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ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY AND LEXICOGRAPHY

Theory and Practice

Educational Manual

Second edition, stereotyped

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    This book includes lectures, seminar questions, practical tasks, midterm tests and the list of scientific subjects for independent work of students and undergraduates.

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PREFACE

The educational manual "English Lexicology and Lexicography" is intended for students of foreign language specialties and undergraduates specializing in theory of linguistics and practice of the English language.

The contents of the manual provide complex studying of aspects of the theory of language focused on the main interests of the disciplines: English Lexicology and Modern English Lexicography.

The structure of the book presents two basic parts where the first section contains the subject of English lexicology: word formation, etymology, loans, archaisms, neologisms, phraseology, homonyms, synonyms and antonyms, functional styles of speech and English options.

In the second part the main tendencies in development of the English Lexicography are described: theory and practice of compiling different types of dictionaries; functional characteristics and classification of dictionaries; ways of creation of Specialized or Professional English dictionaries from both theoretical and applied perspectives and current trends of development of an English Corpus Lexicography in the light of the leading principles of contemporary linguistics.

The course "English Lexicology and Lexicography" can be read for the students of the third and fourth courses of special departments: "Foreign Language: two foreign languages", "Foreign Philology", "Translation Studies", and also for the magistracy "Foreign Philology" and "Linguistics".

This book includes lectures, seminar questions, practical tasks, midterm tests and the list of scientific subjects for independent work of students and undergraduates.

Part 1
ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

Chapter 1. LEXICOLOGY as a LINGUISTIC DISCIPLINE

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics – the science of a language. The term "lexicology" is composed of two Greek morphemes "*lexic*" – word, phrase and "*logos*" which denotes learning, "a department of knowledge". Thus, the literal meaning of the term "lexicology" is "the science of the word".

Lexicon is a term used in linguistics to indicate the archive of lexemes. Lexemes are abstract, minimal units in a language that link related forms of a word together. For example, the words *fly, flight, flew, flying,* and so on, are all morphologic variations of the lexeme *fly*.

Lexicology investigates different lexical units: words, variable word-groups, phraseological units and morphemes which make up words and dealing with the vocabulary of a language. Lexicology studies a word in different aspects: the patterns of semantic relationship of words as also their phonological, morphological and contextual behavior.

«The term "*vocabulary*" is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that language possesses» [Arnold, 2012:9].

It shows the system of interdependent elements with specific peculiarities of its own, different from other lexical systems. The basic task of lexicology is the study and systematic description of the vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use. In Lexicology the word and the vocabulary of a language is studied as a system. As for definition of the famous scientist I.V. Arnold: "Lexicology studies the recurrent patterns of semantic relationships,

and of any formal phonological, morphological or contextual means by which they may be rendered. It aims at systematization" [Arnold, 1979:14].

The lexical system of every language contains productive elements typical of this particular period, others that are obsolete and dropping out of usage, and finally, some new phenomena, significant marks of new trends come to use.

Lexicology as a branch of linguistics has its own aims and methods of scientific research of lexical system on the ways and tendencies of vocabulary development.

The principal distinction is naturally made between General Lexicology and Special Lexicology.

General lexicology is a part of General linguistics. It is concerned with the general study of words and vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. It investigates linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages which are generally referred to as language universals.

Special lexicology devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a particular language (Russian, Kazakh, German, French, etc.).

Our attention will be devoted to the study of Modern English Lexicology which aim is to give a systematic description of the word-stock of Modern English. So, Modern English Lexicology investigates the problems of word-structure and word-formation, the semantic structure of English words, the main principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings.

The research methods used in Lexicology have been closely connected with the general trends in Linguistics. There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material: synchronic (Greek '*syn*' – 'together, with' and '*chronos*' – 'time') and diachronic (Greek '*dia*' – 'through') approaches. With regard to Special Lexicology the synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time, for instance, at the present time.

It is Special Descriptive Lexicology that deals with the vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time. The discipline Modern English Lexicology is therefore a course of Special Descriptive Lexicology which studies the functions of words and their specific structure, its morphological and semantic structures, its object of study being the English vocabulary as it exists at the present time.

"The modern approach of word studies is based on distinction between the external and the internal structures of the word"[Antrushina, 2004:7].

By *external structure* of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word *uncomfortable* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefix *un-,* the root *comfort* and the adjective forming suffix – *able*. All these morphemes constitute the external (morphological) structure of the word *uncomfortable*.

The *internal structure* of the word, or its meaning, is commonly referred to the word's semantic structure. This is certainly the word's main aspect because a word can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings.

The diachronic approach deals with the changes and the development of a vocabulary in the course of time. It is special Historical Lexicology that deals with the evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by.

An English Historical Lexicology would be concerned with 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.

These two approaches should not be contrasted or set one against the other. In fact, they are interconnected and interrelated because every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development.

"Lexicology came into being to meet the demands of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of lexicography, standardisation of terminology, information retrieval, literary criticism and especially of foreign language teaching" [Arnold, 2012:13].

Lexicology is linked with Contrastive and Comparative Linguistics which purposes are to study the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages and find out the correspondences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison.

In recent years a great deal of research work has been written to provide a scientific theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described.

It is particularly concerned with comparing English and Kazakh, Russian words.

1. Branches of Linguistics

Modern English Lexicology is closely connected with other branches of linguistics, because the word, word-groups and phrases are studied in several branches of linguistics and not in lexicology only.

Lexicology is linked with general linguistics, the history of the language, phonetics, stylistics, grammar and such new branches of our science as sociolinguistics and some others:

• Phonetics investigates the phonetic structure of a language which is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units and studies the outer sound-form of the word i.e. its system of phonemes and intonation patterns.

• Grammar is the study of the grammatical structure or grammatical system of a language. It is concerned with various meanings of expressing grammatical relations between words as well as with patterns after which words are combined into word-groups and sentences. The ties between lexicology and grammar are particularly strong in the sphere of word-formation which before lexicology became a separate branch of linguistics had even been considered as part of grammar. The characteristic features of English word-building, the morphological structure of the English word are dependent upon the peculiarity of the English grammatical system.

• The History of the English language covers the main events in the historical development of the language: the history of its phonetic structure and spelling, the evolution of its grammatical system, the growth of its vocabulary.

• Stylistics studies many problems treated in lexicology, which are concerned with the study of nature, functions and structure of stylistic devices, on the one hand, and with the research of each style of language, on the other, i.e. with its aim, its structure, its characteristic features and the effect it produces as well as its interrelation with the other styles of language.

• Sociolinguistics investigates the social reasons of the changes in the vocabulary of a language which is directly and immediately reacts to developing and changes in social life. The rapid development of science, industry and technology gives a great number of new words, e.g. *CD/DVD drive* – a small compact disc on which sound or information is recorded. CDs are played on a special machine called

CD player; *Webcam* – a video camera that is connected to a computer so that what it records can be seen on a website as it happens; *Flat-screen TV* (also *flat-panel), Flat-screen computer* – a type of television or computer monitor that is very thin when compared with the traditional type.

Thus, Modern English Lexicology investigates two main parts: the treatment of the English word as a structure and the treatment of the English vocabulary as a system. The course of Modern English Lexicology studies the morphological and semantic patterns according to which the elements of this system are built. It points out the distinctive features with the main semantically relevant partial differences between partially similar elements of the vocabulary which can be systematized and the course tries to explain how these vocabulary patterns are conditioned by the structure of the language.

2. Lexical Units

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a *word*. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest basic language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

The definition of every basic notion is a very hard task; the definition of a word is one of the most difficult items in linguistics because the word has many different aspects. It has a sound form with a certain arrangement of phonemes; it has its morphological structure with a certain types of morphemes; it may occur in different word-forms and various meanings.

A word is a semantic, phonological and grammatical unit based on the paradigmatic relations, on the interdependence of words within the lexical system. The syntagmatic relations show the relation of words in the patterns of arrangement.

A description of the word based on the results of research and carried out by many scientists is presented. The problem of creating a word theory based upon the real understanding of the relationship between word and thought, on the one hand, and language and society, on the other hand, has been discussed for many years. The efforts of many eminent scholars such as V.V. Vinogradov, A.I. Smirnitsky, O.S. Ahmanova, I.V. Arnold, R.S. Ginzburg deal with the problem of

giving a clear exposition of the word as a basic unit of the language. The main points may be summarized as, "The word is one of the fundamental units of language. It is a dialectical unity of form and content" [Ginzburg, 1985:132].

The word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning and characterized by formal and semantic unity. The formal unity of the word can be best illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between *a blackbird* and *a black bird* is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word a *blackbird* possesses a single grammatical structure. In the word-group a *black bird* each part can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *The blackest bird, a black night bird.*

According to the nature and the number of morphemes constituting a word there are different structural types of words in English: simple, derived, compound, compound-derived.

Simple words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. *seldom, chairs, longer, dog, card.*

Derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. *acceptable, unemployed, disagreeable.*

Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. *username, videodisc*, *book-stores*, *to baby-sit.*

Compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. *baby-sitters, middle-of-the-roaders, job-hopper.*

When speaking about the structure of words stems also should be mentioned. The **stem** is the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word, e.g. the stem *hop* can be found in the words: *hop, hops, hopped, hopping*. The stem *hippie* can be found in the words: *hippie, hippies, hippie's, hippies'*. The stem *job-hop* can be found in the words: *job-hop, job-hops, job-hopped, job-hopping*.

The most characteristic feature of word-structure in English is the phonetic identity of the stem with the word form which habitually represents the word as a whole and with the root morpheme. For example, the stem of the verb *to talk* remains unchanged throughout its paradigm (*talk, talks, talked, talking*) and coincides both with one of its word forms – *talk* and the root morpheme *talk-*.

A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units – **morphemes**. The term "morpheme" is derived from Greek *morphē* – ('form'+ -eme). The Greek suffix *–eme* has been adopted to denote the smallest unit (cf. *phoneme, sememe*).

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words but not independently. The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned. In the word-cluster *please, pleasing, pleasant, pleasure* the root morpheme is represented by phonemic shapes [pli:z-] in *please, pleasing* and [pleəʒə] in *pleasure* and [plezənt] in *pleasant*. In such cases we say that the phonemic shapes of the word stand in alternation with each other. These are variants of one morpheme and they are called *allomorphs.*

Morphemes are divided into two large groups:
- lexical or root morphemes;
- grammatical (functional) morphemes.

Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound.

• Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word they coincide with the stem of simple words, e.g. *dog, book, room, house, ball* etc.

• Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (*dis-) disabled*, *(un-) unnatural*, suffixes (*-ish) girlish, (-ship) friendship* and also blocked (unique) root morphemes, e.g. *Fri-day, cran-berry*.

• Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes can function both as an affix and as a free morpheme. For example, the morphemes (*well, half*) on the one hand, they are free morphemes because they can exist separately like these: *sleep well, half an hour*. On the other hand, they are bound in words like *well-known, half-done*.

• Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions, e.g. *(a, an, the, but, and, under, on, in)*.

• Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), e.g. *(-s) teachers* for the Plural of nouns, (*-ed) added* for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, *(-ing) reading* for the Present Participle, (*-er) hotter* for the Comparative degree of adjectives. So inflexions carry only grammatical meaning and they are used for the formation of word-forms.

Having analyzed the lexical units of the English language we can say that morphemes are arranged according to certain rules, the

arrangement differing in various types of words and particular groups within the same type. The arrangement of morpheme components underlies the classification of words into different types and enables one to understand how new words appear in the language.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What is Lexicology? The aims of Lexicology.
2. Distinction of Lexicology.
3. The Modern approach of word study.
4. The Methods of Research.
5. Links with other branches of Linguistics
6. Language units. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations.
7. Structural types of words in English.
8. The stem of a word.
9. Morphemes. Classification of Morphemes.

Seminar Tasks:
1. *Analyze the following lexical units according to their structure. Point out the function of morphemes. Speak about bound, semi-bound and free morphemes. Point out allomorphs in analyzed words.*

Accompanied, computerize, expressionless, reservation, girl, quickly, management, engaging, agreement, lengthen, clannish, pleasure, pleasant, beautify, workaholic, reconstruction, counterproductive, specialize, rearrange, three-cornered, table, flower-pot, half-eaten, well-done, breadwinner.

2. *Make up the new words from the root morphemes* ***system*** *and* ***impress*** *by adding affixes and explain their structure.*

For example, prove – improve – improvement – improving – improvident.

3. *A self-study work. Give your own 5 examples of words with the same root morphemes and different affixes.*

4. *A self-study work. Give definitions and some information about the branches of Linguistics:*
• Applied Linguistics;
• Psycholinguistics;
• General Linguistics;
• Comparative Linguistics.

Chapter 2. WORD-FORMATION

1. Ways of Forming English Words

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. English word-formation is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. The main distinction is made between two basic types of word-formation: *word-derivation and word-composition*.

The principal ways of forming words in word-derivation are affixation and conversion. Words consisting of a root and an affix or several affixes are called derived words and this process of word-formation is known as affixation, e.g. *establishment* (from establish), *faceless* (from face), *attractive* (from attract).

Conversion is the process of making new words by changing one category of parts of speech from words of another, e.g. *a hand – to hand, to make – a maker.*

Word-composition is the formation of a new word by combining two or more stems which can occur in the language as free forms, e.g. *bank-manager, troublemaker, highway, market-leader.*

There are five main or productive ways of word-building in Modern English: Affixation, Word-Composition, Conversion, Shortening or (Abbreviation), Blending.

There are also secondary or non-productive ways of word-building: Sound interchange, Stress interchange, Reduplication, Sound Imitation, Back -formation.

The scheme of word-building is presented on the diagram.

Diagram 1

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                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │      WORD–FORMATION          │
                    └─────────────────────────────┘
              ┌────────────────────┐   ┌────────────────────┐
              │ Word-Derivation    │   │ Word-Composition   │
              │  • Affixation      │   │                    │
              │  • Conversion      │   │                    │
              └────────────────────┘   └────────────────────┘
         ┌────────────────────┐   ┌────────────────────┐
         │ Productive Ways     │   │ Non-Productive Ways │
         └────────────────────┘   └────────────────────┘
    ┌──────────────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────────┐
    │ 1. Affixation.               │  │ 1. Sound Interchange.    │
    │   • Prefixation              │  │ 2. Stress Interchange.   │
    │   • Suffixation              │  │ 3. Reduplication.        │
    │ 2. Word-Composition.         │  │ 4. Sound Imitation.      │
    │ 3. Conversion.               │  │ 5. Back-Formation.       │
    │ 4. Shortening or Abbreviation.│ │                          │
    │ 5. Blending.                 │  │                          │
    └──────────────────────────────┘  └──────────────────────────┘
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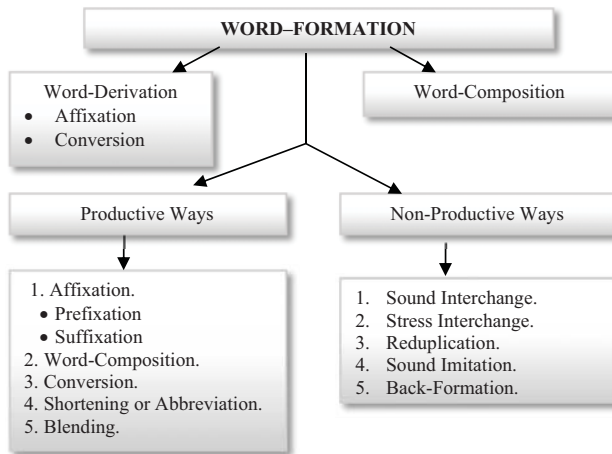
2. Affixation

Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes.

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another one, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech (e.g. *educate* is a verb, *education* is a noun and *music* is a noun, *musician* is also a noun, *musical* is an adjective).

There are different classifications of suffixes:

1. ***Part-of-speech classification.*** Suffixes which can form different parts of speech fall into several groups:

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as: -er (*criticizer*), -dom (*officialdom*), -ism (*ageism*),

b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as: -able (*breathable*), -less (*symptomless*), -ous (*prestigious*);

c) verb-forming suffixes, such as -ize (*computerize*), -fy *(satisfy*);

d) adverb-forming suffixes, such as: -ly (*singly*), -ward (*eastward*);

e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as -teen (*sixteen*), -ty (*seventy*).

2. ***Semantic classification.*** Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (*experimenter*), -ist (*taxist*), -ent (*student*);

b) nationality, e.g. -ian (*Russian*), -ese (*Japanese*), -ish (*English*);

c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (*moviedom, kingdom*), -ry (*peasantry)*, -ship (*readership, membership*), -ati (*literati*);

d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ette (*kitchenette*), -ie (*horsie*), -let (*booklet*), -ling (*goseling*);

e) quality, e.g. -ness (*copelessness*), -ity (*answerability*);

f) feminine suffixes, e.g. *-ess, -in, -ine (actress, heroin, feminine)*.

3. ***Lexico-grammatical character of the stem***. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:

a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as: -or (*communicator*), -ing (*suffering*), – able (*flyable*), -ment (*involvement*), -ation (*computerization*);

b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as: -less (*smogless*), ful (*roomful*), -ism (*adventurism*), -ster (*pollster*), -nik (*filmnik*), -ish (*childish)*;

c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as: -en (*weaken*), -ly (*pinkly*), -ish (*longish*), -ness (*clannishness*).

4. ***Origin of suffixes.*** From the point of view of their etymology suffixes can be subdivided into two main classes: native and borrowed suffixes:

a) native (Germanic), such as -er,-ful, -less, -ly (*worker, careful, sleepless, lonely*).

b) Romanic, such as: -tion, -ent, -able, -eer (*relation, absent, comfortable, career*).

c) Greek, such as: -ist, -ism, -ize. (*specialist, socialism, criticize*).

d) French, such as: -ance, -ence, -ment, -ess, -ous (*arrogance, experiment, actress, curious*).

5. ***Productivity of derivational suffixes.*** It means the ability of being used to form new, occasional or potential words. They can be the following groups:

a) productive, such as : -er, -ize, -ly, -ness (*teacher, realize, ugly, coldness*).

c) non-productive , such as : -ard (*drunkard*), -th (*length*), -hood (*childhood*).

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used: prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. *un- (unhappy)*. Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as morphemes: *over-* (*overhead, overcome*) and as separate words: *over* (*over the table*, *over the door*).

The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:

Semantic classification. Semantically prefixes can be divided into monosemantic i.e. the prefix has only one meaning, e.g. *ex-boxer, ex-boyfriend* and polysemantic i.e. the prefix *-dis* has several meanings: (not) in (*disadvantage*); reversal or absence of an action or state in words (*diseconomy, disaffirm*); removal in the word (*to disbranch*).

According to their denotational meaning prefixes fall into:

a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as: in- (*invaluable*), non- (*nonformals*), un- (*unfree*), dis- (*disconnect*), mis- (*misname*), il- (*illegal*);

b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: de- (*decolonize*), re- (*revegetation, rewrite*) etc.;

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as: inter- (*interplanetary*), hyper- (*hypertension*), ex- (*ex-student),* pre- (*pre-election*), over- (*overdrugging*).

Origin of prefixes:

a) native (Germanic), such as: un-, over-, under- (*undressed, overcome, underwear*);

b) Romanic, such as: in-, de-, ex-, re- (*inhumane, decentralize, exchange, reappear*);

c) Greek, such as: hyper- (*hyperactive, hypertension*) etc.

As you see from tables: 1 and 2 all affixes from the point of view of their etymology are subdivided into two main classes: native and borrowed affixes.

Native affixes came from Old English period and have the special category of morphemes which can be of different kinds.

Table 1

Native English Affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	**-er** **-ness** **-ing** **-dom** **-hood** **-ship** **-th** **-let**	teacher, driver, painter, worker loveliness, ugliness, coldness meaning, singing, understanding wisdom, freedom, kingdom manhood, motherhood, neighbourhood mastership, workmanship, leadership health, length, truth booklet, coverlet, islet
Adjective-forming suffixes	**-ful** **-less** **-y** **-ish** **-en** **-some** **-like**	joyful, sinful, skilful, wonderful sleepless, senseless, harmless tidy, merry, cozy childish, stylish, snobbish silken, golden, wooden handsome, tiresome, burdensome dreamlike, ladylike, cowlike
Verb-forming suffixes	**-en**	redden, sadden, widen, darken
Adverb- forming suffixes	**-ly** **-wise**	hardly, rarely, simply clockwise, otherwise, likewise
Prefixes	**be-** **mis-** **un-** **over-**	befool, befog misuse, misname unselfish, uncomfortable overdo, overact, overcome

Borrowed affixes came to the English language from different foreign languages and can be classified according to their source.

