's behaviour? 9. There can be no ... (equal) in love. 10. She was thus quite ... (intend) an interested observer of their little interview. 11. An ... (distinct) idea he had, that the child was desolate and in want of help. 12. He was a man of ... (limit) wealth.

7. Construct words or phrases to replace the underlined words.

Example: He's in favour of the American approach. He's **pro-American**.

1. The BBC tries to avoid pronouncing foreign words incorrectly.
2. Most people say they have to work too hard but are paid too little.
3. He dated his cheque with a date that was later than the real date.
4. She's still on good terms with the man who used to be her husband.
5. He made so many mistakes in the letter that he had to write it again.

8. Group the words the derivational affixes of which express: 1) 'full of / characterized by'; 2) 'liking for'; 3) 'similarity / resemblance':

talkative, careful, flowerlike, thoughtful, creative, cuboid, feathery, quarrelsome, cheerful, ladylike, babyish, bibliophile, joyful, humanoid, clockwise, wonderful, paramilitary, frolicsome, fiendish, hateful, sorrowful.

9. Combine the words the derivational affixes of which express: 1) 'small' or 'not enough'; 2) 'exceeding / a great extent' or 'a large amount of / a great deal of'; 3) 'not' / 'without' or 'opposite of'.

microsurgery, homeless, oversleep, ringlet, anti-war, priceless, duckling, reddish, disapprove, non-smoker, outgrow, superrich, underdevelopment, ageless, multicoloured, depopulated, apolitical, hypercreative, overwork, mini-market, microfilm, ultramodern, lifeless, disorder, kitchenette, mistrust, superclever, miniskirt, greenish, starlet, extra-soft, childless, countless, outlive.

10. Classify the given words into: 1) suffixal derivatives; 2) prefixal derivatives; 3) conversions; 4) compound words.

Aircraft-carrier, broaden, to winter, independent, ex-vice-president, to empty, to water, incredible, age-long, respectable, voiceless, improbable, to dry, hairdryer.

11. Complete the sentences below with suitable nouns or adjectives formed from the words given in brackets. See the example provided.

1. Tony is a terribly *competitive* (compete) person. 2. Most adolescents go through periods of great ... (insecure). 3. Limited exposure to the sun's rays can be ... (benefit) to health. 4. Daniel shows very little ... (aware) of how others see him. 5. The confusion over the diplomats' names caused a great deal of ... (embarrass). 6. Although she appeared calm, you could hear the ... (anxious) in her voice. 7. I've always regarded him as a man of great ... (sincere). 8. Monica was always very ... (resent) of the fact that she was never given the chance of going to university. 9. I'm really fed up with her air of superiority – she's just so ... (dismiss) of everyone else's ideas. 10. Oh, it's a delightful little restaurant. Tasteful decor, excellent food and, most important, ... (attend) waiters!

12. Define the structural types of the following compound words:

wall-eye, bridesmaid, tragicomic, keyhole, Franco-American, can-opener, mainland, backbone, one-eyed, bluebell, doorbell trustworthy, operating-room, hydro-electric,

gentleman, time-tested, watchtower, eggplant, dish-washer, see-saw, home-made, townsfolk, handicraft, homesick, two-year old.

13. Give structural formulas of the following words.

Model: *yellowness*

The structural formula of the word *yellowness* is **a + -sf** → N. This word is suffixational derivative.

Morality, longish, rebuild, cinema-goer, to age, doubtless, to dress, incorrect, a cut, dance-lover, eastward, blonde-haired, to monkey, ex-wife, irresponsible, to light.

14. State the type and the way of forming words.

Model 1: *impression*

The type of forming the word *impression* is **derivation**. The way of forming it is **affixation**.

Model 2: *cupboard*

The type of forming the word *cupboard* is **composition**.

Pale-green, to undergo, a jump, prosperous, to night, a peace-maker, breakage, mother-in-law, international, to empty, a bridesmaid, management, narrow-minded, knowledge, a driveway, a baby-sitter, the poor, unknown, play-acting, a fall, whiteness, week-long, to dress, marriage, business, sportsman, to nurse.

15. Read the following sentences. Define what part of speech the words in italics are and what parts of speech they are derived from.

1. "Everybody has *colds*," said aunt Kate readily. 2. A butterfly *winged* its way into the air. 3. Her heart *hungered* for action. 4. The place was *crowded* with doctors and their wives. 5. The pages had *yellowed* with age. 6. And Mrs. Bendall, *threading* her needle, pursed her lips. 6. His face *cleared*. 7. A tall man *elbowed* into the crowd. 8. It is a matter of daily wrapping ourselves up more and more in ideas and feelings, *likes* and *dislikes* that gradually draw us apart. 9. The *hows* and *whys* escaped me, but the psychological pattern was clear. 10. In spite of all your talk about facts you *blind* yourself to the greatest facts of all. 11. She is an awful *tease*. 12. He was certainly on the *move*. 13. Soldiers in red coats passed in *twos* and *threes*. 14. We are all *equals*. 15. She *busied* herself with the papers. 16. Mr. Watkins was a *nobody*.

16. Identify the type of forming words.

a. Coke < coca-cola; hols < holidays; crocogator; slanguage; VIP; long – length; mumble; UNO; compound (adj) – compound (v); breathe (v) – breath (n) tend < attend; Oxbridge; netizen; circs < circumstances; protest (n) – protest (v); enthuse; televise; UFO; sing – song; transceiver.

b. Cablegram; mark < market; FIFA; bathe (v) < bath (n); bang; cuckoo; perfect (adj) – perfect (v); shelve (v) – shelf (n); thump-thump; intuit; permit (n) – permit (v); neigh; NASA; cert < certainly; deep (adj) – depth (n); quacking; abstract (n) – abstract (v); fizz; flexitime.

17. Classify cases of shortening into the following groups: 1) initial shortenings; 2) medial shortening; 3) final shortening; 4) initial and final shortenings.

Vac < vacuum cleaner, tec < detective, gator < alligator, chute < parachute, Frisco < San-Francisco, soccer < Association Football, miss < mistress, bus < omnibus, quiz < inquisitive, curio < curiosity, fan < fanatic.

18. Sort out the given acronyms according to their pronunciation: 1) those that are read as ordinary English words; 2) those with the alphabetic reading.

MP – Member of Parliament, FIFA – Federal International Football Association, the FO – the Foreign Office, ESOL – English for Speakers of Other Languages, the FCO – the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, EAP – English for Academic Purposes, DEFRA – the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, the FDI – the Food and Drug Administration, TEFL – teaching of English as a Foreign Language, FAQ – frequently asked questions, ESP – English for Specific Purposes, NASA – National Aeronautics and Space Administration, ESL – English as a Second Language.

19a. Give English words or phrases corresponding to the following Latin abbreviations:

A.D., a.m., e.g., B.C., P.S., cf., id., ibid., etc., i.e., NB.

b. Rewrite the advertisement about the flat in its full form:

A lux. s/c sgl. fum. gdn. fit. 1 rm., k.& b. C.H.

Cpts., Col.T.V., tel, fridge, ckr., h/c.

\$180 p.m. Refs. rqd.

Avail, mid. Apr.

Tel: 01-678-1235 Evgs after 7.

20. Pick out all the abbreviations from the sentences given below. Comment on their formation.

1. Matilda spent weeks taking notes for a Ph.D. thesis. 2. The doctors examine X-rays on high-quality teleradiology monitors and conduct video consultations with patients. 3. He heard several shells fall in and around Company H.Q. just as he came along the trench. 4. The National Commission on AIDS reported that up to half of all Americans with AIDS are either homeless or are about to lose their homes. 5. She's nice enough, but she's got the IQ of an artichoke. 6. It was only mid-March, but already winter coats had been shed. 6. "Fetch me an ABC, will you?" 7. The man wore khakis, a T-shirt, and basketball sneakers. 8. The UV rays from the sun attack the nucleus of the skin cell. 9. He had a nice UNESCO pension, plus stock in the Pittsburgh firm. 10. "I'm going to be a candidate," said Mor. "Whether I'll be M.P. depends on the electorate."

21. Distribute the given words formed by means of the polysemantic suffix-ship according to three meanings of this suffix into three corresponding groups: 1) 'skills or abilities'; 2) 'position or occupation'; 3) 'relationship or connection between people'.

friendship, showmanship, workmanship, kinship, doctorship, partnership, comradeship, musicianship, chairmanship, professorship, lectureship, sportsmanship, acquaintanceship, studentship, salesmanship.

22. Sort out the words according to the lexico-grammatical character of the base prefixes are added to: 1) deverbial; 2) denominal; 3) deadjectival; 4) deadverbial.

Amoral, informally, non-smoker, impatient, illogical, unlearn, uneasy, irrational, dishonour, destabilize, atypical, non-verbal, unlock, disability, independently, decamp, immature, unbutton, illegal.

23. Read the sentences. Define the means by which the words in italics are built.

1. A *hump-backed* moon was coming up, *brightening* the eastern sky and silhouetting the distant scraps of the Blue Mountains in a solid wall. 2. If I were a sculptor and desired to idealize the successful man of affairs, *iron* of nerve and *leathery* of conscience, I should choose Mr. Neil Gibson as my model. 3. It would be done as she had *stage-managed* it at her *dress-rehearsal*. 4. She had *nursed* the girl in her *infancy*. 5. By the side of the road was a thin mound of turf, six feet by one, with a *moorstone* to the west, and on it someone had thrown a *black-thorn* spray and a *handful* of *bluebells*. 6. He rolled cigarettes in the cowboy fashion with exquisite *deftness*, manipulating the tobacco and brown paper magically between the thumb and two fingers of his right hand. 7. It was a long hall, *papered* and *carpeted* in dark green. 8. If she had long lost the *blueeyed*, *flower-like* charm, the cool slim purity of face and form, the *apple-blossom* colouring, which had so swiftly and so oddly affected Ashurst twenty-six years ago, she was still at forty-three a *comely* and faithful companion, whose cheeks were *faintly* mottled, and whose *grey-blue* eyes had acquired a certain fullness. 8. He flung his cigarette on the floor and ground his heel on it; *O.K.*, it didn't work anymore. 9. Any *pro* will tell you that the worst thing possible is to *overrehearse*. 10. My dear *Doc*, you were right!

24. Explain the difference in the meaning of the semantically related words in italics.

aggressivity – aggressiveness

1. *Aggressivity* of the company helped it to win the market, though attitudes towards it were different (“Successful business”, Oxford University Press, 1991). 2. His *aggressiveness* took me aback (M.Tess).

pretentiousness – pretension

1. Tim was a person of a social *pretension* and there's been a boarder-line between him and his partner... He hated the *pretentiousness* of business parties and official ceremonies (J.Lingsey).

callousness – callosity

1. Anna realised that people were made to suffer. But such *callousness* distressed her (R.Tremain). 2. *Callosity* of feelings is one main problem of modern society.

responsibility – responsiveness

1. Wives still take most of the *responsibility* for the children (Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary, p. 1235). 2. The most essential thing is *responsiveness* between parents and children (Ibid.).

connection – connectedness

1. What is the *connection* between the two ideas? (A.S. Hornby. Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English). 2. Looking back through other cultures and religions there has been a sense of all *connectedness* between people in both a spiritual and material way (B. Symes).

SEMINAR №3. ASPECTS OF LEXICAL MEANING. MOTIVATION AND SEMANTIC CHANGE

Issues for discussion

1. Semasiology. Approaches to Defining Meaning.
2. Types of Meaning.
3. Aspects of lexical meaning.
4. Word-meaning and motivation. Types of motivation.
5. Semantic change.

EXERCISES

1. Identify the denotational aspect of the lexical meaning of the words in each group.

1. indignation, fury, ire, rage, irritation;
2. beautiful, lovely, handsome, pretty, bonny;
3. kip, nap, doze, slumber, snooze;
4. happy, delighted, pleased, cheerful, joyful;
5. like, admire, take pleasure in, be pleased with, fancy.

2. Comment on the lexical meaning of the words in italics.

1. She *blew* him a kiss, she was gone. 2. He tried *to thaw* her with a smile. 3. He was happy to see her *fishing* for compliments, and happy to give them to her. 4. Sophie was *apologetic*. "I will try, but I am afraid I..." 5. "Hello," she said, turning her head so Brody could *plant* a kiss on her cheek. 6. He *pottered* about the room a bit, babbling at intervals. The boy seemed *cuckoo*. 7. He'll *work* himself up till he gets that pain in the tummy, and then he won't be able to eat his supper. 8. "Well, so *long*. Thanks very much. It's awfully good of you." 9. He put her coat across her shoulders. "I'll *walk* you back to the hotel," he said. 10. His face *broke* into a guilty smile.

3. Point out the denotational aspect in all the lexical meanings of the words *warm* and *face*

Warm (adj)

1. fairly hot in a way that is comfortable and pleasant;
2. warm clothes and buildings keep heat in and prevent you from feeling cold;
3. a warm place;
4. kind and friendly in a way that makes other people feel comfortable.