Table 2

Borrowed Affixes

Latin	Suffixes **-able/-ible** **-ant/-ent** **-ate/-ute** Prefixes **extra-** **pre-** **ultra-** **dis-**	advisable, divisible, curable attendant, student, assistant doctorate, appreciate, contribute extraterritorial, extracurricular pre-school, pre-race ultra-high, ultra-intelligent disable, disagree, dismiss

	Suffixes	artist, realist
	-ist	materialism, darwinism
Greek	**-ism**	
	Prefixes	anti-pollution
	anti-	symmetrical, synthesis
	sym-/syn-	
	Suffixes	
	-age	wreckage, peerage, marriage
	-ance/-ence	perseverance, coherence
	-ard	wizard, drunkard
French	**-ee**	employee, absentee
	-ess	princess, authoress
	-ous	curious, serious, dangerous
	-ment	development, appointment
	Prefixes	
	en-/em-	enlist, enable, embed

The word-forming activity of affixes may change in the course of time. This process raises the question of productivity of derivational affixes it means the ability of being used to form new, occasional or potential words. Productive affixes are used to form new words in the period in question.

Productive Affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	**-er, -ing, -ness, -ism, -ist, -ance** (manager, fighting, sweetness, materialism, impressionist, acquaintance)
Adjective- forming suffixes	**-able, -ic, -ish, -ed, -less, -y** (tolerable, electronic, girlish, learned, jobless, tweedy)
Verb- forming suffixes	**-ize/ise, -ate, -ify** (realize, congratulate, falsify)
Adverb- forming suffixes	**-ly** (equally)
Prefixes	**un-, re-, dis-** (unhappy, rewrite, dislike)

Non-Productive Affixes are not able to form new words in the period in question. Non-Productive Affixes are recognized as separate morphemes and possess clear semantic characteristics. In some cases, the lexical meaning of a non-productive affix fades off so that only its part of speech meaning remains, e.g. the adjective-forming suffix –*some* (*lonesome, loathsome*).

Table 4

Non-Productive Affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	**-th, – hood, -ship** (length, childhood, scholarship)
Adjective- forming suffixes	**-ful, -ly, -some, -en, -ous** (peaceful, sickly, tiresome, golden, courageous)
Verb- forming suffixes	**-en** (strengthen)
Prefixes	**ab-** (abnormal), **bi-** (biannual)

When we analyze such words as: *adverb, accompany* where we can find the root of the word (verb, company) we may treat *ad-, ac-* as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words.

Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as: *contain, retain, detain* and *conceive, receive, deceive* where we can see that *re-, de-, con-* act as prefixes and *-tain, -ceive* can be understood as roots. But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called pseudo-morphemes. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones.

There are some prefixes which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. *after-* in the word *afternoon.* American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as compound words. British lexicographers treat such words as derived ones.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1.   What are the main ways of enriching the English vocabulary?
2.   What are the principal productive ways of word-building in English?
3.   Affixation.
4.   Classification of suffixes.
5.   Origin of affixes .
6.   Classification of prefixes.
7.   The question of productivity of affixes.

Seminar Tasks:

1. *Analyze the following derived words, point out suffixes and prefixes and classify them from different points of view:*

non-violent, nourishment, to encourage, inwardly, to accompany, to de-restrict, dispensable, clannishness, to overreach, foundation, childishness, transgressor, reappearance, historic, resistance, wisdom, concentration, self-employed, brinkmanship, inaction, allusion, self-criticism, to computerize, slimming, impatient.

2. *A self-study work.* Use special dictionaries and find twenty words with the native and borrowed affixes, give the full analysis.

3. Word-composition

Word-Composition or compounding is one of the productive ways of word-building when a new word is formed by joining two or more stems. Compound words are inseparable vocabulary units that are structurally and semantically based on the relationship between their components through which they are motivated.

The structural unity of a compound word depends upon:

- ***The unity of stress*** where compounds have three stress patterns: a) a high or uniting stress on the first component, e.g. ˈhard-cover, ˈbest-seller, ˈcatnap, ˈdoorway, b) a double stress with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. ˈblood-ˌvessel, ˈwashing-ˌmachine, c) the third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. ˈsnowˈwhite, ˈskyˈblue, ˈarmˈchair.

- ***Solid or hyphenated spelling.*** Generally many compound words have two types of spelling: written either solidly or with a hyphen, e.g. *heartbreak, keyhole, highway, bookshop, father-in-law, part-time, baby-sitter, bank-manager*. But some compounds are written separately – *shock wave, terraced house*.

- ***The semantic unity*** of a compound word is often very strong. In such cases we have idiomatic compounds where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. *to ghostwrite, skinhead, brain-drain*. In non idiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e.g., *airbus, to download, astrodynamics* etc.

- ***Unity of morphological and syntactical functioning*** are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically, e.g. *These girls are chatter-boxes*. «Chatter-boxes»

is a predicative in the sentence and only the second component grammatically changes.

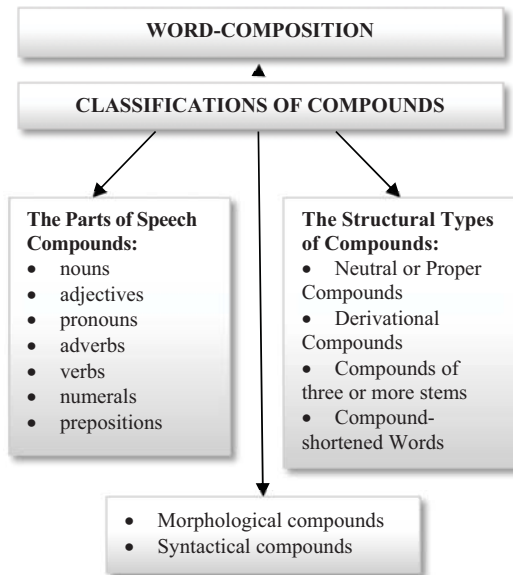There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

• both components in English compounds are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. *a green-house* and *a green house*.

• English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. *middle-of-the-road* (adj.) *off-the-record, up-and-doing, up-and-coming* (adj.), *down-and-out* (n.) etc.

The two-stem pattern distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

4. Classifications of English compounds

WORD-COMPOSITION

CLASSIFICATIONS OF COMPOUNDS

The Parts of Speech Compounds:
• nouns
• adjectives
• pronouns
• adverbs
• verbs
• numerals
• prepositions

The Structural Types of Compounds:
• Neutral or Proper Compounds
• Derivational Compounds
• Compounds of three or more stems
• Compound-shortened Words

• Morphological compounds
• Syntactical compounds

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into:

a) nouns, such as: *baby-moon, table-lamp, table-spoon, bookshop, reading-room;*

b) adjectives, such as: *first-class, power-happy, down-market; dark-blue, red-hot*;

c) verbs, such as: *to honey-moon, to baby-sit, to henpeck; to broadcast*;

d) adverbs, such as: *downdeep, somewhere, everywhere, nowhere, headfirst*;

e) prepositions, such as: *into, within*;

f) numerals, such as: *fifty-five, twenty-six*;

g) pronouns, such as: *everyone, somebody, someone, nobody, nothing.*

2. According to the way of components joined together compounds are divided into:

● ***morphological compounds*** where components are joined by linking elements: vowels «*o*» or «*i*» or the consonant «*s*», e.g. *astrospace, handicraft, sportsman*;

● ***syntactical compounds*** where the components are joined by means of form word stems with the help of linking elements represented by prepositions or conjunctions.

Eg.: *here-and-now, free-for-all, hide-and-seek, do-or-die, lily-of-the-valley.*

3. According to the structure compounds are subdivided into:

● neutral or compounds proper which are formed by combining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. *ball-point, bedroom, sunflower, girlfriend;*

● derivational compounds have affixes in their structure, e.g. *ear-minded, new-comer, story-teller, long-legged, blue-eyed;*

● compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. *cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, marry-go-round, singer-songwriter;*

● compound-shortened or contracted words have a shortened stem in their structure, e.g. *Eurodollar, tourmobile, motocross*. There are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, compare the letter *U* standing for upper classes in such combinations as *U-pronunciation, U-language* and other examples, *V-day* (victory day), *E-Day* (entrance day), *H-way,* (high way) etc.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. The Stress and Spelling peculiarities of compound words.
2. Semantic Unity of Word-Composition.
3. Two characteristic features of English compounds.
4. Classifications of compound words.
5. Parts of speech classification.
6. Morphological and syntactical compounds.
7. The Structural Types of Compounds.

Seminar Tasks:
1. Divide the following compound words on a way of formation and write them to four columns: *neutral compounds, derived compounds, compound words consisting of three or more stems, compound-shortened words. Give the translations of these words.*

note-book, speedometer, son-in-law, high-pitched voice, brain-gain, video-recorder, fair-haired, forget-me-not, snowman, teach-in, back-grounder, water-melon, theatre-goer, well-dressed, bio-engineer, to book-hunt, mini-term, to baby-sit, honeymoon, sunflower seed, good-for-nothing, TV-show, do-gooder, skin-head, H-bag, match-breaker, sportsman, V-day, airbus, three-cornered, brain-drain, bread-and-butter, bookshop, blood-thirsty, A-day /announcement Day – day of announcing war/.

2. *A self-study work.* Find in the dictionary twenty compound words and give their classifications.

5. Conversion

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. The term "conversion" first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet "New English Grammar" in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists.

Professor A.I. Smirntitsky treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when "one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm" [Smirntitsky, 1976:58], e.g. to form the verb *to dial* from the noun *dial* we change the paradigm of the noun (*a dial, dials)* for the paradigm of a regular verb (I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing). Prof. H. Marchand in his book "The

Categories and Types of Present-day English" treats conversion as "a morphological-syntactical word-building" [Marchand, 2001:124] because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. *I need some good paper for my room.* (The noun *paper* is an object in the sentence). *I paper my room every year*. (The verb *paper* is the predicate in the sentence).

Conversion is highly productive way in the English word-stock. 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 remaining unchanged, e.g. *nurse – to nurse, hand – to hand, face – to face*. The new word made from conversion has a different meaning from that of the word from which it was produced though the two meanings can be associated.

The converted word acquires also a new paradigm and a new syntactic function, which are peculiar to its new category as a part of speech, e.g. *paper – to paper, work – to work*.

The main varieties of conversion can be presented as:

- Verbalization (the formation of verbs), e.g. *to ape (*from ape n.);
- Substantivation (the formation of nouns), e.g. *a private* (from private adj.), *loser* (from the verb to loose);
- Adjectivation (the formation of adjectives), e.g. *down* adj. (from down adv.);
- Adverbalization (the formation of adverbs), e.g. *home* adv. (from home n.).

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are nouns and verbs. In the group of verbs made from nouns there are some regular semantic associations. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings. They are indicated in the following list:

a) verbs have an instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body, e.g. *to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder* etc;

b) verbs have an instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. *to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail*;

c) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the animal denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. *to dog, to wolf, to ape, to monkey*;

d) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. *to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper*;

e) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. *to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket,*

f) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted e.g**.** *to winter, to week-end*.

g) verbs can denote the process of taking a meal denoted by the noun from which they have been converted e.g. *to lunch, to dinner, to supper.*

The suggested groups do not include all the great variety of verbs made from nouns by conversion.

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, e.g. *to pale, to cool, to clean, to slim* etc.

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

a) instant of an action e.g. *a jump, a move*;

b) process or state e.g. *a sleep, a walk;*

c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a help, a flirt, a scold*;

d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a burn, a find, a purchase;*

e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a drive, a stop, a walk*.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the singular form and denote momentary actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such verbal nouns are often used with such verbs as: *to have, to get, to take* etc., e.g. *to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim*.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. The characteristic feature of Conversion.
2. Conversion is treated by different scientists.
3. Conversion as a way of word-building.
4. Which categories of parts of speech are especially affected by conversion?
5. The main varieties of conversion.

Seminar Tasks:

1. *Define the types and cases of Conversion. Explain the meaning of the words.*

to eye, a find, to slim, to airmail, to toy, to nose, handed, to dog, maker, runner, to pale, to weekend, to cool, to slice, the poor, to dry, to nurse, to lunch, to bottle, to face, to rat, to monkey, to rough, cut, walk, move, to dress, viewer, the blind.

2. *A self-study work.* Write ten sentences involving the different types of conversion. All examples should be taken from extracts of fiction literature.

6. Shortening or (ABBREVIATION)

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of shortening words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here we have modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing «*fanaticus*» is shortened to «*fan*» on the analogy with native words: *man, pan, tan* etc. Shortening of words consists in substituting a part for a whole.

An abbreviation came from Latin word "*brevis*", meaning "short" it is a shortened form of a word or phrase. Usually the word "*abbreviation*" can itself be represented by the abbreviation *abbr.* or *abbrev.* Abbreviation has been used as long as phonetic script existed, in some senses actually being more common in early literacy, where spelling out a whole word was often avoided, initial letters commonly being used to represent words in specific application. By classical Greece and Rome, the reduction of words to single letters was still normal, but no longer the default. The standardization of English in the 15th through 17th centuries included such a growth in the use of abbreviation.

Generally the three subgroups of abbreviation are regarded: *Graphical, Initial and Lexical.*

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In these abbreviations Latin words are shortened in the spelling, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, for example, Latin – *a.m.* – in the morning (ante meridiem), *No* – number (numero), *p.a.* – a year (per annum), *d* – penny (dinarius), *lb* – pound (libra), i. e. – that is (id est) etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. *p.m.* can be pronounced "in the afternoon" (post meridiem) and "after death" (post mortem).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. In the graphical abbreviations words are shortened into two, three or four letters. We have several semantic groups of them:

a) days of the week, e.g. *Mon – Monday, Tue – Tuesday, Sat – Saturday*;

b) names of months, e.g. *Apr – April, Aug – August*;

c) names of counties in UK, e.g. *Yorks – Yorkshire, Berks – Berkshire*;

d) names of states in USA, e.g. *Ala – Alabama, CO – Colorado, Alas – Alaska*;

e) names of address, e.g. *Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr.*;

f) military ranks, e.g. *capt. – captain, col. – colonel*, etc.

Abbreviation is also achieved by omission of letters from one or more parts of the whole, for example, *cdr* for commander, *doz* or *dz* for dozen, *ltd* for limited. Scientific degrees: *B.A.* – Bachelor of Arts, *D.M.* – Doctor of Medicine.

There is never a period (full stop) between letters of the same word. For example, "*kilometer*" is abbreviated as *km* and not as (k.m). However, "miles per hour" can be shortened by the acronym *m.p.h.* or, increasingly common, *mph*.

Initial abbreviations are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule,

to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. *J.V.* (Joint Venture). When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. *BBC* (British Broadcast Corporation) is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

Initializes are the way of making the new words from the initial letters of the word-group, e.g. *www* (world wide web).

Initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form are called *acronyms*, e.g. CLASS (Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System), CD-ROM (compact disc read-only memory).

Acronymy is the formation of a word from initial letters of a word combination.

There are two basic types of acronyms in English:

- acronyms with the alphabetical reading, such as CID ['si: 'ai 'di:] – Criminal Investigation Department; FDA [ef di: 'ei] – The Food and Drug Administration; NHS ['en 'eitj 'es] –The National Health Service, etc.

- acronyms are read as ordinary English words, e.g. UNESCO [ju:'neskəʊ] – the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization; NATO ['neitəʊ] – North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word. In such cases as *fantasy* and *fancy, fence* and *defence* we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as *laboratory* and *lab*, we have different styles.

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of final abbreviation is called *apocope.* Here we can mention a group of words, such as *disco* (discotheque)*, expo* (exposition)*, exam* (examination*) com* (computer) and many others.

In the case of initial shortenings when the beginning of the word is clipped we have *aphaeresis*, e.g. *chute* (parachute), *phone* (telephone), *copter* (helicopter)*, net* (internet) etc.

In the case of medial shortenings when the middle of the word is clipped, such abbreviation is called *syncope* e.g. *mart* (market), *maths* (mathematics).

Sometimes we have both initial and final shortenings: *tec – detective, quiz – inquisitive, fridge – refrigerator.*

Abbreviation does not change the parts-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same parts of speech as the primary word, e.g. *prof.* is a noun and *professor* is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as *to rev.* from *to revolve, to tab.* from *to tabulate* etc.

7. Blendings

Blendings or Blends – words are combined from two words or synonyms including the letters and sounds which are formed as common connecting element.

This process of formation of a new word can be also called **telescoping**, because the words seem to slide into one another like of a telescope. In blends two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition.

Nowadays Blends are very numerous altogether, they are very popular and becoming one of the productive ways of forming new words especially in terminology, mass media, trade advertisements and internet.

Blendings today have become a trend and famous slogans which have gained wide popularity in highly used websites and have entered into the vocabularies of twitter users. Let's look some of the terms: *advertainment* from (advertisement and entertainment), *bit* from (binary and digit), *freeware* from (free and software), *pixel* from (picture and element) etc.

Traditionally, to form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (aphaeresis). As a result we have a compound-shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «*smog*» from two synonyms: *smoke* and *fog* which means *smoke* mixed with *fog*. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, the vowel «o» is common for both of them.

Most blends are formed by one of the following methods:

1.   The beginning of one word is added to the end of the other. For example, the word "*brunch*" is a meal you eat in the late morning

that combines *breakfast* and *lunch.* Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as: *acromania* (acronym mania), *dramedy* (drama comedy), *informecial* (information commercial), *magalog* (magazine catalogue), *sociolite* (social elite), *fanzine* (fan magazine), *motorcade* (motor cavalcade). The elements may be synonymous, belong to the same semantic field or at least be members of the same lexico-grammatical class of words: French and English can have the new form *Frenglish.*

The new word *pleather* appears in a result of mixing together the words (plastic and leather) having the new meaning as a plastic material that looks like leather, for example, *a pleather jacket*.

The beginnings of two words are combined. For example, *cyborg* is a blend of **cyb**ernetic and **org**anism. *el-hi* is produced from (elementary and high schools).

At present day we can meet new forms of blending, when the beginning of two different words can be joined together giving the new meanings.

The new edition of the Macmillan English Dictionary gives the new words building by means of blends: *chicklit* is combined from two words (*chicken* and *literature*) which is used in informal speech with the meaning – (novels written for, about, or by young educated women); the new word *uptalk* means the tendency to make voice rise at the end of sentences so that statements sound like questions this blend is formed from two words (*upper talking*).

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary brings us the most up to date meanings of words created from different ones, e.g. the computer term *Wi-fi* is combined from (*wireless fidelity*) – broad band connections are not only in computer stores but in coffee shops, public libraries and bookstores, you can log into the Internet without physically plugging into anything.

The new blend *hi-tech* is formed and shortened from two words (*high technology*) and using the most modern methods and machines, especially electronic ones, e.g. *hi-tech industries*.

Two words are blended around a common sequence of sounds. For example, the word *motel* is a blend of **mot**or and **hotel,** the blend *cinemadict* is combined from *cinema* and **adict,** the word *faction* is from *fact* and *fiction* (fiction based on real facts).

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.

1. What are the main causes of shortening?
2. The origin of the word "abbreviation".
3. Graphical abbreviations.
4. Initial abbreviations.
5. Lexical abbreviations.
6. The general characteristics of blends.
7. What two ways of word-building are used in blends?
8. The principal methods of producing blendings.

Seminar Tasks:

1. *Analyze the following abbreviations. Define the types of abbreviations.*

CD-ROM, aggro /aggression/, bus – omnibus, Ala / Alabama/ a.s.a.p. /as soon as possible/, IT /information technology/, BC /birth certificate/, burger /hamburger/, CALL /computer-assisted language learning/, CAT /computer-assisted training/, PA /personal assistant/, PS /postscript/, mg /milligram/, UN /United Nations/, PIN /Personal Identification Number/, expo /exposition/, fax /facsimile/, G-7 /group of seven: GB, Germany, Japan, France, Canada, Italy, Spain/.

2. *Give the full form of the following abbreviations. Define acronyms read as ordinary words and acronyms with alphabetic reading.*

NATO, UNO, MP, NASA, UEFA, IQ, FBI, FIFA, VIP, UCAS, UFO, SOS. AIDS, TOEFL, IELTS.

3. *Write which words have combined to form the following terms:*

Interpol, emoticon, netiquette, netizen, technophobe, motel, heliport, slanguage, Oxbridge, medicare, slimnastics, sci-fi.

4. *A self-study work.* Find in special dictionaries twenty abbreviations and blendings give the full description of the lexical units.

8. Non-productive ways of Word-building

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form new words which are differentiated due to alternation in the phonemic composition of the root. This process is not active in Modern English but it was productive in Old English.

In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. By means of vowel interchange we distinguish different parts of speech:

full – to fill, food – to feed, blood – to bleed. In some cases vowel interchange is combined with affixation: *long – length, strong – strength, nature – natural*.

In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position which made it voiced. It has made the distinctive feature of a noun and a verb. There is a long series of verbs and nouns and also some adjectives differing in this way.