Face (n)

1. the front part of your head, where your eyes, nose, and mouth are;
2. the expression on someone's face, that shows how they are feeling;
3. a side of a mountain or building that is high and very steep;
4. one side of a coin;
5. the way that something looks or appears to people;
6. the front of a clock, where the numbers are.

4. Identify the denotative and connotative elements of meaning in the following pairs of words:

to conceal – to disguise, to choose – to select, to draw – to paint, money – cash, odd – queer, photograph – picture, big – large, clever – wisdom, sky – heavens.

5. Find out the difference in the denotational aspects of the words: *appreciate, value, cherish, assess, evaluate* (analyze the first meaning of each word only).

6. Write the definitions to illustrate as many meanings as possible for the following polysemantic words:

face, heart, nose, smart, to lose.

7. Identify the denotational and connotational aspects in the lexical meanings of the word *cool* (adj)

1. rather cold, often in a pleasant way;
2. cool clothes prevent you from feeling too hot;
3. calm and not nervous, upset, embarrassed;
4. behaving in a way that is not as friendly as you expect;
5. (informal) very attractive, fashionable, relaxed, in a way that people admire;
6. cool colour is one, such as blue or green, that makes you think of cool things;
7. used with an amount of money for emphasizing how large it is.

8. Look at the words below. Can you tell the difference between them?

advertisements *commercials* *posters* *flyers*

Which one fits in the sentence below?

Someone was handing out ... advertising local sales.

9. Identify the type of motivation in the following words. Group the words according to their type of motivation: 1) phonetical; 2) morphological; 3) semantic.

A. 1) *Buzz* – a low, continuous humming or murmuring sound, made by or similar to that made by an insect; 2) *driver* – someone who drives a vehicle, especially as his job; 3) *click* – a short sharp sound as of a switch being operated or of two hard objects coming smartly into contact; 4) *careless* – not taking enough care; 5) *leg* – the part of a piece of furniture such as a table or chair that supports it and raises it off the floor; 6) *bang* – a sharp knock or blow; 7) *horse* – a piece of equipment shaped like a large box that is used in gymnastics; 8) *singlehood* – the state of being single rather than married; 9) *sizzle* – a hissing sound, as of food frying or cooking;

B. 1) *Wall* – emotions or behavior that prevent people from feeling close to each other; 2) *hand-made* – made by hand, not machine; 3) *piggish* – selfish; 4) *blue-eyed* – having blue eyes; 5) *boom* – a loud, deep, resonant sound; 6) *sound bite* – a short comment by a politician or another famous person that is taken from a longer conversation or speech and broadcast alone because it is especially interesting or effective; 7) *leaflet* – a small, often folded piece of printed paper, often advertising something, usually given free to people; 8) *quack* – the characteristic harsh sound made by a duck; 9) *streamlet* – a small stream (a natural flow of water).

10. State what kind of association is represented in the following set of words:

- 1) Hand – the hour hand;
- 2) Neck – a neck of a bottle;
- 3) Foot – the foot of a mountain, of a bed;
- 4) Face – the face of the clock;
- 5) Leg – a leg of a dog, of a chair, of a table;
- 6) Tongue – tongues of fire/flame;
- 7) Eye – eye of a needle;
- 8) Mouth – the mouth of a pot, of a river, of a cave.

11. Pick out the metaphors from the following combinations.

- 1) a green bush; a green apple; green with envy;
- 2) seeds of evil; seeds of plant;
- 3) a fruitful tree; fruitful work;
- 4) a fruitless effort; a fruitless tree;
- 5) the root of a word; the root of a tree;
- 6) a blooming rose; blooming health;
- 7) fading or faded beauty; a fading or faded flower.

12. Explain the logic of metaphoric transference in the following collocations.

A branch of linguistics, a dull fellow, a film star, a fruitless effort, a green youth, a ray of hope, bitter thoughts, naked truth, hot rage, the eye of a needle, a thin excuse, to stumble through the text, to bum with impatience, to shower smb. with questions, on wings of joy.

13. Explain the logical associations in the following groups of meaning for the same words.

- a. 1) the hand of a child – the hand of a clock; 2) the bridge across-the-river – the bridge of the nose; 3) the tongue of a person – the tongue of a comb; 4) the coat of a girl – the coat of a dog; 5) the neck of a woman – the neck of a bottle; 6) the mouth of a child – the mouth of a river.
- b. 1) green grass – green years; 2) nickel (metal) – nickel (a coin in the US and Canada worth five cents); 3) glass – a glass; 4) bronze (metal) – a bronze (a statue of a person or animal, made of bronze); 5) Kashmir (town in North India) – cashmere (very soft wool that comes from a type of goat).

SEMINAR №4. POLYSEMY and HOMONYMY

Issues for discussion

1. Polysemy.
2. Diachronic vs Synchronic Approach to Polysemy.
3. Semantic Structure of a Polysemantic Word.
4. Polysemy and Context. Types of Context.
5. Homonymy.
6. Classifications of Homonyms.
7. Polysemy and Homonymy.

EXERCISES

1. Read the sentences in which the polysemantic word *simple* is used. Give all the lexico-semantic variants constituting the semantic structure of this word. Check yourself by a dictionary.

- 1) The book tries to give *simple* explanations of some very complex scientific ideas.
- 2) Sally likes clothes that are *simple* but elegant.
- 3) The *simple* fact is that he wants a divorce.
- 4) Archaeologists found several *simple* tools at the site. A knife is a *simple* tool.
- 5) Her grandparents were *simple* people who never had much money. I'm just a *simple* farmer.
- 6) You may be joking but she's *simple* enough to believe you.
- 7) I'm afraid old Jack is a bit *simple*.

2. Give the lexico-semantic variants constituting the semantic structure of the word *school* in the following sentences. Check yourself by a dictionary.

- 1) The kids will be at *school* until 3.00 today.
- 2) I didn't like *school* very much.
- 3) The *School* of Management in Cornwall is considered the best one in the country.
- 4) Harvard, which I graduated from 5 years ago, is a very good *school*.
- 5) What you think about this probably depends on which *school* of economics you belong to.
- 6) In the distance we could see a *school* of whales.

3. Define all lexico-semantic variants of the verb *to think* in the following sentences. Look up in a dictionary.

- 1) I don't *think* there's a bank in the village.
- 2) Nobody seriously *thought* of him as a candidate for the job.
- 3) Let's stop and *think* before we do anything else.
- 4) He could never *think* of the woman's name.
- 5) It was kind of you to *think* of our daughter.
- 6) I expect we were all *thinking* the same thing.
- 7) I never *thought* that I'd end up working here.

4. State which of these words possesses wider polysemy: *man, fellow, change (n), federation, order*.

5. Compare the semantic structure of the following words: a) *slender and skinny*; b) *to stop and to cease*.

6. Explain the meaning of each italicized word in given collocations:

- 1) *Smart* (adj).

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

2) **Stubborn** (adj)

A stubborn child, a stubborn look, a stubborn horse, stubborn resistance, a stubborn fighting, a stubborn cough, a stubborn depression.

3) **Sound** (adj)

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

4) **Root** (n)

Edible roots, the root of the tooth, the root of the matter, the root of all evil, square root, cube root.

5) **Perform** (v)

To perform one's duty, to perform an operation, to perform a dance, to perform a play.

6) **Kick** (v)

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

7. Sort out the following sentences with the verb *to see* according to the meanings:

1. visual apprehension;
2. to visit somebody;
3. mental comprehension
4. meeting somebody.

1) Don't you see my meaning? 2) Mr. Thomas is seeing a client at 2:30. 3) If you shut your eyes, you cannot see. 4) Can I see you on business? 5) Why not see your lawyer. 6) I can see that you are not very happy with the situation. 7) Let me see your pictures. 8) I wish you could see you again some time. 9) I had not seen him for a long time. 10) He just won't see the reason. 11) It is dark and I can hardly see to do my work. 12) Ian laughed politely even though he couldn't see the joke. 13) I have to see my teacher about my grades. 14) We'll see each other at my house tonight. 15) You ought to see a doctor about those symptoms.

8. Complete the examples below with the words from the box, choosing one word which fits in the gaps in all three examples. Then check your answers by looking up the headword in the dictionary.

post deal blow mean mind

1. A strong wind was _____ across the moors. Visitors can watch the men _____ glass in the workshop. The victim was apparently killed by a _____ to the head with a heavy object.
2. The word _____ something different in French. I'd feel _____ saying no. I didn't _____ to step on your toe.
3. I wonder what's going on in his _____. I don't _____ going if no one else wants to. He told me to _____ my own business.
4. His first shot hit the _____. The Prime Minister appointed her to the _____ of ambassador. New job openings are _____ every day on their website.
5. The government must now _____ with the problem of high unemployment. She spent a good _____ of time on the project. We've cut a _____ with Germany on wine imports.

9. Give homonyms to the following words. State their types according to W. Skeat's classification.

1. miss, fare, weak;
2. wear, for, night;
3. pail, right, way;
4. will, sole, plane.

10. Comment on the meanings of the word *thing* as used in the following examples. Is it a phenomenon of homonymy or polysemy?

1. I gave her a little *thing* for her birthday
2. Sir Barnet was proud of making people acquainted with people. He liked *the thing* for its own sake.
3. This is very bad, for fog is the only *thing* that can spoil my plan.
4. He was satisfied with most *things*, and, above all other *things*, with himself.
5. His financial worries were *a thing* of the past.
6. There are some interesting *things* in your report.
7. A funny *thing* happened to me today.
8. Who's that pretty young *thing* I saw you with yesterday?

11. Analyze the words *bar*, *ring* and *chair* in the following phrases in terms of differentiation between lexico-semantic variants of one and the same word (polysemy) and different words having identical expression (homonymy):

1. **Bar:** a bar of chocolate, a bar of soap, poverty is no bar to happiness, the prisoner at the bar, bars of the National Anthem, there was a bar of red across the sky, a snack bar, to serve at the bar;
2. **Ring:** the ring of the doorbell, give me a ring, to have a ring on a finger, to sit in a ring around the fire, to leave the ring, the ring of the hammer, an international drugs ring;
3. **Chair:** to sit on a hard wooden chair, to have the Chair of Philosophy at the University, all questions must be addressed to the chair, he is the former chair of the Atomic Energy Commission.

12. State whether all of the following meanings belong to the polysemantic word *voice* or homonymous word.

1. A child's *voice* is heard.
- 2) My father had a fine bass *voice*.
- 3) The *voice* of ordinary party members was rarely listened to.
- 4) The *voice-voicelessness* distinction sets up some English consonants in opposed pairs.
- 5) Her article gave *voice* to the anger felt by many local people.

13. Classify the following italicized homonyms. Use prof. A.I. Smirnitsky's classification system.

1. a) He should give the *ball* in your honour as the bride.
b) The boy was playing with a *ball*;
2. a) He wished he could explain about his *left* ear.
b) He *left* the sentence unfinished.
3. a) I wish you could stop *lying*.

- b) The yellow mouse was still dead, *lying* as it had fallen in the clear liquid.
4. a) This time, he turned on the *light*.
b) He wore \$300 suits with *light* ties and he was a man you would instinctively trust anywhere.
5. a) The *page* in a uniform helped guests in a hotel with their luggage.
b) Open your books at *page* 24.
6. a) The sun *rose* at 5.36 yesterday.
b) I'll send you roses, one *rose* for each year of your life.
7. a) The pain was almost more than he could *bear*.
b) Catch the *bear* before you sell his skin.
8. a) To *can* means to put up in airtight tins or jars for preservation.
b) A man *can* die but once.

14. Classify the given words into: 1) homonyms proper; 2) homophones; 3) homographs. Give meanings of these words.

1) Made (adj) – maid (n); 2) row (n) – row (n); 3) week (n) – weak (adj); 4) seal (n) – seal (n); 5) tear (v) – tear (n); 6) bread (n) – bred (adj); 7) band (n) – band (n); 8) sum (n) – some (pron); 9) fall (n) – fall (v); 10) wind (n) – wind (v); 11) base (n) – base (v); 12) desert (v) – desert (n); 13) hare (n) – hair (n); 14) sewer (n) – sewer (n); 15) corn (n) – corn (n).

15. Find the homophones to the following words spell them and explain their meaning in English.

Heir, dye, cent, tale, sea, week, peace, sun, meat, steel, knight, sum, coarse, write, sight, hare.

16. Fill in the blanks choosing the right word.

1) Out of...out of mind (*cite, site, sight*). 2) Do not look a gift...in the mouth (*horse, hoarse*). 3) It never rains, but it....(*pours, paws*). 4) No...without sweat (*sweet, suite*). 5) Do not run with the...and hunt with the hounds (*hair, hare*). 6) All is...in love and war (*fare, fair*). 7) Fame is chiefly a matter of...at the right moment (*die, dye*). 8) When two people ride the...., one must ride behind (*hoarse, horse*).

SEMINAR№5. PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Issues for discussion

1. Phraseology. Free word-groups vs phraseological units.
2. Classifications of Phraseological Units.
3. Semantic Structure of Phraseological Units.
4. Types of Transference of Phraseological Units.