Observe for example, the opposition of voiced and unvoiced consonants in the following: *to advise – advice*, *to prove – proof.* In some cases we observe both vowel and consonant interchange: *to bathe – bath, to live – life, to breathe – breath, to lose – loss* etc.

There are some particular cases of consonant interchange:

[k] – [tj] – to speak – speech, to break –breach;

[s]–[d] – defence – to defend, offence – to offend;

[s]-[t] – evidence – evident, importance – important.

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns. Many English verbs of Latin, French origin are distinguished from the corresponding nouns by the position of stress: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. `accent – to ac`cent, `conflict – to con`flict, `export – to ex`port, `extract – to ex`tract, `present – to pre`sent, `content – to con`tent etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

In **Reduplication** new words are made by doubling a stem, either without any changes as in *bye-bye* or with a variation of the root-vowel or consonant as in *ping-pong, tip-top, chit-chat.* Most words made by reduplication represent informal groups: slang and colloquialisms, e.g. *walkie-talkie* (a portable radio); *riff-raff* (the worthless or disreputable element of society); *hip-hop* (the culture of the young African Americans and others who enjoy this type of music, including speech styles of art, dancing, dress).

Sound imitation or **Onomatopoeia** is the naming of an action or thing by more or less reproduction of sounds. It is a way of word-

building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. Semantically, according to the source sound, many onomatopoeic words fall into a few definite groups:

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as: to *whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle;*

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, e.g. *dogs – bark, cows – moo, frogs – croak, cats – mew or miaow, ducks – quack, bee – buzz*;

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as: *to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle* etc. The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, e.g. *clang* (of a bell), *chatter* (of children) etc.

Back formation or Reversion is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix *-er* to a verb stem (*speak- speaker*). So when the French word «*beggar*» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English *-er* and Englishmen formed the verb «*to beg*» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are: *to accreditate* (from accreditation), *to bach* (from bachelor), *to collocate* (from collocation), *to enthuse* (from enthusiasm), *to compute* (from computer), *to emote* (from emotion) *to reminisce* (from reminiscence), *to televise* (from television) etc.

As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What are the types of non-productive way of word-building?
2. What are the main ways of sound interchange?
3. Stress interchange.
4. What words are made by doubling a stem?
5. What is understood by back-formation?

6. What type of word-building is made by imitating different kinds of sounds?

Seminar Tasks:
1. *Define the types of non-productive ways of word-building:*
to butle – (butler), riff-raff, to af`fix -`affix, cuckoo, life – to live, to cobble – (cobbler), to con`flict –`conflict, walkie-talkie, cock-adoodle-doo, chi-chi, `contest – con `test, to beg (beggar), bark, ping-pong, buzz, miaow, to emote (from emotion), to clothe –cloth.

2. Divide the group of the words formed by sound-interchange into: *1) those formed by vowel-interchange, 2) those formed by consonant-interchange, 3) those formed by combining both means, i.e. vowel- and consonant-interchange.*

Long (adj) – length (n), speak (v) – speech (n), wreathe (v) – wreath (n), bake (v) – batch (n), strike (v) – stroke (n), house (n) – house (v), breathe (v) – breath (n), believe (v) – belief (n), full (adj) – fill (v), lose (v) – loss (n), prove (v) – proof (n), knot (n) – knit (v), glaze (v) – glass (n), shelve (v) – shelf (n), wake (v) – watch (n), sing (v) – song (n), clothe (v) – cloth (n), bite (v) – bit (n), halve (v) – half (n), abide (v) – abode (n), serve (v) – serf (n), deep (adj) – depth (n), bathe (v) – bath (n), ride (v) – road (n).

3. *Give the complete word-building classification of the following words:*
rewrite, brunch, music-lover, CD-ROM, baby-sitter, chicklit, blackberry, US, strong – strength, TV-program, export – to export, a toy – to toy, to do – doer, telecast (television broadcast), computer – to compute, ping-pong, Ph.D., firmly, internet – net, Str.– Street, smog, marriage, cuckoo, sunflower-seed, V-day, action, blockbuster, draughtsman. edutainment, slanguist.

2. *A self-study work.* Write a report or make presentation on the given themes:
- Acronyms in Computer technology.
- The Productive Ways of Lexical Abbreviations.
- New Blendings in the English Business Language.
- English Blendings in the sphere of Sport.
- Onomatopoeia – a method of creating new words.

Chapter 3. ETYMOLOGY OF ENGLISH WORDS

1. Native English Words

Etymology is the study of the origin of words and how their form and meaning have changed over time.

"Etymological theory recognizes that words originate through a limited number of basic mechanisms, the most important of which are borrowings" [Smirnitsky, 1976:110].

The borrowing process is closely connected with historical events and the history of the nation speaking the language.

Etymologically, the English vocabulary consists of *native words* and *borrowed* or *loan words*.

"A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the old English period" [Zikova,2008:103].

The term *native* is used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to British Isles from the continent in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes: the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes and the native words represent the original stock of this particular language. All words of Anglo-Saxon origin belong to very important semantic groups. They include most of the auxiliary and modal verbs: *shall, will, should, would, must, can, may*; pronouns: *I, you, he, my, his, who, whose*; prepositions: *in, out, on, under* etc.

The native words are further subdivided into Indo-European stock and those of common Germanic origin.

By the Indo-European element are meant words of roots common to all or most languages of the Indo-European group. English words

of this group denote elementary concepts without which no human communication would be possible. The following classification was given by V.D. Arakin.

1. Family relations: *father, mother, brother, son, daughter.*
2. Parts of human body: *foot, nose, lip, heart.*
3. Animals: *cow, swine, goose.*
4. Plants: *tree, corn.*
5. Time of day: *day, night.*
6. Heavenly bodies: *sun, moon, star.*
7. Numerous adjectives: *red, new, glad, sad.*
8. The numerals from one to a hundred.
9. Pronouns – personal, demonstrative.

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

1. Parts of the human body: *head, back, hand, arm, finger, bone.*
2. Animals: *bear, fox, calf.*
3. Plants: *oak, fir, grass.*
4. Natural phenomena: *rain, frost.*
5. Seasons of the year: *winter, spring, summer.*
6. Human dwellings and furniture: *house, room, bench.*
7. Adjectives: *green, blue, grey, white, high, good, old.*
8. Verbs: *see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, drink, give, make.*

2. Borrowings in the English Language

Borrowings are taken over from another language and modified in sounding, spelling, and paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language. According to many linguists, the percentage of borrowings in English is up to 70 %, and 30 % of the words are native. However, according to I.V. Arnold, "although the mixed character of the English vocabulary belongs to word-formation and semantic changes patterned according to the specific features of the English language system. This system absorbed and remodelled the vast majority of loan words according to its own standards, so that it is sometimes difficult to tell an old borrowing from a native word" [Arnold, 2012: 96].

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through *oral speech* and through *written speech* (through books, newspapers, etc.). Oral borrowings took place in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowings have gained importance.

Borrowings may be *direct* or *indirect,* i.e. through another language. For example, Latin through which many Greek words came into the English language and French by means of which many Latin words were borrowed.

In the first century B.C. most of the territory now known to us as Europe was occupied by the Roman Empire. Among the inhabitants of continent were Germanic tribes, called 'barbarians' by arrogant Romans. They had really a rather primitive stage of development compared with the high civilization of Rome. They were primitive cattle-breeders and knew nothing about land cultivation. Their language contained only Indo-European and Germanic elements.

After a number of wars between the Germanic tribes and the Romans, these two opposing peoples came into peaceful contact. Trade is carried on, and the Germanic people gain knowledge of new things. They learn how to make butter and cheese and, as there are no words for these products in their tribal languages, they are to use the Latin words to name them. They also borrow the names of some fruits and vegetables such as *cherry, pear, plum, pea, beet,* and *pepper*. The word *plant* is also a Latin borrowing of this period. There were numerous scientific and artistic terms like *datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music*, of which the words *philosophy, phenomenon, method, music* were borrowed into English from Latin and had earlier come into Latin from Greek.

From the end of the 8th c. to the middle of the 11th c. England underwent several Scandinavian invasions which inevitably left their trace on English vocabulary. Here are some examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: *call, take, cast, die, law, husband, window, ill, loose, low, and weak*. Some of the words of this group are easily recognizable as Scandinavian borrowings by the initial *sk-*combination, e.g. *sky*, *skill, ski, skirt* etc.

England became a bilingual country, and the impact of the French language on the English vocabulary is huge. French words penetrated every aspect of social life. Here is a very brief list of examples of Norman French borrowings:

- Administrative words: *state, government, parliament, council, power, empire.*

- Legal terms: *court, judge, justice, crime, prison.*
- Military terms: *army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.*
- Educational terms: *pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.*
- Numerous terms of everyday life were also borrowed from French in this period: e.g. *table, plate, saucer, diner, supper, river, autumn, uncle*, etc.

The Renaissance Period in England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art, and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome and their languages. This time they came from the Parisian dialect of French and are known as Parisian borrowings. Examples: *regime, routine, police, ballet, matinee, scene, bourgeois*, etc. However, they are different from Norman French borrowings in that the former have for a long time been fully adapted to the phonetic system of the English language; the words, as *table, plate, courage, chivalry*, bear no phonetic traces of their French origin.

Contemporary English is a unique mixture of many languages and this mixing has resulted in the international character of the vocabulary. For example, the new borrowed word '*parkour*'– (free running) has the French origin *parcuors du combat*, a type of military training. In English '*parkour*' means the sport of moving through a city by running jumping, and climbing under, around things.

New English has borrowed the Japanese words: *kaizen* in the meaning 'continuous improvement' in business and *karaoke*, a combination of two words *kara*-(meaning empty) and *oke* – as the English word 'orchestra'.

English has proven accommodating to words from many languages, in 17-19 centuries due to the establishing of cultural, trade relations many words were borrowed from Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, German and other languages.

Especially Italian borrowings are famous by its influence in music in all Indo-European languages: *libretto, violin, opera, operetta, alarm, piano, tenor, solo, duet, trio, basso.*

In the comparison with other languages English possesses great richness of vocabulary. Today the English language contains words from different sources. They have developed naturally over the course of centuries from ancestral languages and they are also borrowed from other languages:

Spanish: *hurricane, tomato, tobacco, chocolate.*
Portuguese: *albino, palaver, verandah and coconut.*

German: *yacht, dog, landscape.*
Irish: *whiskey, phoney, trousers*
Japanese: *honcho, sushi, kimono and tsunami*
Russian: *taiga, kaftan, sable and sputnik*
Arabic: *mosque, Muslim, orange, safari, sofa and zero.*
Hindi: *karma, khaki, bungalow, mango.*

American vocabulary is also rich in borrowings. There are some groups of specifically Americans borrowings which reflect the historical contacts of the Americans with other nations and possess distinctive characteristics.

For instance, Spanish borrowings – *ranch, sombrero, canyon* and Indian borrowings – *wigwam, canoe, moccasin, tomahawk, pale face* (this name for all white people).

3. Classification of Borrowings

The borrowed words can be classified into the following groups:
- phonetic borrowings,
- translation loans,
- semantic borrowings,
- morphemic borrowings,
- International words.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then as L.V. Adams describes: "they undergo an assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language" [Adams, 2003: 77]. The structure and the spelling in some cases can be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonemic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: *labour, travel, table, chair, people* are phonemic borrowings from French; *apparatchik, sputnik* are phonemic borrowings from Russian; *bank, soprano, duet*, are phonemic borrowings from Italian etc.

Translation loans are word-for-word or morpheme-for morpheme translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, "to take the bull by the horns" (Latin), "fair sex" (French),

"living space" (German) etc. There are some translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: "pipe of peace", "pale-faced"; from German "masterpiece", "homesickness", "superman".

Semantic borrowings are units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e.g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning "*to live*" for the word "to dwell" which in Old English had the meaning "to wander". Let's consider another word the adjective *gay* was borrowed from French in several meanings at once: "noble of birth", "bright, shining". Rather soon it shifted its ground developing the meaning "joyful, high-spirited" in which sense it became a synonym of the native *merry* and in some time left it far behind in frequency and range of meaning.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language. For example, we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words-hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, e.g. *goddess, beautiful* etc.

International words are usually borrowed from different languages such words convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication. Most of them are of Latin and Greek origin. The following words are international:

• names of sciences – *philosophy, physics, biology, medicine, linguistics*, etc;

• political terms – *policy, revolution, progress, democracy, terrorism*, etc;

• sport terms – *football, baseball, hockey, sportsman, tennis, golf*, etc;

• terms of art – *music, theatre, opera, operetta drama, comedy*, etc.

A person who does not know English but knows French, Italian, Latin or Spanish is certain to recognize a great number of familiar-looking and sounding words when looking through an English book or listening to an English-speaking man. It is true that English vocabulary, which is one of the most extensive among the world's languages, contains an immense number of words of foreign origin.

Seminar Questions:
1. What is meant by the native origin of a word?
2. What are the main native elements in English?
3. Conditions stimulate the borrowing process.
4. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?
5. What is the influence of the French language on the English vocabulary?
6. Classification of Borrowings**:** Phonetic borrowings.
7. Translation loans.
8. Semantic borrowings.
9. Morphemic borrowings.

Seminar Tasks:
1. *Divide the following words of native origin into: Anglo-Saxon, Indo-European, Germanic languages:*

Goose, glad, must, under, head, bone, drink, night, woman, sun, moon, can, will, green, white, see, thick, father, brother, finger, rain, grass, they, four, but, good, oak, room, land, should, would, heart, whose, fir, tree.

2. Subdivide the following words into*: Native English origin, Latin origin, Scandinavian origin, French origin, Spanish origin, Italian origin, Greek origin, German Origin, Indian words*.
1. Cherry, pear, plum, beet, pepper
2. Pupil, lesson, library, science, pencil.
3. Father, mother, brother, son.
4. Libretto, violin, opera, operetta, alarm.
5. Hurricane, tomato, tobacco, chocolate.
6. Waltz, yacht, dog, landscape.
7. Wigwam, moccasin, tomahawk.
8. Take, cast, die, law sky, skill, ski.
9. Anemia, criterion, hormone.

3. *A self-study work.* Find in the loan dictionary fifteen borrowings in English and explain the etymology of these words.

Chapter 4. SEMASIOLOGY

1. Types of Meaning

Semasiology is the branch of Linguistics which studies the meaning of words, called semantics. The name comes from the Greek *sēmasiā* 'signification' (from *sēma* '*sign' sēmantikos* 'significant' and *logos* 'learning').

The main objects of semasiological study treated in this book are as follows: semantic development of English words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of meaning, polysemy and the semantic structure of the English polysemantic words and compounds, semantic grouping and connections in the vocabulary system.

There are two main types of meaning: grammatical meaning and lexical meaning.

The grammatical meaning is defined as an expression in speech of relationship between words and unites words into big groups such as parts of speech or lexico-grammatical classes. It is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. For example, the tense meaning in the word-forms of the verbs: *worked, told, bought;* the meaning of plurality: *analyses, boys, types;* the case meaning of nouns: *women's, the greengrocer's, the optician's.*

The lexical meaning of the word is the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms. The word forms of the verb: *to talk, talks, talked, talking* possess different grammatical meanings, but in each form they have one and the same semantic component denoting "the process of speaking".

2. The Causes of Semantic Changes

Semasiology studies the change in meaning which words undergo. The meaning of a word can change in the course of the historical development of language. Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. Transfer of the meaning is called a lexico-semantic word-building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.

The causes of semantic changes can be *extra-linguistic and linguistic*.

By extra-linguistic causes we mean various changes in the life of the speech community, changes in economic and social structure, scientific concepts and other spheres of human activities as reflected in word meaning. For example, the change of the lexical meaning of the noun *«pen»* was due to extra-linguistic causes. Primarily *«pen»* comes back to the Latin word *«penna»* (a feather of a bird). As people wrote with goose pens the name was transferred to steel pens which were later on used for writing. Still later any instrument for writing was called «a pen». On the other hand causes can be *linguistic* it means factors acting within the language system.

The main form of *linguistic cause* is discrimination/differentiation of synonyms which can be illustrated by the semantic development of a number of words. The conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may specialize in its meaning, e.g. in Old English the noun *«tide»* was polysemantic and denoted *«time», «season», «hour»*. When the French words *«time», «season», «hour»* were borrowed into English they ousted the word «tide» in these meanings. It was specialized and now means (regular movement of sea towards and away from the land).

Thus, the vocabulary is the most flexible part of the language and it is precisely its semantic aspect that responds most readily to every change in the human activity in whatever sphere it may happen to take place.

3. Semantic Structure of English Words

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner form (its meaning) which presents a structure called the semantic structure of the word. It is known that most words convey several concepts and possess the corresponding number of meanings. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb *treat* in sentences:

- The wood is treated with chemicals.
- She was treated for minor injuries.
- They treated me to sweets.
- He treats his son cruelly.
- These payments will be treated as income.
- He treated my words as a joke.

In all these sentences the verb «treat» has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy.

A word having several meanings is called *polysemantic* and words having only one meaning are called *monosemantic* these words are few in number, e.g. *molecule, hydrogen, oxygen.* These words are mainly scientific terms.

The bulk of English words are polysemantic. The ability of words to have more than one meaning is described by the term *polysemy*.

Polysemy 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.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. For example, the word *blanket* has the following meanings: *a woolen covering* used on beds*, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering* of any kind *(a blanket of snow)*, covering all or most cases used attributively, e.g. we can say (*a blanket insurance policy)*.

The semantic structure of a polysemantic word can be distinguished between two levels of analysis. On the first level the semantic structure is presented by different meaning as the main or primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. This type of the semantic structure of a polysemantic word is called as *radial polysemy* and can be presented on the diagram.

Diagram 3

airmail

airline

airbag

airman

AIR

aircraft

airlift

airspeed

airport
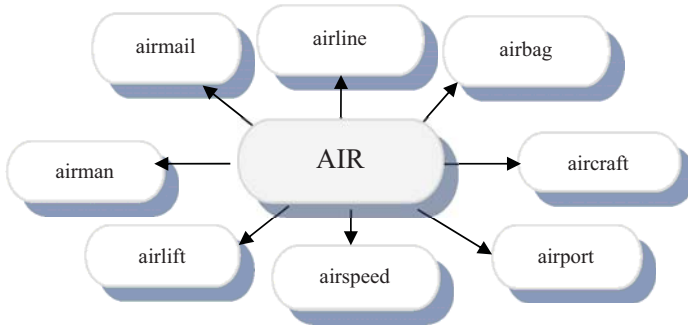
From the diagram above it is observed that all secondary meanings of the key word "air" are connected with the primary meaning in the center and motivated by it.

The second level of analysis is determined as the semantic components within each separate meaning, where some semantic structures are arranged on different principles, they are not correlated with each other and have variable meanings. This type of a polysemantic word can be called the *chain polysemy*.

In the following list of meanings of the adjectives *dull* and *high* one can hardly find a generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure. (See the table).

Table 5

Dull		High	
The different meanings		The different meanings	
a dull book, a dull film	uninteresting, boring	a high road	a main or important road
a dull weather, a dull day, a dull colour	not clear or bright	a high roller	a person who spends a lot of money, especially on gambling
a dull pupil	stupid	a high season	the time of year when a hotel area receives most visitors
a dull sound	not loud or distinct	high speed	very fast

a dull knife	not sharp	high tea	a meal with cakes and tea usually eaten in the late afternoon
dull eyes	seeing badly	a high street	a main street in the city with a lot of shops, banks etc.
dull ears	hearing badly	high risk	a lot of danger and the risk of injury, death, damage etc.

As you see from this table the adjectives *dull* and *high* with the different nouns forming new word-groups which are distinguished into separate meanings. In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways: *radial polysemy* and *chain polysemy* are combined.

4. Nature of Semantic Changes

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

Metaphor.

The word "metaphor" came from the Greek language *metapherō* (to carry over, to transfer) [– *meta* (between) and *phero* (to bear, to carry). A metaphor is a transfer of the meaning based on comparison and an association of similarity of two objects, phenomena. Metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

• similarity of shape, e.g. *head (of a cabbage), the neck of the bottle, teeth (of a saw, a comb);*

• similarity of position, e.g. *foot (of a page, of a mountain), head (of a chair, the procession);*

• similarity of function, behaviour e.g. *a lady-killer* – a man who is attractive and successful with women and can fascinate them, *a whip* (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting);

• similarity of colour, e.g. *orange, hazel, chestnut, the gilded youth, a sunny smile, black gold, black economy.*

Many metaphors are based on parts of a human body, e.g. *the leg of a table, an eye of a needle, arms and mouth of a river, head of an army*.

A special type of metaphor is when Proper names become common nouns, e.g. *philistine* – a mercenary person*, vandal*s – destructive people, *a Don Juan* – a lover of many women, etc.