EXERCISES

1. Identify which of the italicized units are phraseological units and which are free word-groups.

1. The author *leaves the beaten track* and offers a new treatment of the subject.
2. The tourist *left the beaten track* and saw a lot of interesting places.
3. I didn't expect that he would *throw cold water* upon our project.
4. He *threw some cold water* on his face to wake up.

5. *Keep the eye on* the child.
6. *Keep the butter* in the refrigerator.
7. *The reverse side of the medal* is we'll have to do it ourselves.
8. Have a look *at the reverse side of the jacket*.
9. I couldn't stand that noise any longer. I *lost my temper*.
10. Where do you think you *lost your wallet*?

2. Compare the meaning of the expressions in bold type. Which of them are phraseological? Give Ukrainian equivalents.

1. Where do you think you **lost your purse**?
2. When **losing the game** one shouldn't **lose one's temper**.
3. Have a look at **the reverse side of the coat**.
4. **The reverse side of the medal** is that we'll have to do it ourselves.
5. **Keep the butter** in the refrigerator.
6. **Keep an eye on** the child.
7. He threw some **cold water** on his face to wake up.
8. I didn't expect that he would **throw cold water** upon our project.
9. The tourists **left the beaten track** and saw a lot of interesting places.
10. The author **leaves the beaten track** and offers a new treatment of the subject.
11. I don't want to **have a busman's holiday**.
12. Let's **stretch a point** for him.
13. The weak **go to the wall**.
14. She looks **as if butter wouldn't melt in her mouth**.

3. A) The expressions below are connected with using language. Match phrases with their definitions on the right.

1. talk at cross-purpose	a. to be unable to understand
2. speak one's mind	b. to be unable to say anything when a very talkative person is speaking
3. make head or tail of smth.	c. to misunderstand each other
4. get a word in edgeways	d. to misunderstand things completely
5. give smb. a good talking to	e. say exactly what you think
6. get the wrong end of the stick	f. keep the conversation going
7. keep the ball rolling	g. to finish up
8. talk smb. down	h. to say negative things you when you're not there
9. talk behind smb.'s back	i. to reproach / scold smb.
10. small talk	j. to talk in a way that suggest the speaker is superior
	k. to say stupid things
	l. to say nothing serious

B) Fill in the spaces with expressions above.

1. She is always dominating in conversation and he had a hard time
2. It's gone too far this time. I shall have to
3. Sarah is very direct and always
4. We couldn't ... with the other group because they turned out to be uncooperative and dull-witted.
5. I hate people I prefer saying things openly.
6. He's I really like him as a friend. But I'm not in love with him.
7. Parents shouldn't ... their children.
8. I can't ... what he's saying. It sounds absolutely incomprehensible.

9. They couldn't decide on the day of their departure. They were
10. I get bored with ... ; let's get down to serious matters.

4. There are many expressions in English which use words to do with the weather. See if you can understand the meaning of the expressions in these sentences.

1. I'm feeling a bit *under the weather* as I think I've got a cold coming on.
2. Sarah accused me of *making heavy weather of it* but, actually, it really was hard work.
3. This year his business has managed *to weather the storm*, but I'm afraid that next year things are going to get together.
4. Unfortunately, as soon as David *got wind of* my plan to sell the car, he put a stop to it.
5. The old lady said she always *saved* some of her pension *for a rainy day*.
6. There was *a storm of protest* in Parliament when the Chancellor announced new tax increases.

5. Sort out the italicized phraseological units into: 1) phraseological fusions; 2) phraseological unities; 3) phraseological collocations.

Model: I don't believe he is a man *to commit murder*. *To commit murder* is a phraseological collocation. It denotes 'to kill somebody'.

1. Well, let's admit there were mistakes on both sides; we'll *bury the past* and try to make a fresh start.
2. He produced a huge silver case containing what looked *at first sight* like small cheap cigar.
3. You can't keep a secret – you see no reason why you shouldn't *spill the beans*.
4. But other than dining out, which I like, I'm *a home bird*. I'm not one for a big social whirl.
5. The boy is quite impossible. From now I *wash my hands of* him.
6. 'Can I go with you to this party?' 'We *shall only be talking business*. You wouldn't be interested.'
7. To say you *lead a busy life* is not an answer to whether you take enough exercise.
8. The grey colour *is in fashion* in this season.
9. *I've been working my fingers to the bone* to get the dress ready in time for the wedding.
10. *I'll be hanging up my boots* next year. I think I deserve a rest after running the business for thirty years.

6. Analyze the italicized phraseological units according to phraseological variance. Identify cases when a) changes are possible and b) changes are impossible.

It was unbearable. Her behavior made me *fly off the handle/handles*.

1. 'I can't take it or leave it.' 'So you say, but anybody who experiments with drugs *is riding a tiger/panther*.'
2. My parents hated the idea of me joining the army. They always said it wasn't a suitable occupation for *the fair/fairer sex*.
3. When I saw the nurse's face, *my heart sank into my boots/into my brown boots*.

4. Jackson is a hot-tempered man; I wouldn't *cross swords/a sword with* him, if I were you.
5. We can make our own decisions without you *putting/sticking your oar in*.
6. Our builder *is taking his time/his free time*, isn't he?
7. We must make it a *hard and fast/firm rule* not to allow any parent to enter a classroom without first speaking to the headmaster.
8. Politics is meant to be boring, and boring people carry it out more competently than *flash Harries/a flash Harry*.
9. But when he learns that officialdom has again *reared its head/its ugly head* and is planning the destruction of his last home, his fighting spirit returns.

7. Substitute the italicized words for the appropriate phraseological units from the list: *to join hands, to get out of hand, blood and thunder, hot under the collar, out of a blue sky, as cool as cucumber, the upper crust, as green as grass,*

1. We must *unite* with our friends in Africa.
2. She dropped upon me *unexpectedly* and began asking questions which I had to answer.
3. I thought there would have been protestations and tears when I told her I wanted to move out of the flat, but no, she stayed *calm*.
4. She was *naïve* when she was 15 but other girls in the typing pool taught her the ways of the world.
5. When his son was in Madrid, the boy *ill-behaved* and caused many difficulties.
6. He got very *angry* when I suggested that he might be mistaken.
7. There were at least five murders in that *violent* story.
8. Joan belongs to *the aristocracy*; you can tell by the way she walks and talks.
9. You should not exaggerate her attraction for *men*.
10. I don't like to hear people sneering at positions and titles they'd have accepted *immediately* if they'd got the offer.

8. Choose a, b or c as the best alternative. Say whether there are corresponding idioms in Ukrainian.

I've got a frog in my throat.

- a) I keep having to clear my throat.
- b) I've got a sore throat.
- c) Something I've eaten is stuck in my throat.

Mary's got butterflies in her stomach.

- a) She's feeling nervous.
- b) She's got indigestion.
- c) She feels sick.

That vase is rather a white elephant.

- a) It's old and very valuable.
- b) Even though it was probably quite expensive, it's useless.
- c) It's big and simple design.

He chickened out of climbing the tree.

- a) He refused to climb the tree.
- b) He apologized for not being able to climb the tree.
- c) He decided not to climb the tree after all, because he was afraid to.

David drives at a snail's pace.

- a) David drives very carefully.
- b) David drives very slowly.
- c) David drives in the middle of the road.

There is something fishy about him.

- a) He smells.
- b) He likes swimming.
- c) There's something about him that I don't entirely trust.

You look very sheepish.

- a) You look terrified.
- b) You look ashamed of yourself.
- c) You look warm.

The little girl shed a few crocodile tears.

- a) She shed big tears.
- b) Her tears were not real tears of sorrow.
- c) She was crying because she was angry.

I haven't been to the cinema for donkey's years.

- a) I haven't been to the cinema for a few years.
- b) I haven't been to the cinema for many years.
- c) I haven't been to the cinema for ages.

Jane thinks she's the cat's whiskers.

- a) Jane's too self-important.
- b) Jane's shy.
- c) Jane's mad.

9. State the *evaluational* and *emotive macrocomponents* of meaning in the given phraselogical units.

Model: *to hit the roof* – ‘to lose one's temper suddenly and violently’: If I'm late again he'll hit the roof. Evaluation is negative. Spoken with disapproval.

1. *to give somebody carte blanche* – ‘to allow or authorize smb. to do, or say as he likes make his own arrangements, use his own initiative’: They employed an interior decorator and gave him carte blanche to do the place as if it were his own.

2. *a cuckoo in the nest* – ‘somebody who shares in or takes over privileges, tasks that belong to others’: You've gained a lot from this deal, but that is not fair. You are a cuckoo in the nest.

3. *to show one's mettle* – ‘to prove to be good at doing something by succeeding in a difficult situation’: A relative newcomer to the game, he's certainly showed his mettle in the last two games.

4. *hats off to somebody* – ‘something that is said to express admiration for someone’: Hats off to her – it takes a lot of courage to go traveling on your own at that age.

5. *a fine kettle of fish* – ‘a difficult situation’: That's a fine kettle of fish – the car won't start and I have to leave in five minutes.

6. *to keep up with the Joneses* – ‘to try to own all the same things as people you know in order to seem as good as them’: Her only concern in life was keeping up with the Joneses.

7. *to lead the field* – ‘to be more successful than anyone else in business or in an activity’: There are some areas of medical research where Russian scientists still lead the field.

8. *a fair-weather friend* – ‘someone who is only your friend when you are happy and successful’: I had a lot of money and I knew a lot of people, but most of them turned out to be fair-weather friends.

10. Match the sentence halves.

1. Something you were looking forward to
2. Don't worry – if I help you revise
3. She didn't get a place at university
4. I applied for a part-time job at the supermarket
5. “Did you enjoy the concert last night with Mary?” – “We didn't go. I waited an hour, but...”
6. This painting can't possibly be an original
7. Don't waste time chatting
8. The teacher asked the pupils who had broken the window, but
 - A so she has settled for a job at a bank instead.
 - B she didn't turn up.
 - C may not come off, so be prepared.
 - D I think you've been taken in.
 - E get on with your essay.
 - F I'm sure you'll get through the exam.
 - G they are going to take me on.
 - H at first no one owned up.

11. Complete the similes with *a wet hen, a bee, ABC, an ox, a lobster, a picture, bandicoot, cucumber, a fox*

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| 1. as cool as..... | 2. as busy as..... | 3. as cunning as..... |
| 4. as pretty as..... | 5. as strong as..... | 6. as mad as..... |
| 7. as red as..... | 8. as easy as..... | 9. as poor as..... |

12. Match the halves of these proverbs and decide what they are really about.

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|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1) It takes all sorts | a) and he'll take a mile |
| 2) Many hands | b) out of mind |
| 3) Give him an inch | c) three's crowd |
| 4) Out of sight | d) to make a world |
| 5) Two's company | e) makes Jack a dull boy |
| 6) All work and no play | f) make light work |
| 7) You can't have your cake | g) and I'll scratch yours |
| 8) A new broom | h) run deep |
| 9) A bad workman | i) and eat it |
| 10) You scratch my back | k) to be wise after the event |
| 11) Still waters | l) sweeps clean |
| 12) It's easy | m) always blames his tools |

Now can you think of any Ukrainian proverbs and sayings, which suggest similar ideas?

SEMINAR № 6. ETYMOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH WORDS

Issues for discussion

1. Etymology. Native and Borrowed Words.
2. Words of Native Origin.
3. Borrowed Words.
4. International Words.
5. Etymological Doublets and Triplets.
6. The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary.
7. Assimilation of Borrowings.

EXERCISES

1. Single out the following words of native origin according to 1) words of Indo-European origin; 2) words of Common Germanic origin; 3) English words proper.

Woman, sister, glove, lady, slow, green, know, sand, long, grass, flood, boy, seven, high, eat, sheriff, widow, answer, life, lip, call, small, bird, corn, silver, ten, day, lord, ship, we, sun, girl.

2. In the sentences given below find the examples of Scandinavian borrowings. How can the Scandinavian borrowings be identified?

1. He went on to say that he was sorry to hear that I had been ill. 2. She was wearing a long blue skirt and a white blouse. 3. Two eyes – eyes like winter windows, glared at him with ruthless impersonality. 4. The sun was high, the sky unclouded, the air warm with a dry fresh breeze. 5. It's not such a bad thing to be unsure sometimes. It takes us away from the right thinking. 6. It is growing weaker and weaker every morning.

3. Give derivatives of the following words of native origin.

Model: *heat*: to heat, heater, heated, heatedly, heating, heatproof, heat-lightning.
Grass, to feed, lord, hat, red, quick, to feel, heavy, to look.

4. State the language from which the given words were borrowed: Celtic, Latin, French, Scandinavian, Greek, Russian, Spanish, Italian, German. In case of difficulty consult an Etymological Dictionary.

Samovar, cup, to cast, anemia, Avon, kindergarten, banana, law, government, violin, fellow, London, Promenade, umbrella, criterion, armada, cosmonaut, anger, motto, power, candle, mosquito, waltz, plant, nickel, wall, lieutenant, kvass, interior, restaurant, tundra, gondola, anamnesis.