When new words are needed in order to describe things that did not exist before, they are often created by means of metaphor. With the growth of computer technology, we need words to describe many new objects and activities – and most of these new words have been produced metaphorically. The metaphors that are used in computer language come from many different areas of life, e.g. *surfing, net, home page, mailbox, mouse, virus, window.*

Metonymy.

Metonymy is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. It is a change of names between things that are known to be in some way and associating two referents, one of which can have resembles the other. There are different types of metonymy:

• the material of which an object is made may become the name of the object, e.g. *a glass, boards, iron* etc.;

• the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, e.g. *the House* – members of Parliament, *Fleet Street* – bourgeois press, *the White House* – the Administration of the USA, etc.;

• names of musical instruments may become names of musicians, e.g. *the violinist, the saxophonist, the pianist,* etc.;

• the name of some person may become a common noun, e.g. «*boycott*» was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them, «*sandwich*» was named after Lord Sandwich who was a gambler. He did not want to interrupt his game and had his food brought to him while he was playing cards between two slices of bread not to soil his fingers;

• names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, e.g. «*watt»* , «*om», «rentgen*» etc.;

• some geographical names can also become common nouns through metonymy, e.g. *holland* (linen fabrics), *Brussels* (a special kind of carpets), *china* (porcelain), *astrachan* (a sheep fur) etc.

5. The Main Semantic Aspects of Compounds

The structural meaning of compounds is formed on the base of the meaning of their distributional pattern which is understood as the order and arrangement of the constituents of a compound word.

A change in the order and arrangement of the same components of the word gives us the compounds with different lexical meanings. For example, the compound word *finger-ring* denotes a ring which is worn on finger, whereas the compound word *ring-finger* means the finger next to the little finger, especially of the left hand, on which the wedding ring is worn.

So, the words *ring-finger* and *finger-ring* contain two root morphemes, the combined lexical meaning of which can be changed account for the difference in the arrangement of the component morphemes.

The semantic structure of compound words can be changed in a result of rearrangement of their distributional patterns. E.g.: *dog house* – it is special house for a dog (конура); *house-dog* – it is a kind of a dog living near the house or in the house and protecting the house and housekeeper. It has been mentioned that the shift in order and place of the constituent parts of a compound can destroy its meaning.

Thus, the distributional pattern of compounds carries a certain lexical meaning.

The main interest semantic aspect of compound words is the question of correlation of the separate meanings of the constituent parts and the actual meaning of the compounds. The semantic structure of compounds can be divided into two groups: a) *non-idiomatic compounds*; b) *idiomatic compounds*.

The first groups of compounds represent meanings which can be described as the sum of their constituent meanings. (It means that these compounds haven't changes in their meanings, it is easily to guess). E.g.: *classroom, bedroom, raincoat, nightdress, dancing-hall, changing-room*.

The compounds which meanings do not correspond to the separate meanings of their constituent (main) parts are called *idiomatic compounds*.

Idiomatic compounds can be divided into two types:
- partial (non complete) changed meaning;
- total (complete) changed meaning.

In the first type of compounds one of the components has changed its meaning. In this type of compound words we see the process of alteration of meaning.

E.g.: *a blackboard, a blackbird, chatter-box, blackberries*.

For example, the compounds *a blackbird, a bluebird* convey only one concept: the type of bird. The compound word *blue-baby* is about a child who has a weak heart or something wrong with heart whose skin is slightly blue.

Thus, the main feature of the *partial compounds* that only one element of the compound words can have changed meaning.

The second type of compounds it is a process of complete change of meaning or the key semantic aspect has been lost. E.g.: *a ladybird, tallboy, bluestockings, bluebottle, butter-fingers, lady-killer, lady-finger*.

For instance*, a ladybird* is not a bird, but insect; *a tallboy* is not a boy, but a piece of furniture; *bluestockings* – an old fashioned word is about a well-educated woman who is more interested in ideas and studying, who dedicates her life to science, *bluebottle* – it is not a bottle, it is a large fly with a blue body; *butter-fingers* is a clumsy person often has accidents, because they are not careful, *lady-finger* – a small long thin cake made with eggs, sugar and flour.

So, we have regarded some groups of compounds based on different semantic meanings.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1.   What is understood by "semantics"?
2.   What types of meaning can be regarded?
3.   What are the causes of semantic changes?
4.   Explain the terms "polysemy", "polysemantic words"
5.   What are the levels of analysis in investigating the semantic structure of a word?
6.   Explain the notions: Metaphor and Metonymy.
7.   Explain the structural meaning of compounds.
8.   What is the semantic aspect of compound words?
9.   Into what semantic groups can compounds be divided?

Seminar Tasks:

1. *Explain the different meanings and the different usages, giving Russian/Kazakh equivalents of:*

Smart, adj.

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

Stubborn, adj.

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

Blank. adj.

Blank wall, blank verse, blank sheet, blank form, blank years, blank face, blank look.

Root, n.

the root of the tooth, the root of the matter, square root, cube root, family roots.

Perform, v.

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

2. *Arrange the compounds into two groups: a) idiomatic, b) non- idiomatic. Say whether the semantic change within idiomatic compounds is partial or total.*

Light-hearted, butterfly, flower-pot, backache, water-melon, cabman, blackberry, bluebell, wolf-dog, highway, horse-marine, greengrocer, lazy-bones, blacklist, butter-finger, earth-quake, lady-killer, seaman, sun-flower, ladybird, bluecoat, money-box, flower-bed, sunflower-seed, air-kiss, culture-vulture.

3. *Define the difference in meaning of the given compounds possessing the change of distributional patterns.* (Do the given task according to the following example).

The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning: *vid-kid* is «a kid who is a video fan» while *kid-vid* means «a video-film for kids.

Pot-flower – flower-pot, fruit-market – market-fruit, boat-house – house-boat, school-grammar – grammar-school; board-school – school-board.

4. *A self-study work.* Find twenty idiomatic compound words (partial and total) and give the complete analysis and translation.

Chapter 5. TYPES OF SEMANTIC RELATIONS

1. Synonyms

Synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. The principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations. The word "synonym" came from the ancient Greek *syn (σύν)* (with) and *onoma (ὄνομα)* (name).

A large number of English synonyms have a variety of expressive methods making it possible to express the same meaning by different words. English is very rich in synonyms and therefore an elementary dictionary of synonyms contains over 8000 synonyms.

The existence of numerous groups of native and foreign synonyms is one of the characteristic features of English. There are a lot of borrowed synonyms.

E.g. *hearty* (native) – *cordial* (borrowing); *town* (native) – *city* (borrowing); *to begin* (native) – *to commence* (borrowing). As a result of this process, many new meanings of one and the same word appear in the English vocabulary. It causes many problems such as the correct choice of words from synonyms.

English synonyms have some differences in many aspects and can be distinguished in meaning, coloring and usage. E.g.: *good-looking, pretty, attractive* – adjectives describe a pleasant appearance; *to win a victory – to gain a victory; homeland, motherland* etc.

Synonyms are usually defined as words different in form but denoting different shades of a common meaning. Every group of synonyms represents a certain unity for they denote one concept characterizing it from different sides.

As famous scholar L.M. Lipka says, "synonyms may express various peculiarities of that concept, they may express subtle shades of emotional coloring or modal meaning" [Lipka, 1994:41].

Synonymy – the coincidence in the essential meanings of linguistic elements which (at the same time) usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics. Synonymy is one of modern linguistics' most controversial problems.

Many scholars have different opinions regarding the definition of synonyms.

For example, well-known scientist J.A.Devlin offers the definition which describes the notion "*synonymy* as identity of meaning and interchangeability"[Devlin, 2002:107]. According to Professor Charles Smith's definition, "synonyms are words which agree in expressing one or more characteristic ideas in common"[Smith, 2003:75]. The famous scientist R. Ginzburg defines synonyms as "words belonging to one part of speech, possessing one or more identical meanings but different in morphemic composition" [Ginzburg, 1985:75].

Having studied various opinions of famous scholars the traditional linguistics solved this problem with the conceptual criterion and presented the following definition.

Synonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same concept and possessing one or more identical denotations but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.

Many synonyms are characterized by either the semantic relations of equivalence or by the different types of synonyms. A more modern and a more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms as words differing in an evaluative connotation. It seems convenient to classify connotations by which synonyms differ rather than synonyms themselves. It opens up possibilities for tracing much subtler distinctive features within their semantic structures.

The difference in an evaluative synonym *beautiful* – (adj.) may be illustrated by the following synonymic words:

• *Gorgeous* – very beautiful or pleasant (великолепный, красочный).

Eg.: Sandy was there, looking gorgeous as usual.

• *Stunning* – very impressive or beautiful, for example, a stunning dress (в значении потрясающий).

Eg.: The view from the top of the hill is stunning.

- *Breathtaking* – extremely impressive or beautiful (захватывающий).

Eg.: The scenery along the coast was just breathtaking.

- *Lovely* – beautiful, very attractive, charming. (прелестный, прекрасный).

Eg.: It was a lovely time. She had lovely hair.

- *Exquisite* – perfected, extremely beautiful and delicate (утонченный).

Eg.: This exquisite hand-painted vase is from China.

So you see that these synonyms are characterized by certain features of semantic dissimilarity which shows that they are not absolutely identical in meaning.

In contemporary research on synonymy semantic criterion is frequently used. The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed *denotation or denotative component*. The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word. It means that denotation is the central meaning of a word.

The terms *connotation or connotative component* are used to describe more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, to give the additional semantic structures. The difference in connotation may be illustrated by the words: *celebrated* in the meaning (widely known, famous, having good fame). The adjective *celebrated* (with positive meaning) – *celebrated scholar, celebrated singer, celebrated artist.* The adjective *notorious* (with negative meaning) which is defined as (widely known because of something bad, for example for being criminal, violent, immoral) – *notorious robber, notorious murderer, notorious lady-killer.*

Thus, Synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotation, but different in connotative components.

2. The Dominant Synonym

All synonymic groups have a "central" word whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all synonymic groups. This word is called the ***dominant synonym***. Here are examples of the dominant synonyms with their groups:

to surprise – to astonish – to amaze – to astound;
to tremble – to shiver– to shudder – to shake.

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way without any additional information. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word, its meaning is broad and generalized, more or less "covers" the meanings of the rest of the synonyms.

E.g.: the verb *to look* instead of *to glare, to stare, to peer, to peep, to ogle.*

The following table of analysis of the numerous synonyms of the verb *to look* is suggested by G.B. Antrushina.