Identify the period of borrowing of the French, Greek, Russian and German words.

5. Match the translation borrowings on the left with the original phrases / words on the right.

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|------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. collective farm | a) <i>infra dignitatem</i> |
| 2. the moment of truth | b) Wunderkind |
| 3. word –combination | c) попутчик |

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|------------------------|----------------------------|
| 4. first dancer | d) el momento de la verdad |
| 5. fellow-traveller | e) circulus vitiosus |
| 6. wonder child | f) КОЛХОЗ |
| 7. vicious circle | g) СЛОВСОЧЕТАНИЕ |
| 8. famous case | h) cause célèbre |
| 9. below one's dignity | i) prima-balerina |

6. State international words from the given sentences.

1. Do you play tennis?
2. He gave a false address to the police.
3. I've seen many good films lately.
4. Do you take sugar in your coffee?
5. Arrange the words in alphabetical order.
6. Charlotte Bronte wrote under the pseudonym of Currer Bell.
7. He worked in radio for nearly 30 years.
8. We've visited the open-air theatre in London's Regent Park.
9. I'm worried about my son's lack of progress in German.
10. The government has promised to introduce reforms of the tax system.

7. Read the following jokes. Identify examples of international words.

1. Genius is one percent inspiration and ninety-nine percent perspiration. 2. A psychologist is a man who watches everybody rise when a beautiful girl enters the room. 3. An expert is a man who knows a great deal about very little; and who goes on knowing more and more about less and less until finally he knows practically everything about nothing; whereas a reviewer is a man who knows very little about a great deal and keeps on knowing less and less about more and more until finally he knows practically nothing about everything.

8. State the difference in the meanings of the English and Russian words.

Order, paragraph, delicate, intelligent, revision, artist, sympathetic, capital, ambitious, romance, command.

9. Write out the words and expressions according to the degree of assimilation of borrowings: 1) completely assimilated borrowings; 2) partially assimilated borrowings; 3) unassimilated borrowings. State the origin of the words and expressions below.

Wall, à la mode, datum, perestroika, gate, tête-à-tête, want, chalet, sheikh, nucleus, matter, kettle, chauffeur, formula, finish, corps, commedia dell'arte, money, souvenir, bacillus, stratum, nota bene, spaghetti, parenthesis, pardona, incognito, thesis, sabotage, ad libitum, stimulus, street, boulevard, criterion, déjà vu, Übermensch, macaroni, shapka.

10. Give the plural form of the nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek.

Hypothesis, criterion, stimulus, thesis, stratum, bacillus, formula, parenthesis, nucleus, datum.

11. Find etymological doublets in the following sentences. State their origin.

1. He always stays in the best hotel. He spent a month in hospital.
2. For birth rates in the 90s, see the chart on page 42. She sent me a lovely card.
3. The Editor reserves the right to abridge readers' letters. This book is an abbreviated version of the earlier work.
4. This is advice for those who wish to save great sorrow and travail. I have a job which involves quite a lot of travel.
5. Ann stayed close enough to catch the child if he fell. The band have often been chased down the street by enthusiastic fans.
6. I didn't know that his grandfather was a chieftain. She was captain of the Olympic swimming team.

12. Match the Native English words with French borrowing and Latin borrowings to form etymological triplets.

	<i>Native English words</i>	<i>French borrowings</i>	<i>Latin borrowings</i>
1.	fear	1. age	1. probity
2.	holy	2. flame	2. ascend
3.	goodness	3. sacred	3. conflagration
4.	rise	4. mount	4. consecrated
5.	kingly	5. question	5. interrogate
6.	fire	6. royal	6. era
7.	ask	7. terror	7. regal
8.	time	8. virtue	8. trepidation
9.			

13. Match the English nouns with their corresponding adjectives of Latin origin.

	<i>English nouns</i>	<i>Latin adjectives</i>
1.	sun	1. canine
2.	tooth	2. filial
3.	death	3. marine
4.	son	4. optical
5.	eye	5. dental
6.	dog	6. mortal
7.	star	7. astral
8.	sea	8. solar
9.	nose	9. visual
10.	town	10. nasal
11.	sight	11. urban

14. Find the synonym in the right column to each word in the left column.

1.	filial	a. homely
2.	paternal	b. womanly
3.	infantile	c. brotherly
4.	annual	d. daughterly
5.	maternal	e. friendly
6.	terrestrial	f. earthly
7.	nocturnal	g. early

- | | |
|----------------|-------------|
| 8. fraternal | h. childish |
| 9. domestic | j. elder |
| 10. feminine | k. motherly |
| 11. senior | l. nightly |
| 12. mortal | m. fatherly |
| 13. benevolent | n. deathly |

SEMINAR №7.

SEMINAR №7. THEORETICAL GRAMMAR: GENERAL NOTIONS. NOTIONAL AND FUNCTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH. THE NOUN. THE VERB. THE ADJECTIVE. THE ADVERB

Issues for discussion

1. General characteristics of language as a functional system. Notions of 'system' and 'structure'. General characteristics of linguistic units.
2. Language and speech. Systemic relations in language. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations.
3. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language. Morphology and syntax as two parts of linguistic description.
4. Notional and Functional Parts of Speech
5. The Noun:
 - The category of number of the nouns.
 - The category of case of the nouns.
 - The category of gender.
6. The Verb:
 - The category of tense.
 - The category of voice.
 - The category of mood.
 - The category of aspect.
 - Verbids
7. The Adjective. The category of adjectival comparison.
8. The Adverb.

EXERCISES

1. 1) Underline each verb phrase in the sentences below. 2) What kind of verbs is it composed of?

- **Determine whether each verb is finite or non-finite.**
- **Identify the type of the predicate.**
- **Is the main verb transitive, intransitive, or copular (linking)?**
- **Which verbal categories are formally marked in each verb?**

1. They had a nice chat.
2. Did you have to do it or were you given a choice?
3. I needn't have watered the plants. It rained soon after I did.
4. He turned on the light.
5. You look lovely.
6. People thought he might have been joking.

7. She started working for the company a year ago.
8. His knuckles go pale as he grips the door frame.
9. The moon rose red.
10. We shall be meeting with all parties in the near future.

2. Identify and characterize different kinds of verbs. Which categories do they realize?

1. Varieties of crops should be cultivated which do not readily shatter.
2. She insisted that she pay her way.
3. I'd certainly tell you if I knew anything, but I don't.
4. I am not attempting to be evasive.

3. Classify the following –ed forms as part of a Passive Voice verb form or a predicative adjective. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

1. We are delighted with the result.
2. I ought to be excited.
3. The silence was broken by the village crier.
4. The wire is always broken.
5. The problem was dealt with my developing a reference test.
6. He is well educated.
7. Those people got left behind in Vietnam.
8. She got terribly frightened.
9. Doherty was arrested in New York in June.
10. In two minutes, he was surrounded by a ring of men.

4. Classify the following adjectives as central or peripheral. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

1. narrow, wrong, the rich, good, aware, residential, Scottish, alive, elect, charming;
2. external, ethnic, the (very) young, insensitive, lone, awful, long, afraid;
3. blue, unique, square, glass, impossible, big, mere, the unforgivable.

5. The words below are syncretic elements. Which of their characteristics are adjectival, which are verbal and which are nominal ones?

The Japanese, the wounded, the beautiful, running (kids), selected (stories)

6. Identify the semantic category of each of the adverbs in these sentences.

1. Don't worry, he can't have gone far.
2. I almost believed it.
3. We should be extremely cautious.
4. He is dead serious all the time.
5. It's quite interesting.
6. She always eats the onion.
7. Automatically she backed away.
8. ...her tears dropping hotly among the quietly flowing dead leaves.

7. Classify the underlined words as Adverbs, Prepositions or Conjunctions. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

1. He walked past.
2. He walked past the house.
3. He took the dog in.
4. He took the dog in the house.
5. They've lived happily (ever) since.
6. They've lived happily since that day.
7. They've lived happily since they got married.

8. Identify the class of each pronoun below.

1. What did he say?
2. Somebody tricked me.
3. I won't tell you how it ended.
4. Is this yours, or mine?
5. His house got broken into.
6. I taught myself.
7. I like those.
8. That's all I know.
9. He's the guy who told me about this.
10. They know each other pretty well.

9. Classify the underlined words as Numerals (Cardinal or Ordinal) or Nouns with numerical meaning. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

1. I was doing my third week as a reporter.
2. I've read two thirds of the article.
3. Five is more than three.
4. They bought their little son a three-wheeler.
5. Damage is estimated at hundreds of millions of pounds.
6. Over two hundred people have been arrested.
7. Henry the 8th is said to have killed all his wives, isn't he?
8. You want bus 44.

10. Identify the lexical word class (part of speech) of the underlined words below. Briefly state what evidence you used to determine the word class.

- 1a. I was flat on my back.
- 1b. I already told him to back off.
- 2a. It's pretty hard to do that.
- 2b. I felt like I was pretty.
- 3a. Actually, it's fun to horse around with danger.
- 3b. He is quite handy on a horse.
- 4a. The price was coming down all the time.
- 4b. The coming weekend is relatively quiet.

11. Each of the orthographic words below can belong to at least three different word classes. Use each word below in a sentence of your own to illustrate how it is used in different word classes, and indicate the class.

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SEMINAR 8. SYNTAX. THE WORD-GROUP. THE SENTENCE. THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE.

Issues for discussion

1. The definition of the word-group. The word-group and the sentence.
2. Classification of word-groups.
3. The sentence. Classification of sentences.
5. The notion of the composite sentence.
6. Differentiation of complex and compound sentences.
7. The problem of the compound sentence. Types of coordination.
8. Classification of complex sentences. One-member and two-member complex sentences. Monolithic and segregative complexes. Types of subordination.
9. Classification of complex sentences in cognitive linguistics.

EXERCISES

1. Point out declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences. Translate them.

1. Don't repeat these accusations without checking them. 2. I'm sorry there isn't time to explain. 3. May I speak to your husband, please? 4. Is not everything under control? 5. Don't you dare to ask me such a question another time! 6. Would you mind repeating the telephone number? 7. Let's not become personal. 8. Aren't they glad to see us in their company? 9. Will not she receive me now? 10. I can hardly believe his words. 11. There can't be anything wrong with the computer. 12. They shouldn't start without consulting the weathermen. 13. I'm not to be talked into consent. 14. Won't she marry Jack? 15. Don't let them break the packets open. 16. Isn't there anything we can do? 17. Don't fail to follow the instructions closely. 18. Has he never flown passenger planes? 19. Go ahead, I'm ready to put down the message. 20. Haven't we been trying to reach you all these days?

2. Define the type of question.

1. "Who is he?" I said. "And why does he sit always alone, with his back to us too?" (*Mansfield*). 2. You have Mr. Eden's address, haven't you, Mr. Ends? (*London*). 3. Is literature less human than the architecture and sculpture of Egypt? (*London*). 4. We shall be having some sort of celebration for the bride, shan't we, Mr. Crawley? (*Du Maurier*). 5. "Can I see the manager?" I said, and added politely, "done". (*Leacock*) 6. When had the carriage been back from taking Miss Jane to the station? (*Galsworthy*). 7. He couldn't understand what Irene found wrong with him: it was not as if he drank. Did he run into debt or gamble or swear? (*Galsworthy*). 8. What is the meaning of that? She is going to live in the house, isn't she? (*Galsworthy*). 9. Were you talking about the house? I haven't seen it yet, you know. Shall we all go on Sunday? (*Galsworthy*) 10. Don't you realize it's quite against the rules to have him? (*Cronin*).

3. Point out two-member sentences (say whether they are complete or elliptical) and one-member sentences.

1. He stared amazed at the calmness of her answer. (*Galsworthy*) 2. We must go to meet the bus. Wouldn't do to miss it. (*Cronin*) 3. Obedient little trees, fulfilling their duty. (*Kahler*) 4. Lucretius knew very little about what was going on in the world. Lived like a mole in a burrow. Lived on his own fat like a bear in winter. (*Douglas*) 5. He wants to write a play for me. One act. One man. Decides to commit suicide. (*Mansfield*) 6. A beautiful day, quite warm. (*Galsworthy*) 7. "What do you want?" "Bandages, stuff for wounded." (*Heym*) 8. "How did he look?" "Grey but otherwise much the same". "And the daughter?" "Pretty." (*Galsworthy*) 9. And then the silence and the beauty of this camp at night. The stars. The mystic shadow water. The wonder and glory of all this. (*Dreiser*) 10. "I'll see nobody for half an hour, Macey," said the boss. "Understand? Nobody at all." (*Mansfield*) 11. "Mother, a man's been killed." "Not in the garden?" interrupted her mother. (*Mansfield*) 12. Garden at the Manor House. A flight of grey stone steps leads up to the house. The garden, an old-fashioned one, full of roses. Time of year, July. Basket chairs, and a table covered with books are set under a large yew-tree. (*Wilde*)

4. Give general characteristics of the simple sentence.

1. He has been happy here for a long time. 2. There is a book on the table. 3. It is time to start working. 4. Will he come soon? 5. You can speak English, can't you? 6. This is not a place to smoke. 7. Can't you speak louder? 8. Neither John nor Mary wanted to go. 9. My family are perfectly normal. 10. The New York's population is greater than London's. 11. When are we going to have got lunch? 12. Next year the school will have a new gym. 13. Does she often have car accidents? 14. What kind of table is there in the living room? 15. Something has happened in his life. 16. The first three prizes were awarded to the winners. 17. John never used to smoke a lot. 18. Every evening husband and wife would sit in front of the fire. 19. What are you doing tonight? 20. He ordered himself the dinner. 21. He had no intention of buying that book. 22. The cough had been lasting for a period of years. 23. He could see no advantage in killing creatures. 24. His lumpy mattress caused Andrew to sleep badly that night.

5. Analyse the following sentences.

1. The name of the dead man was Walter, he was a man of middle age. 2. He was tired and he fall asleep soon. 3. He was lying on the bed but I could not see him. 4. She looked round quickly but there was nothing to be seen. 5. Ancient history books were distributed to the class and Miss Shenstone asked us to turn the page 192 for our first lesson. 6. The constable's story was over and we arrived at the house surrounded by a garden. 7. Outside rain was falling, there was a cold, bitter taste in the air and the newly lighted lamps looked sad. 8. Her husband built a country house in Kent and Sarah was taken to play with the young children. 9. She could have tea in the refreshment-room, but she was to wait at the station for her mistress. 10. Some time passed and my aunt decided to move to Derbyshire. 11. They have set him up on a pedestal and nobody is allowed to rock it. 12. I made myself some tea and then I fed my two gold fish. 13. It was high summer and the hay harvest was over.

6. Point out the coordinate clauses (mark the elliptical ones) and comment on the way they are joined.

1. It was high summer, and the hay harvest was almost over. (*Lawrence*) 2. All the rooms were brightly lighted, but there seemed to be complete silence in the house. (*Murdoch*) 3. One small group was playing cards, another sat about a table and drank, or, tiring of that, adjourned to a large room to dance, to the music, of the victrola or player-piano. (*Dreiser*) 4. His eyes were bloodshot and heavy, his face a deadly white, and his body bent as if with age. (*Dickens*) 5. He only smiled, however, and there was comfort in his hearty rejoinder, for there seemed to be a whole sensible world behind it. (*Priestley*) 6. You'll either sail this boat correctly or you'll never go out with me again. (*Dreiser*) 7. Time passed, and she came to no conclusion, nor did any opportunities come her way for making a closer study of Mischa. (*Murdoch*) 8. She often enjoyed Annette's company, yet the child made her nervous. (*Murdoch*) 9. She ran through another set of rooms, breathless, her feet scarcely touching the surface of the soft carpets; then a final doorway suddenly and unexpectedly let her out into the street. (*Murdoch*) 10. It was early afternoon, but very dark outside, and the lamps had already been turned on. (*Murdoch*) 11. A large number of expensive Christmas cards were arrayed on the piano; while upon the walls dark evergreens, tied into various clever swags of red and silver ribbon, further proclaimed the season. (*Murdoch*) 12. Brangwen never smoked cigarettes, yet he took the one offered, fumbling painfully with thick fingers, blushing to the roots of his hair. (*Lawrence*)

7. Define the kinds of subordinate clauses (subject, object and predicative clauses). Translate into Ukrainian.

1. Miss Casement stopped what she was doing and stared at Rainsborough. (*Murdoch*) 2. What you saw tonight was an ending. (*Murdoch*) 3. About what was to come she reflected not at all. (*Murdoch*) 4. It's odd how it hurts at these times not to be part of your proper family. (*Murdoch*) 5. The trouble with you, Martin, is that you are always looking for a master. (*Murdoch*) 6. Suddenly realizing what had happened, she sprang to her feet. (*Caldwell*) 7. "It looks as though spring will never come," she remarked. (*Caldwell*) 8. I want you to sit here beside me and listen to what I have to say. (*Caldwell*) 9. Who and what he was, Martin never learned. (*London*) 10. That I am hungry and you are aware of it are only ordinary phenomena, and there's no disgrace. (*London*) 11. What he would do next he did not know. (*London*) 12. It was only then that I realized that she was traveling too. (*Murdoch*) 13. What I want is to be paid for what I do. (*London*) 14. I cannot help thinking there is something wrong about that closet. (*Dickens*) 15. And what is puzzling me is why they want me now. (*London*) 16. That was what I came to find out. (*London*) 17. What I want to know is when you're going to get married. (*London*) 18. Her fear was lest they should stay for tea. (*Ch.Bronte*) 19. That they were justified in this she could not but admit. (*London*) 20. What was certain was that I could not now sleep again (*Murdoch*) 21. What vast wound that catastrophe had perhaps made in Georgie's proud and upright spirit I did not know (*Murdoch*) 22. After several weeks what he had been waiting for happened. (*London*) 23. And let me say to you in the profoundest and most faithful seriousness that what you saw tonight will have no sequel. (*Murdoch*) 24. I understand all that, but what I want to know is whether or not you have lost faith in me? (*London*) 25. He could

recall with startling clarity what previously had been dim and evasive recollections of childhood incidents, early schooling and young manhood. (*Caldwell*) 26. It's been my experience that as a rule the personality of a human being presents as much of a complexity as the medical history of a chronic invalid. (*Caldwell*) 27. He [Cowperwood] had taken no part in the war, and he felt sure that he could only rejoice in its conclusion – not as a patriot, but as a financier. (*Dreiser*) 28. He felt as if the ocean separated him from his past care, and welcomed the new era of life which was dawning for him. (*Thackeray*) 29. It was noticeable to all that even his usual sullen smile had disappeared. (*Caldwell*) 30. That I had no business with two women on my hands already, to go falling in love with a third troubled me comparatively little. (*Murdoch*) 31. I only write down what seems to me to be the truth. (*Murdoch*) 32. Believe me, believe us, it is what is best for you. (*Murdoch*) 33. Pleasantly excited by what she was doing, she momentarily expected somebody to stop her and remind her that she had forgotten to buy the evening paper and had failed to take the bus home at the usual time. (*Caldwell*) 34. I dislike what you call his trade. (*Murdoch*)

8. Define the kinds of attributive clauses. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. "Everybody who makes the kind of blunder I did should apologize," he remarked with a pronounced nodding of his head. (*Caldwell*) 2. Rachel had become aware of the fact that she was talking loudly. (*Swinnerfon*) 3. He took after his blond father, who had been a painter. Rosa took after her dark-haired mother, who had been a Fabian. (*Murdoch*) 4. What we are interested in, as author and reader, is the fact that publishing in England is now an integral part of big business. (*Fox*) 5. The first thing Martin did next morning was to go counter both to Brissenden's advice and command. (*London*) 6. The invalid, whose strength was now sufficiently restored, threw off his coat, and rushed towards the sea, with the intention of plunging in, and dragging the drowning man ashore. (*Dickens*) 7. He was suddenly reminded of the crumpled money he had snatched from the table and burned in the sink. (*Caldwell*) 8. Georgia, who is now twenty-six, had been an undergraduate at Cambridge, where she had taken a degree in economics. (*Murdoch*) 9. He would speak for hours about them to Harry Esmond; and, indeed, he could have chosen few subjects more likely to interest the unhappy young man, whose heart was now as always devoted to these ladies; and who was thankful to all who loved them, or praised them, or wished them well. (*Thackeray*) 10. I hardly know why I came to the conclusion that you don't consider it an altogether fortunate attachment. (*Pinero*) 11. He walked to the window and stood there looking at the winter night that had finally come upon them. (*Caldwell*) 12. What terrified her most was that she found deep in her heart a strong wish that Mischa might indeed want to reopen negotiations. (*Murdoch*) 13. Directly in front of her window was a wide terrace with a stone parapet which swept round to what she took to be the front of the house, which faced the sea more squarely. (*Murdoch*) 14. He spent half the week in Cambridge, where he lodged with his sister and lent his ear to neurotic undergraduates, and the other half in London, where he seemed to have a formidable number of well-known patients. (*Murdoch*) 15. I went upstairs to lie down and fell into the most profound and peaceful sleep that I had experienced for a long time. (*Murdoch*) 16. "Palmer Anderson," said Georgie, naming Antonia's psychoanalyst, who was also a close friend of Antonia and myself. (*Murdoch*) 17. She looked to him much the same

child as he had met six years ago... (*Murdoch*) 18. Rosa had the feeling that she was both recognized and expected. (*Murdoch*) 19. Maybe the reason you don't want to go to a specialist is because you don't want to change – you want to stay as you are. (*Caldwell*) 20. Gretta regarded him with a look on her face that was unrevealing of her thoughts. (*Caldwell*) 21. Such light as there was from the little lamp fell now on his face, which looked horrible – for it was all covered with blood. (*Priestley*) 22. Three days after Gretta and Glenn Kenworthy's Saturday night party, which was still being talked about among those who had been present, Royd Fillmore presented a formal resignation to the governing board of Medical Square Clinic. (*Caldwell*)

9. Define the nature of adverbial clauses. Translate into Russian.

1. He too had moved and was now standing where she had been a moment before. (*Priesildy*) 2. Once they reached the open country the car leapt forward like a mad thing. (*Murdoch*) 3. Alban's eyes glittered as he looked at the buses and policemen trying to direct the confusion. (*Maugham*) 4. He watched until the final wisp of smoke had disappeared. (*Caldwell*) 5. Even after Glenn had nodded urgently to her she continued to look as if she did not know whether to run away from him or to walk back down the corridor to where he stood. (*Caldwell*) 6. And he followed her out of the door, whatever his feelings might be. (*Lawrence*) 7. I came away the first moment I could. (*Galsworthy*) 8. If anything particular occurs, you can write to me at the post-office, Ipswich. (*Dickens*) 9. A cat with a mouse between her paws who feigns boredom is ready to jump the second the mouse makes a dash for freedom. (*Caldwell*) 10. Gladys leaned forward and then turned her head so that she could look Penderel almost squarely in the face. (*Priestley*) 11. I could work faster if your irons were only hotter. (*London*) 12. The aftermath of the cub reporter's deed was even wider than Martin had anticipated. (*London*) 13. But these two people, insufferable though they might be, in other circumstances, were not unwelcomed. (*Priestley*) 14. Brissen-den lay sick in his hotel, too feeble to stir out, and though Martin was with him often, he did not worry him with his troubles. (*London*) 15. Had the great man said but a word of kindness to the small one, no doubt Esmond would have fought for him with pen and sword to the utmost of his might. (*Thackeray*) 16. When Rainsborough received this news he was made so miserable by it that he was not sure that he could survive. (*Murdoch*) 17. However friendly she might seem one day, the next she would have lapsed to her original disregard of him, cold, detached, at her distance. (*Lawrence*) 18. Howard puffed his cigarette thoughtfully before speaking, as if he was still uncertain about what he should say. (*Caldwell*) 19. How she would reach, the villa, and what she would find there when she arrived, she had not even dared to imagine. (*Lawrence*) 20. I paused while she took off her coat. (*Murdoch*) 21. I don't know what would have concluded the scene, had there not been one person at hand rather more rational than myself, and more benevolent than my entertainer. (*Lawrence*) 22. And you will find that it is scarcely less of a shock for you because you saw what you expected to see. (*Murdoch*) 23. When he left the car, he strode along the sidewalk, as a wrathful man will stride, and he rang the Morse bell with such viciousness that it roused him to consciousness of his condition, so that he entered in good nature, smiling with amusement at himself. (*London*) 24. Wherever they were together or separate, he appeared to be travelling in one intellectual direction or along one mental groove, and she another. (*Dreiser*) 25. As I

had no taste for this particular discussion, and also wanted to get off the subject of my dear brother, I said, "What will you be doing on Christmas Day?" (*Murdoch*) 26. "In that case," said Palmer, "since we are going away for good, I doubt if we shall meet again." (*Murdoch*) 27. Dazed as he was, he realized that there was just a chance of escape. (*Priestley*) 28. No matter how brilliant a physician is, a thing like that will ruin his career. (*Caldwell*) 29. She could hardly hear his voice, so deafening and continuous was the clatter of the waves upon the stones. (*Murdoch*) 30. At least it was good to be on one's legs again, and though the night was hideous, the situation seemed less precarious than it did when one was sitting in there, playing fantastic tricks with mechanisms. (*Priestley*) 31. It means to make the plane a part of you, just as if it were strapped behind you the minute it became airborne. (*Moyt*)

10. Define the kinds of clauses introduced by that. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. His smile was so easy, so friendly, that Laura recovered. (*Mansfield*) 2. It was just luck that he didn't catch the boat. (*Greene*) 3. It infuriated him to think that there were still people in the state who believed in a loving and merciful God. (*Greene*) 4. The impression he gathered was, that he would be able to make his own terms. (*Galsworthy*) 5. In the front hall, under a large picture of fat, cheery old monks fishing by the riverside, there was a thick, dark horse-whip, that had belonged to Mr. Spears' father. (*Mansfield*) 6. At first she used to read to me, but it was such a dismal performance that I could not bear to hear her. (*Harraden*) 7. I remember the landscape was buried deep in snow, and that we had very little fuel. (*Aldington*) 8. In fact, Mrs. Spears' callers made the remark that you never would have known that there was a child in the house. (*Mansfield*) 9. I believe that all we claim is that we try to say what appears to be the truth, and that we are not afraid either to contradict ourselves or to retract an error. (*Aldington*) 10. The box that the fur came out of was on the bed. (*Mansfield*) 11. "I sit alone that I may eat more," said the Baron, peering into the dusk... (*Mansfield*)

11. Define the kinds of clauses introduced by as. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. Harmless as this speech appeared to be, it acted on the travellers' distrust, like oil on fire. (*Dickens*) 2. Even as she talked she was here and there about the room, commenting on this, that, and other episodes with which both she and Miss Redmond seemed familiar. (*Dreiser*) 3. I was in real distress, as I can tell you. (*Dreiser*) 4. He kissed her quickly and ran towards the wicket as fast as he could. (*Maugham*) 5. Then she looked very carefully around, nodding her head as she did so, seeming to count the objects. (*Murdoch*) 6. He was, as I saw him now, too fanciful and too erratic. (*Dreiser*) 7. His wife, as I have said, was small, talkative, cricket-like, and bounced here and there in a jumpy way. (*Dreiser*) 8. Such trees as there were stood out ragged against a wealth of sky. (*Dreiser*) 9. She and a certain Wally, the surgeon above mentioned, as she breathlessly explained, were out for a drive to some inn up the Hudson shore. (*Dreiser*) 10. As you may imagine, I am suffering from shock. (*Murdoch*) 11. As I didn't reply, she sighed and turned away to pull the curtains across the darkened windows. (*Murdoch*) 12. As you must know perfectly well, you could get your wife back if you wanted her even now. (*Murdoch*) 13. Sally gave him a smile. It was as sweet and innocent as it had ever been. (*Maugham*) 14. Another day, at tea-time, as he sat alone at

table, there came a knock at the front door. (*Lawrence*) 15. “Do as I tell you,” I said. (*Murdoch*) 16. In front of a big bookcase, in a big chair, behind a big table, and before a big volume, sat Mr. Nupkins, looking a full size larger than any one of them, big as they were. (*Dickens*) 17. “This is grave news” she added, as we pushed our way to the exit. (*Murdoch*) 18. “How are you and Alexander?” “We’re as well as can be expected”, said Rosemary. (*Murdoch*) 19. And, young as you were – yes, and weak and alone – there was evil, I knew there was evil in keeping you. (*Thackeray*) 20. As I turned to look at her she seemed transfigured. (*Murdoch*) 21. He stretched himself on his bed as a dog stretches himself. (*Maugham*) 22. Yet could I, as things were, rely on Georgie to be cheerful and lucid? (*Murdoch*) 23. How trivial as this contact may seem to some, it was of the utmost significance to Clyde. (*Dreiser*) 24. I shall only try now to describe him as I saw him at the start, before I knew certain crucial facts about him. (*Murdoch*)

12. Analyse the sentences.

1. The manager knew that I had no intention of buying the book and he shook his head. 2. She was what you may call a very manly woman. 3. Some time passed and my aunt decided to move to Derbyshire where she had a big country house. 4. She looked round quickly, but there was nothing to be seen. 5. She hurried down the stairs and ordered the servants to arm themselves with anything they could find. 6. If I had not established a new school of thought and behaviour while I was at Junior High School, it would not have occurred to me to write about it. 7. Ancient history books were distributed to the class and Miss Shenstone asked us to turn the page 192 for our first lesson. 8. Who these men are and how they determine these things Mr. Monsoon does not know. 9. The following day I presented myself to Mr. Monsoon, who, when he saw me, appeared to want to close his eyes. 10. I don’t know if the methods worked, because after the first semester the man accepted a post at a small country school. 11. I think he had something to do with picture because he always smelled of photographer’s chemicals. 12. When he leaned on my table he held one hand with the other to keep both from shaking. 13. She must have thought the first person she inquired of would tell her where George was. 14. Tripp unbuttoned his shabby coat to reach for something that had been a handkerchief. 15. He is at loss what to do and turns for advice to Philip Denny, a doctor, who has been living in the town for some time. 16. As he tossed and turned through the long restless night, he came to ask himself if he knew anything of medicine. 17. It was not his lumpy mattress which caused Andrew to sleep badly that night. 18. Then the cough which had been lasting for a period of years turned worse and she died. 19. He walked slowly along the Street towards Denny’s lodgings realizing how his whole orderly conception of the practice of medicine was toppling about him. 20. He was lying on the bed and I could see he was awake. 21. He had shown the box to nobody so that she might be the first to see it. 22. Outside rain was falling, there was a cold, bitter taste in the air and the newly lighted lamps looked sad. 23. She saw a little creature with enormous eyes, who clutched in her coat-collar and shivered as though she had come out of the water. 24. Her only difficulty was that she did not know which party to choose. 25. Her hospitality to writers, if they were promising and known was warm and constant. 26. Mr. Forrester said I was to give you this letter when you asked for him. 27. You didn’t believe me when I told you that I owed a great deal to him. 28. He was tired, and before he had finished his cigar he fell asleep. 29. You will not be

satisfied till you've got what you want. 30. He made the condition that they should not marry until Bosinney had four hundred a year. 31. He ordered himself the dinner the boy had always chosen. 32. My little friend, who always felt sympathy for unhappy mothers, made a comforting gesture. 33. She gave Poirot the last message from the enemy which had reached the Waverlys that morning and which had sent her to Poirot. 34. The name of the dead man was Walter, he was a man of middle age who did not have much contact with other people in the town. 35. By the time the constable's story was over, we had arrived at Leigh House surrounded by a garden which was not much looked after. 36. I thought that he was examining the fingers of the hand that had held the pistol. 37. He thought that everybody would believe that Protheroe had locked himself. 38. I heard you were in London and I remembered the good work you did. 39. She could have tea in the refreshment-room, but she was to wait at the station for her mistress, who would return to Bristol. 40. There was a man in the carriage who stood looking out of the window so that she could not see his face. 41. I made myself some tea, and while the kettle was boiling fed my two goldfish. 42. He rules his family when he is absent as easily as he does when he is with them. 43. They have set him up on a pedestal and nobody is allowed to rock it. 44. The fact is that Edward's family find him too bookish. 45. Edward shocked them all years ago by saying he could see no advantage in killing creatures. 46. I was sorry to part with the friends, I met there, but I am afraid I did not behave very well. 47. Her husband built a country house in Kent and Sarah was taken to play with the young Cheverings when they were visiting their grandparents. 48. Lucinda ate her fish thoughtfully and said that her mother's brother had an interesting collection. 49. When I got home on Saturday I thought my room had been searched. 50. This was how it struck young Jolyon, who had the impersonal eye.

SELF-CONTROL QUESTIONS

1. Language and speech.
2. Language as a system and a structure.
3. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations.
4. Linguistic levels.
5. Isomorphism.
6. Lexical and grammatical meaning of the word.
7. Essentials of morphology.
8. Morpheme. Allomorph.
9. The problem of the parts of speech.
10. Basic notions of grammar: grammatical category, grammatical meaning, grammatical form.
11. The noun. The category of number.
12. The category of case.
13. The category of gender.
14. The problem of the article.
15. Types of the adjectives.
16. The grammatical categories of the adjectives.
17. Substantivation of adjectives.
18. Aspects of a sentence (structural, semantic).
19. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relation in the grammatical structure.
20. The complex sentence. Means of connection.
21. The subject matter and goal of syntactic theory.
22. Basic assumptions of Syntax.
23. Types of syntactic relations and means of their expression.
24. Syntactic relations between the components of a phrase.
25. English scientific grammar about word combination.
26. The description of a word-phrase (formal, semantic, functional).
27. Principles of classification of sentences.
28. Classification of phrases.
29. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Its subject-matter and relations with other branches of linguistics.
30. Synchrony and diachrony. Syntagmatics and paradigmatics.
31. The word. Types of meaning of a word.
32. Motivation, types of motivation. Folk etymology.
33. The morpheme. Classification of morphemes.
34. Structural analysis of words. Morphemic analysis versus derivational analysis. Types of morphemic division of words.
35. Word formation, its definition. Types and ways of forming words.
36. Prefixation. Classification of prefixes.
37. Suffixation. Classification of suffixes.
38. Noun-forming suffixes. Adjective-forming suffixes. Verb and adverb-forming suffixes.
39. Compounding as a way of forming new words. The criteria of compounds. Classification of compounds.

40. Conversion as a way of forming new words. Types of semantic relations.
41. Shortening as a way of forming new words. Types of shortenings.
42. Minor ways of forming words (blending, back-formation, sound-interchange, change of stress).
43. Etymological peculiarities of English (the native and the foreign elements, their peculiarities).
44. The foreign elements of the English vocabulary. Causes and ways of borrowings.
45. Assimilation and types of assimilation of borrowings. Degree of assimilation.
46. Etymological doublets. International words.
47. Stylistic classification of the English vocabulary (general consideration).
48. Barbarisms. Foreign words.
49. Synonyms, synonymic dominant. Sources of synonymy. Antonyms.
50. Semasiology as a branch of Linguistics. The main objects of semasiology.
51. Semantic changes of meaning, their causes and nature. Extension and narrowing of meaning. Elevation and degradation of meaning.
52. Transference of meaning. Metaphor.
53. Transference of meaning. Metonymy.
54. Other semantic changes of meaning (hyperbole, litotes, euphemisms).
55. Polysemy, sources of polysemy. Polysemy and context.
56. Semantic structure of polysemantic words: concatenation and radiation.
57. Free word-groups versus set-phrases. Criteria of distinguishing between free word-groups and set phrases.
58. Classification of phraseological units.
59. Language variation. Lexical differences of territorial variants.
60. Local dialects in the British Isles. The local dialects in the USA.

REPORTS

1. Category of semantic field in the system of the English language.
2. Structural and semantic peculiarities of the idioms with a gender structural component.
3. Main lexical and grammatical divergences of the British and American variants.
4. Role of Romanic borrowings in the English language.
5. Role of Germanic borrowings in the English language.
6. Role of Slavonic borrowings in the English language.
7. Word-forming patterns of neologisms in Modern English.
8. Homonymy of affixes in Modern English.
9. Synonymy of affixes in Modern English.
10. Structural and semantic characteristics of English neologisms
11. Peculiarities of the use of Australian English.
12. Borrowed phraseological units in Modern English.
13. Peculiarities of the use of Canadian English.
14. Synonymy of phraseological units in English.
15. Antonymy of phraseological units in English.
16. Phraseological units with the component "Proper name" in Modern English.
17. Linguistic nature of the slang in the English language.
18. Word-composition as a productive means of word-combination in English.
19. Types of dictionaries.
20. Dictionaries of a new type: electronic dictionaries and encyclopedias.
21. Onomatopoeic and sound-symbolic words.
22. Semi-affixes in Modern English.
23. Combining forms in Modern English.
24. "Stone wall" problem.
25. Compound neologisms.
26. Folk etymology.
27. English Euphemisms.
28. English disphemisms.
29. Bible borrowings in Modern English.
30. Phraseological units borrowed from literary works.
31. Phraseological units borrowed from folklore and mythology.
32. Stylistic synonyms in Modern English.
33. Phraseological synonyms in Modern English.
34. Shortening as a way of replenishing the vocabulary of Modern English.
35. English homonyms: classification and sources of their appearance.

PROGRESS TEST 1

1. By external structure of the word we mean

- a) its morphological structure
- b) its semantic structure
- c) its grammatical employment

2. *A Matisse, a jersey, factory hands* are examples of:

- a) linguistic metonymy
- b) linguistic metaphor
- c) generalization

3. In contemporary from the point of view of the semantic criterion words with the same denotation, but differing connotations are

- a) metaphors
- b) antonyms
- c) synonyms

4. Phraseological units are defined as units of fixed context according to

- a) A.I. Smirnitsky
- b) N.N.Amosova
- c) S.V.Kunin

5. *Aye, nay, thy* are examples of:

- a) professional terminology
- b) obsolete words
- c) basic vocabulary

6. *Datum-data, criterion-criteria* illustrate

- a) the phonetic adaptation
- b) the semantic adaptation
- c) the grammatical adaptation

7. The semantic relationship of inclusion existing between elements of various levels (e.g., *vehicle* including *car, bus, bike*) is called

- a) hyponymy
- b) word-family
- c) ideographic group

8. Which among the following is NOT a neutral compound?

- a) craftsmanship
- b) bedroom
- c) shop-window

- 9. Affixes that take part in deriving new words in this particular period of language development are called**
- native
 - productive
 - frequently occurring
- 10. *Diamond drops, mint drops, snowdrops* are instances of**
- metonymy;
 - metaphor;
 - broadening of meaning.
- 11. The initial *sk* usually indicates**
- Italian borrowings
 - French borrowings
 - Scandinavian borrowings
- 12. *-land* in *Ireland, wonderland* and *-like* in *businesslike, ladylike* are examples of**
- stem
 - suffix
 - semi-affix
- 13. Such words as *humming-bird, to bark, to howl* are produced by**
- shortening
 - onomatopoeia
 - reversion
- 14. *Chi-chi, shilly-shallying* illustrate**
- composition
 - reduplication
 - back-formation
- 15. *Street, wall, London* are**
- Celtic borrowings
 - Greek borrowings
 - native words
- 16. Homonyms which are the same in sound and spelling are termed**
- homonyms proper
 - homophones
 - homographs
- 17. *to lay, v.* and *lay, v.* (Past Indef. of *to lie*) are**
- partial lexical homonyms;
 - simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms;

c) complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms

18. V.V.Vinogradov's classification of synonyms include:

- a) stylistic synonyms
- b) euphemisms
- c) antonyms.

19. *The book is a splendid read* shows

- a) conversion
- b) affixation;
- c) contraction

20. *Neck and crop, to show the white feather, at sixes and sevens* are examples of (V.V.Vinogradov's classification)

- a) phraseological collocations (combinations)
- b) phraseological unities
- c) phraseological fusions

PROGRESS TEST 2

1. The most productive ways of word-building in English are:

- a) conversion, derivation, composition
- b) shortening and affixation
- c) composition, contraction and conversion

2. *-ish, -dom, -ly* are examples of:

- a) native suffixes
- b) noun-forming suffixes
- c) borrowed affixes

3. *To lunch, to nurse, to back* are illustrations of

- a) derivation
- b) conversion
- c) substantivization

4. Phraseological units are subdivided into nominative, nominative communicative, interjectional word groups and communicative phraseological units according to

- a) A.I. Smirnitsky
- b) N.N.Amosova
- c) S.V.Kunin

5. *H-bag, T-shirt, G-man* are examples of:

- a) neutral compounds
- b) contracted compounds
- c) derived compounds

6. In the phrase *a black little bird* the word *little* illustrates

- a) the graphic criterion of distinguishing between a word and a word-group
- b) the phonetic criterion of distinguishing between a word and a word-group
- c) the morphological-syntactic criterion of distinguishing between a word and a word-group

7. *Comb-to comb, to make-make* contribute to the growth of

- a) hyponymy
- b) homonymy
- c) synonymy.

8. According to Professor A.I. Smirnitsky, which among the following are NOT partial lexical homonyms?

- a) *rose, n. and rose, v (Past Indef. of to rise)*

- b) *to can (canned, canned)* and *(I) can (could)*
- c) *to lie (lay, lain)*, v. and *to lie (lied, lied)*, v.

9. Foolish > loving, affectionate illustrate:

- a) the degradation of meaning
- b) the elevation of meaning
- c) the narrowing of meaning

10. A jersey, the foot of a mountain, China are instances of

- a) metonymy
- b) metaphor
- c) broadening of meaning

11. A unit of fixed context like *small talk, small change, in the nick of time* where one component is phraseologically bound in its meaning and the other determines the context is called

- a) a motivated idiom
- b) a demotivated idiom
- c) a phraseme

12. *-proof in waterproof, kissproof* are examples of

- a) root
- b) suffix
- c) semi-affix

13. The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is called

- a) denotative component
- b) connotative component
- c) contextual component

14. *Light-mindedness, honey-mooner, newcomer* belong to

- a) syntactic compounds
- b) derivational compounds
- c) morphological compounds

15. *Senior(Lat) – sir(Fr), defence – fence, shirt – skirt* are

- a) translation loans
- b) etymological doublets
- c) international words

16. Which among the words below belong to the Indo-European element of lexis?

- a) day, night, be, star, son, new

- b) bird, boy, daisy, always
- c) bone, sea, ship, tell, summer

17. *To baby-sit, to blood-transfuse, to beg* represent

- a) conversion
- b) composition
- c) back-formation(reversion)

18. Words representing the same category of parts of speech, whose paradigms has one identical form but it is never the same form are called

- a) synonyms
- b) full homonyms
- c) partial homonyms

**19. Which connotation type is realized in the following groups of synonyms:
*to admire – to love – to adore – to worship?***

- a) emotive
- b) of degree
- c) of duration

20. From A.I. Smirnitsky's point of view, *to take the floor, to fish in troubled waters* are instances of

- a) phraseological repetition
- b) verbal-adverbial one-summit unit
- c) verbal-substantive two-summit unit

FINAL TEST

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

2. What is Special Lexicology?
 - a) It is the lexicology of any language
 - b) It is the lexicology of a particular language

3. Synchronic lexicology deals with ...
 - a) the change and development of vocabulary in the course of time
 - b) vocabulary at a given stage of language development, usually at the present time

4. The word has ...
 - a) phonological and semantic aspects
 - b) phonological and syntactic aspects
 - c) phonological, semantic, syntactic aspects

5. By external structure of the word we mean ...
 - a) its meaning
 - b) its morphological structure

6. Which branch of lexicology deals with the meaning of words and other linguistic units?
 - a) Onomasiology
 - b) Semasiology
 - c) Lexical Morphology

7. Which of the two main approaches to lexical meaning studies the connection between words and things or concepts they denote?
 - a) the referential approach
 - b) the functional approach

8. The content plane of the word includes ...
 - a) lexical meaning
 - b) lexical and grammatical meaning

9. Lexical meaning is
 - a) general, standard
 - b) individual, unique

10. Two or more words identical in sound-form but different in meaning, distribution and (in many cases) origin are ...
- antonyms
 - omonyms
 - paronyms
11. By their graphic and sound-form there may be ...
- full and partial homonyms
 - grammatical, lexical and lexico-grammatical homonyms
 - perfect homonyms, homophones and homographs
12. Homophones are ...
- identical in spelling but different in sound-form
 - identical in sound-form but different in spelling
13. When two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when, for some reason, the semantic structure of the word breaks into several parts, this type of formation of homonyms is called ...
- borrowing
 - split of polysemy
 - word-building
14. Different meanings of a polysemantic word develop into...
- homonymous words
 - in the case of divergent meaning development
 - in the case of convergent sound development
15. Word-formation ...
- deals with segmentation of words into morphemes
 - is an autonomous language mechanism which is used to make new words
16. The morphemes which may occur alone and coincide with word-forms or immutable words are ...
- bound morphemes
 - free morphemes
17. Affixation consists in ...
- putting two stems together
 - adding an affix to a stem
18. A non-affixal type of word-building is
- compounding
 - conversion

19. Derivational stem (base) and derivational affix into which the derived word is segmented are ...
- immediate meaningful constituents
 - ultimate constituents
20. The meaning of a compound is derived from ...
- the structural meaning of its pattern
 - the lexical meanings of its immediate constituents and from the structural meaning of its pattern
 - the lexical meanings of its immediate constituents
21. One or both immediate constituents have a transferred meaning in ...
- completely motivated compounds
 - non-motivated compounds
 - partially motivated compounds
22. Compounds may be coordinative and subordinative according to...
- the order of their immediate constituents
 - the nature of their immediate constituents
 - the relations between their immediate constituents
23. Compound *red-hot* is ...
- syntactic
 - asyntactic
24. Derivational compounds are built on ...
- the stems or word-forms of independent words
 - free word-groups
25. When the head member of the compound names the referent whereas the subordinate member characterizes it the compound is ...
- endocentric
 - exocentric
26. Conversion is ...
- formation of verbs or nouns from other parts of speech
 - formation of verbs
 - formation of nouns
27. The largest two-facet lexical unit observed on the syntagmatic level of analysis is
- the word
 - the word-combination
28. Meaning of word-combinations is analysed into...
- lexical component
 - lexical and grammatical (structural) components

29. Which meaning of the word-combination is conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of the component words?
- a) structural
 - b) lexical
30. When the meaning of the word-combination is deducible from the meaning, order and arrangement of its components the word-combination is ...
- a) non-motivated
 - b) motivated
31. The branch of linguistics which studies the ways of bringing words together in the flow of speech is called ...
- a) phraseology
 - b) lexical morphology
32. Which of the phraseological units are completely non-motivated and usually stable?
- a) phraseological unities
 - b) phraseological fusions
 - c) phraseological collocations
33. The main criteria of the semantic approach to phraseology are ...
- a) function
 - b) stability and idiomaticity
 - c) non-variability of context and partial variability of context
34. Phraseological units are classified into noun, verb, adverb equivalents by the criterion of ...
- a) non-variability of context
 - b) partial variability of context
 - c) function
 - d) idiomaticity
35. Idioms proper lie outside the province of phraseology because ...
- a) they function as word-equivalents, being semantically, grammatically and syntactically inseparable
 - b) they are metaphorically motivated and never function in speech as word-equivalents, being semantically and grammatically separable
36. Phraseological units are classified into phrasemes and idioms according to ...
- a) the semantic approach to phraseology
 - b) the functional approach to phraseology
 - c) the contextual approach to phraseology

37. According to Prof. A.V. Kunin's approach to phraseology, the components of set expressions are used in their literal meanings in ...
- a) phraseological units
 - b) phraseomatic units
 - c) border-line units
38. Proverbs, sayings and quotations are ...
- a) phraseological units
 - b) idioms proper
39. A variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase is ...
- a) a dialect
 - b) an accent
40. British, American, Australian and Canadian English are ...
- a) local dialects
 - b) regional variants of standard language
41. The science of dictionary-compiling is ...
- a) lexicology
 - b) lexicography
42. Linguistic dictionaries deal with ...
- a) lexical units
 - b) concepts
43. Historical events, geographical names, names for diseases, plants, animals, institutions are included in ...
- a) encyclopedic dictionaries
 - b) linguistic dictionaries
44. Linguistic dictionaries may be explanatory or specialized by ...
- a) the nature of their word-list
 - b) the kind of information they provide
 - c) the language in which the information is presented
45. Dictionaries of terms are intermediate between encyclopaedic and linguistic ones because ...
- a) their logical and lexicographic definitions are similar
 - b) their logical and lexicographic definitions are different
46. Dictionaries may be general and restricted by ...
- a) the nature of their word-list
 - b) the language in which the information is presented

47. The dictionary presenting a wide range of data is ...
a) specialized
b) explanatory
48. The dictionary giving the information in the same language is ...
a) bilingual
b) monolingual
49. The dictionaries containing units in one language and their equivalents in another are ...
a) translation dictionaries
b) explanatory dictionaries
50. Combinability of the word depends on ...
a) its lexical meaning
b) its lexical and grammatical meaning
51. The content plane of words includes
a) denotative meaning
b) denotative and connotative meaning
52. Connotative meaning is ...
a) the emotive charge and the stylistic value of the word
b) the word's reference to the object
53. The linguistic causes of semantic change are due to ...
a) the constant influence of factors outside the language system
b) the constant interdependence of words in language and speech
54. The main types of semantic transfer are
a) overstatement and understatement
b) irony and enantiosis
c) metaphor and metonymy
d) euphemism
55. Metaphor is based on ...
a) contiguity of referents
b) similarity of referents in shape, in function, in position, in behaviour, etc.
56. Which of the following minor types of semantic transfer consists in naming unpleasant or offensive referents in a polite, conventional, indirect or round-about way?
a) irony
b) enantiosis
c) euphemism
d) overstatement

57. The name given to the use of the same word in two or more distinct meanings is
- antonymy
 - polysemy
 - synonymy
58. The diachronic approach to polysemy deals with ...
- frequency of different meanings
 - the order in which different meanings appeared
59. The words *ear* in the meaning of ‘the part of the body’ and *ear* in the meaning of ‘the corn’ are ...
- homonyms developed as the next step in polysemy
 - etymological homonyms
60. By words which because of similarity of sound or partial identity of morphemic structure can be erroneously or punningly used in speech we mean ...
- paronyms
 - homonyms
61. The words *incredulous* and *incredible* are ...
- homonyms
 - antonyms
 - paronyms
 - synonyms
62. The members of a thematic group which belong to the same part of speech and are so close to one another semantically that to be able to use them correctly in speech we require exact knowledge of the shades of meaning and stylistic connotations, which distinguish them from one another, are ...
- synonyms
 - antonyms
63. Ideographic synonyms differ ...
- only in their denotational meaning
 - both in their denotational meaning and connotation or style
64. The synonyms *dad* – *father* – *parent* are ...
- ideographic
 - ideographic-stylistic
65. The largest two-facet lexical unit observed on the syntagmatic level of analysis is
- the word
 - the word-combination
66. Meaning of word-combinations is analysed into...
- lexical component

b) lexical and grammatical (structural) components

67. Which meaning of the word-combination is conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of the component words?

- a) structural
- b) lexical

68. When the meaning of the word-combination is deducible from the meaning, order and arrangement of its components the word-combination is ...

- a) non-motivated
- b) motivated

69. Phraseological units are understood as ...

- a) non-motivated word-combinations that are reproduced as ready-made stable units
- b) motivated word-combinations that allow of variability of their components

70. The word-combination *small beer* is ...

- a) a phraseological unity
- b) a phraseological (habitual) collocation
- c) a phraseological fusion

71. The major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups are ...

- a) semantic
- b) stylistic
- c) semantic and structural
- d) structural

72. The morpheme is ...

- a) a two-facet unit possessing both form and content, positionally mobile and syntactically independent
- b) the smallest indivisible two-facet unit which occurs in speech only as a constituent part of the word

73. The morphemes in the words *motherly* – *quickly* are ...

- a) synonymous
- b) antonymous
- c) homonymous

74. Lexicology is mainly interested in ...

- a) derivational affixes
- b) functional affixes

75. Word structure consists in ...

- a) making new words with the help of morphemes

b) segmentation of words into morphemes

76. Root morphemes carry ...

- a) lexical and grammatical meaning
- b) lexical meaning

77. Differential meaning in polymorphemic words ...

- a) distinguishes a word from all others containing identical morphemes
- b) is the meaning of the order and arrangement of the constituent morphemes

78. The morphemes which may occur alone and coincide with word-forms or immutable words are ...

- a) bound morphemes
- b) free morphemes

79. By their activity in the language affixes are classified into ...

- a) recurrent and unique
- b) prefixes and suffixes
- c) productive and non-productive

80. Immediate constituents are ...

- a) two meaningful components the word breaks into at the each stage of morphological analysis
- b) the elements which are no longer divisible

81. The most numerous amongst the words produced by conversion are...

- a) verbs made from nouns
- b) nouns made from verbs

82. *The USA, the U.N.O.* are ...

- a) Latin abbreviations
- b) shortened words
- c) acronyms

83. Words denoting objects and phenomena which are things of the past and no longer exist are called ...

- a) archaisms
- b) historisms
- c) obsolete words

84. The earliest group of English borrowings is ...

- a) Scandinavian
- b) French
- c) Latin
- d) Celtic

85. Linguistic dictionaries may be explanatory or specialized by ...
- a) the nature of their word-list
 - b) the kind of information they provide
 - c) the language in which the information is presented
86. The analysis of the word 'spinster' = *noun, count noun, human, adult, female, who has never married* is ...
- a) contrastive
 - b) Immediate Constituents analysis
 - c) componential
 - d) transformational
87. The word **mag** is ...
- a) a clipping
 - b) an abbreviation
88. Transference based on resemblance is ...
- a) metonymy
 - b) metaphor
89. The process of development of a new meaning is termed ...
- a) transference
 - b) change of meaning
90. Narrowing of meaning is ...
- a) generalization
 - b) specialization
91. Degradation of meaning is ...
- a) elevation
 - b) degeneration
92. The word *distance* is ...
- a) English by origin
 - b) not English by origin
93. Indo-European elements are ...
- a) native
 - b) borrowed
94. The word *girl* is ...
- a) of German origin
 - b) English proper
95. International words are ...
- a) borrowed by several languages

- b) borrowed by one language
96. The words *shirt* and *skirt* are ...
a) translation-loans
b) etymological doublets
97. The noun-forming suffix *-ing* is ...
a) native
b) borrowed
98. Words coined only for this particular occasion are ...
a) neologisms
b) nonce-words
99. The native noun-forming suffixes *-dom* and *-ship* are ...
a) non-productive
b) productive
100. The word *chit-chat* is ...
a) an etymological doublet
b) an example of reduplication
101. Phonological neologisms are ...
a) built on patterns existing in the language
b) formed by combining unique combinations of sounds
102. A neologism *mimsy* is ...
a) an acronym
b) a blend
103. A phraseological neologism *sleeping policeman* is ...
a) a phraseological unit with transferred meaning
b) a non-idiomatic expression

Reference Material

Word Roots

Here are some Latin (marked L) and Greek (marked G) roots. Recognizing them will help you recognize networks of words in the language.

Word Roots		
Root	Meaning	Examples
- audi- (L)	to hear	audience, audio, auditorium
- bene- (L)	good, well	benevolent, benefit, benefactor
- bio- (G)	life	biography, biosphere, biopsy
- duc(t)- (L)	to lead, to make	ductile, reduce, reproduce
- gen- (G)	race, kind	genealogy, gene
- geo- (G)	earth	geography, geometry
- graph- (G)	to write	graphic, photography, pictograph
- jur -, -jus- (L)	law	justice, jurisdiction
- log(o)- (G)	word, thought	biology, logical, logocentric
- luc- (L)	light	lucid, translucent
- manu- (L)	hand	manufacture, manual, manipulate
- mit-, -mis- (L)	to send	permit, transmission, intermittent
- path- (G)	feel, suffer	empathy, pathetic
- phil- (G)	love	philosopher, bibliophile
- photo- (G)	light	photography, telephoto
- port- (L)	to carry	transport, portable
- psych- (G)	soul	psychology, psychopath
- scrib-, -script- (L)	to write	inscribe, manuscript, descriptive
- sent-, -sens- (L)	to feel	sensation, resent
- tele- (G)	far away	telegraph, telepathy
- tend – (L)	to stretch	extend, tendency
- terr- (L)	earth	inter, territorial
- therm- (G)	heat	thermonuclear, thermostat
- vac- (L)	empty	vacuole, evacuation
- vid-, -vis- (L)	to see	video, envision, visit

Prefixes

Prefixes of negation or opposition:

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
a-, an-	without	ahistorical, anemia
anti-	against	antibody, antiphonal
contra-	against	contravene, contramand
de-	from, take away from	demerit, declaw
dis-	apart, away	disappear, discharge
il-, im-, in-, ir-	not	illegal, immature, indistinct, irreverent
mal-	wrong	malevolent, malpractice
mis-	wrong, bad	misapply, misanthrope
non-	not	nonentity, nonsense
un-	not	unbreakable, unable

Prefixes of quantity:

bi-	two	bipolar, bilateral
milli-	thousand	millimeter, milligram
mono-	one, single	monotone, monologue
omni-	all	omniscient, omnipotent
semi-	half	semicolon, semiconductor
tri-	three	tripod, trimester
uni-	one	unitary, univocal

Prefixes of time and space:

ante-	before	antedate, antebellum
circum-	around	circumlocution, circumnavigate
co-, col-, com-, con-, cor-	with	coequal, collaborate, contact, commiserate, correspond
e-, ex-	out of	emit, extort, expunge
hyper-	over, more than	hypersonic, hypersensitive
hypo-	under, less than	hypodermic, hypoglycemia
inter-	between	intervene, international
mega-	enlarge, large	megalomania, megaphone
micro-	tiny	micrometer, microscopic
neo-	recent	neologism, neophyte
post-	after	postwar, postscript
pre-	before,	previous, prepublication
pro-	before, onward	project, propel
re-	again, back	review, recreate
sub-	under, beneath	subhuman, submarine
super-	over, above	supercargo, superimpose
syn-	at the same time	synonym, synchronize
trans-	across, over	transport, transition

Suffixes		
Suffix	Meaning	Examples
<i>Noun Suffixes</i>		
-acy	state of quality	democracy, privacy
-al	act of	rebuttal, refusal
-ance, -ence	state or quality of	maintenance, eminence
-dom	place or state of being	freedom, kingdom
-er, -or	one who	trainer, investor
-ism	doctrine or belief characteristic of	liberalism, Taoism
-ist	one who	organist, physicist
-ity	quality of	veracity, opacity
-ment	condition of	payment, argument
-ness	state of being	watchfulness, cleanliness
-ship	position held	professorship, fellowship
-sion, -tion	state of being or action	digression, transition
<i>Verb Suffixes</i>		
-ate	cause to be	concentrate, regulate
-en	cause to be or become	enliven, blacken
-ify, -fy	make or cause to be	unify, terrify, amplify
-ize	cause to become	magnetize, civilize
<i>Adjective Suffixes</i>		
-able, -ible	capable of being	assumable, edible
-al	pertaining to	regional, political
-esque	reminiscent of	picturesque, statuesque
-ful	having a notable quality	colourful, sorrowful
-ic	pertaining to	poetic, mythic
-ish	having the quality of	prudish, clownish
-ious, -ous	of or characterized by	famous, nutritious
-ive	having the nature of	festive, creative, massive
-less	without	endless, senseless

GLOSSARY

Abbreviation (initial shortening) – making a new word from the initial letters of a word group.

Affixation – formation of new words by means of suffixes and prefixes.

Alliteration – the repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of words or stressed syllables.

Antonyms – words of the same category of part of speech which have contrastive meanings.

Assimilation – process of adaptation phonetic, grammatical and semantic features of language.

Back-formation – derivation of new words (mostly verbs) by means of subtracting a suffix or other element resembling it.

Barbarisms – words of foreign origin which have not entirely been assimilated into a language.

Blend – a word formed from a word-group or two synonyms.

Borrowing – a word, phrase copied from another language, book.

Bound morpheme – a morpheme that cannot stand alone as an independent word.

Colloquial word – words employed in non-official everyday communication.

Composition – way of word-building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word.

Compound word – word which consists of two or more root morphemes and a flexion.

Connotation – a part of meaning of linguistic unit, expressing its stylistic value.

Contraction (clipping) – making a new word from a syllable or two of the original word.

Conversion – making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech, the morphemic shape of the original word remaining unchanged.

Derivational compound (compound-derived word) – word consisting of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion.

Derived word – word consisting of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion.

Diachronical (historical) linguistics investigates the way a language changes over time.

Etymological doublets – pairs of words which have one and the same original form but which have acquired different forms and even different meanings during the course of linguistic development.

Etymology – a branch of linguistics studying the origin of words.

Free morpheme – a morpheme which coincides with a word-form of an independently functioning word.

Generalization – a process contrary to specialization, the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time.

Homofoms – words which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning.

Homographs – words which are the same in spelling but different in sound.

Homonyms – words which are identical in sound and spelling, or, at least, in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning.

Homonyms proper – homonyms which are the same in sound and spelling.

Homophones – words which are the same in sound and different in spelling.

Idiom – a group of words that has a special meaning different from the ordinary meaning of each separate word.

Idiomatic compounds – words where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, the meaning is changed or transferred.

International word – a word borrowed by several languages, not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication. Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin.

Lexicology – a part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups.

Meaning – a component of the word through which a concept is communicated.

Metaphor – a figure of speech which consists in transference of names based on the associated likeness between two objects or their common qualities.

Metonymy – a figure of speech in which the name of an object or concept is replaced with a word closely related to or suggested by the original, as “crown” for “king”.

Monosemy – an existence of only one meaning within one word.

Morphemic borrowings – 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.

Morphology – 1) the branch of linguistics that deals with a word structure and with functional changes in the forms of words, such as flexion and compounding; 2) the study of the structure, classification, and relationships of morphemes.

Non-idiomatic compounds – words in which the meaning of the whole is the sum of the meanings of components.

Paradigmatic relations exist between elements of linear sequence the system outside the strings where they co-occur. These intra-systemic relations and dependencies are expressed in the fact that each lingual unit is included in a set of connections based on different formal and functional properties.

Paronyms – words similar (but not identical) in their phonetic forms.

Phraseological combinations – word-groups with a partially changed meaning.

Phraseological fusions – word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; they are completely non-motivated idiomatic word-groups, the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning was based, has lost its clarity and is obscure.

Phraseological unit – a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning.

Phraseological unities – word-groups with a completely changed meaning; the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units or, putting it another way, the meaning of the whole unit can be

deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. The metaphor, on which the shift of the meaning is based, is clear and transparent; they are metaphorically motivated idioms.

Polysemy – an existence of several connected meanings within one word.

Prefix – an affix preceding the root.

Proverb – a short well-known statement that gives advice or expresses something that is generally true.

Semantic borrowings – such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed.

Semantics – the philosophical and scientific study of meaning.

Semasiology – a branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents.

Simple word – a word consisting of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero).

Sound imitation – a way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds.

Sound interchange – a way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word.

Specialization – a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication.

Stylistics – the study of the devices in languages (such as rhetorical figures and syntactical patterns) that are considered to produce expressive or literary style; a system of coordinated, interrelated and inter-conditioned language means intended to fulfill a specific function of communication and aiming at a definite effect.

Suffix – an affix following the root.

Synchronic linguistics studies a language's form at a fixed time in history, past or present.

Synonymic dominant – a unit possessing the most general meaning of the kind.

Synonyms – words belonging to one part of speech with the same or close meaning.

Syntagma – a unit formed by a combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence.

Translation-loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translation of some foreign words or expressions.

Vocabulary – a system of words and word-groups the language possesses.

Word – a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

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Навчальне видання

ПРОСЯННІКОВА Яна Миколаївна

**ТЕОРЕТИЧНИЙ КУРС АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ
ЯК ДРУГОЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ**

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