Table 6

The dominant synonym *to look*	Connotations	Connotations
to stare	steadily, lastingly	in surprise, curiosity
to glare	steadily, lastingly	in anger, rage, fury
to gaze	steadily, lastingly	in tenderness, admiration, wonder
to glance	briefly, in passing	
to peep	steadily, lastingly	through an opening or from a concealed location
to peer	steadily, carefully	with difficulty or strain
to ogle	steadily	to stare at smb. rudely, with a strong sexual interest.

The common denotation shows that, according to the semantic criterion, the words grouped in the above table are synonyms. The connotative components represented on the right side of the table highlight their differentiations.

Summing up what has been said the following characteristic features of the ***dominant synonym*** can be underlined:

• high frequency of usage;
• broad combinability, i.e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words;
• a broad general meaning.

3. Classification of Synonyms

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. All synonymic groups can be classified into several types. The classification system for synonyms was established by Academician V.V. Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar. In his classification system there are three types of synonyms:

1. **Ideographic** (words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), e.g. *stool – chair, piece – lump – slice*. Ideographic synonyms correspond to one and the same referential area, i.e. denote the same thing but different in the denotational aspect of their meanings.

2. **Stylistic** (different in stylistic characteristics). Stylistic synonyms are similar in the denotational aspect of meaning, but different in the connotational aspect. Substituting one stylistic synonym for another one results in an inadequate presentation of the situation of communication.

Stylistic synonyms can have different characteristics: colloquial, slang, dialect, poetic, learned words. The following examples of synonyms are differentiated by stylistic connotations of attendant features.

For example, *snack, bite* (coll.), *snap* (dial.) all denote a frugal meal taken in a hurry; *refreshment* (formal) is also a light meal; *feast* (formal) is rich or abundant meal.

Among stylistic synonyms Prof. Ch. F. Hockett points out a special group of words are called euphemisms, "There are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g. *the late* instead of *dead*"[Hockett: 2000,74]. He also presents the phraseological synonyms which are identical in their meanings but different in the combination of words. Eg., *to get into a jam – to get into hot water – to get in trouble;* phrasal verbs: *to look like – to take after, to carry on – to go on – to continue.*

3. **Absolute** (coinciding in all their shades of meaning).

E.g.: *big – large, to begin – to start; homeland– motherland.* These synonyms are often interchangeable in the meaning: *a big house, country, family, dog – a large house, country, family, dog.* One can say *big success, large success; big problem, large problem*, where *big* is more colloquial and *large* is more formal.

It has been mentioned that some modern linguists (F.R. Palmer, Ch. F. Hockett) give the typological classification of synonyms:

- **contextual synonyms** – similar in meaning only under some specific conditions, when the difference in meanings of words is neutralized in a certain context.

Eg.: *uninteresting book – a dull book; smart clothes – fashionable clothes*.

- **dialectical synonyms** – include the different variants of a language. Eg.: *Lift – elevator, Autumn – full, flat – apartment*.

- **terminological synonyms** – two existing terms for one concept. Eg.: *borrowing* and *loan-word, concept* and *notion, word-formation* and *word-building*.

- **total synonyms –** can replace each other in any given context, without the alteration in denotative meaning and connotations.

Eg.: *flection – inflection, full –total, big – large*.

Having analyzed the problem of synonymy in Modern English we could do the following conclusion:

- English synonyms can have several meanings, they are mostly polysemantic words;

- Many English synonyms are borrowed from other languages;

- Synonyms can be defined with the same denotation but differing in connotations.

- Synonyms can be a source of euphemisms.

- English synonyms are distinguished in meaning, coloring and usage.

Synonyms are quite difficult to study. In many cases it is not enough to know the meanings of the synonyms in a group and have one or two examples of their use, and it is sometimes difficult to single out the most general synonym that can substitute for the other synonyms in a group.

Seminar Questions:

Consider your answers to the following.

1. Say why synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. Give the definition of synonyms.

2. What is the dominant synonym?

3. What types of synonyms were defined in V.V. Vinogradov's classification system?

4. What do the terms denotation and connotation express?

5. Say about the typological classification of synonyms.

Seminar Tasks:

1. *Point out the synonymic dominant of each group and explain the connotative meanings of the following synonyms*:

1. journey – voyage – trip – tour – cruise – travel – hitch-hiking;
2. road – path – way – track – highway;
3. disease – illness – malady – ailment;
4. to be anxious – to worry – to trouble – to bother.

2. *A self-study work*. Give the complete description and several synonyms to the following words: **to run, to laugh, to relax, to eat, cold, fast, exciting.**

(try to do the task according to the example of the given table)

Table 7

Synonyms	Transcription	Explanation of meaning	Example	Translation
to the verb "***run***" to dart	[da:t]	to move suddenly and quickly in a particular direction.	A dog darted across the road in front of me.	рвануться, кинуться, помчаться стрелой.
to rush	[r^ς]	to move or act swiftly, hurry.	The children rushed down the stairs.	мчаться, нестись.
to jog, go jogging	[dʒog]	to run slowly and steadily for a long time.	I go jogging every evening	бегать, не торопясь

4. Antonyms

Antonyms are words belonging to the same category of parts of speech and expressing contrary or contradictory notions.

Antonyms, from the Greek *anti* (opposite) and *onoma* (name) are word pairs that opposite in meaning, such as *hot* and *cold, fat* and *skinny.*

According to the definition given by I.V. Arnold it seems to be "antonyms may be classified as two rarely more words belonging to the same part of speech identical in style and nearly identical in

distribution, associated and used together in opposite meanings" [Arnold, 2012:57].

As for interpretation of R.S Ginzburg "the term '*antonyms*' can be characterized by semantic polarity of denotational meanings or meaning and interchangeable in some context" [Ginzburg, 1985:84].

Polysemantic words may have different antonyms depending on the meaning. For example, the adjective *dull* has the antonyms *interesting, amusing, entertaining* for its meaning of "deficient in interest", *clever, bright, capable* for its meaning of "deficient in intellect" and *active* for the meaning of "deficient in activity" etc.

Antonyms form mostly pairs, not groups like synonyms: *above – below, absent – present, alike – different, bad – good.*

Antonymy is not distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives they are only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted. E.g.: *high – low, old – young, wide – narrow, strong – weak* etc.

Verbal pairs of antonyms are fewer in number. Here are some of them: *to lose – to find, to open – to close, to accept – to reject* etc.

Nouns are not rich in antonyms, but even so some examples can be given: *good – evil, joy – grief, love – hatred, friend – enemy.*

Antonymic adverbs can be subdivided into two groups: a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly – coldly, merrily – sadly, loudly – softly*; b) adverbs proper: *now – then, here – there, ever – never, up – down.*

Antonyms are words grouped together on the basis of the semantic relations of opposition possessing its own structure, where the antonyms can be divided into antonyms of the same root, e.g. *to dress – to undress, employed – unemployed, human –inhuman* and antonyms of different roots: *rich – poor, strong – weak.*

The famous scientist V.N. Komissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups: "**absolute or root antonyms** have different roots (*late – early, old – young*) and **derivational antonyms** have the same roots and different affixes [Komissarov, 2000: 36] (*to please – to displease, expensive – inexpensive, prewar – postwar*).

Semantically, absolute antonyms can be subdivided into antonyms:

• proper where opposition is gradual, it includes several elements characterized by different degrees of the same property, e.g. *cold, cool – warm, hot*; *large, big – little or small.*

• complementarity is a binary opposition, it may have only two members, the denial of one member of the opposition implies the assertion of the other, e.g. *dead – alive, single – married, male – female*.

• converseness denote one and the same referent from different points of view, e.g. *to sell – to buy, to give – to receive.*

The regular type of derivational antonyms contains negative prefixes: (im-, il-, in-, ir-, un-, dis-, non-), for example, *experienced – inexperienced, logical – illogical, convenient – inconvenient.* Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes: (-ful and -less).The number of antonyms with the suffixes (-ful and -less) is not very large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its antonym is formed not by substituting (-ful by – less), e.g. *successful – unsuccessful, selfless – selfish*. The same is true about antonyms with negative prefixes, e.g. «to man» is not an antonym of the word «to unman», «to disappoint» is not an antonym of the word «to appoint».

The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, e.g. *active – inactive*. Absolute antonyms express contrary notions and can be arranged in a group of more than two members, e.g. the antonyms of the adjective *ugly – plain, good-looking, pretty, beautiful*.

Professor L. Lipka gives the type which he calls: "***directional opposition** up/down*, **consequence opposition** *learn/know*, **antipodal opposition** *North/South, East/West"* [Lipka, 1994: 151]. It is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions. The pairs *come/go, arrive/ depart* involve motion in different directions. In the case *up/down* we have movement from a point P. In the case *come/go* we have movement from or to the speaker.

Professor L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. He gives serially ordered sets, such as "scales (*hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold)*; colour words (*black, grey, white*); ranks (*marshal, general, colonel, major, captain*) There are gradable examination marks: *excellent, good, average, fair, poor* [Lipka, 1994, 152].

The type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives, e.g. *beautiful – ugly, to beautify – to uglify, beauty – ugliness*. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states, e.g. *respect – scorn, to respect – to scorn, respectful – scornful, to*

live – to die, alive – dead, life – death. It can be also met among words denoting direction in space and time, e.g. *here – there, up – down, now – never, before – after, day – night, early – late* etc. If a word is polysemantic it can have several antonyms, e.g. the word *bright* has the antonyms *dim, dull, sad.*

Synonyms and Antonyms form an integral part of the English language. Acquaintance with the vocabulary of the English language is a necessity for effective expression either in written or in an oral form. The synonym is a word or a phrase that means the same as another word or a phrase. The antonym is a word or phrase that is opposite in meaning to a particular word or phrase in the same language.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1.   Give the different definitions of antonyms.
2.   The general characteristics of antonyms.
3.   To which parts of speech do most antonyms belong?
4.   What classification of antonyms is given by V.N. Comissarov?
5.   What types of antonyms are defined by L. Lipka?

Seminar Tasks:
1.   *Find antonyms for the words given below.*
Deep, narrow, clever, to reject, strong, bright, sad, to open, big, young.
2.   *Choose the correct prefixes* (il-, in-, im-, ir-, un-, mis-, dis-) *to the following words:*
name, responsible, print, manage, legal, human, experienced, important, prove, honest, patient, perfect, liberal, correct, moral, accurate, obedient, pleased, skilled, relevant, stable, regular, reasonable, expensive, capable, formal, patient.
3.   *A self-study work.* Work with the dictionary and give the complete description of the root and derivational antonyms.

5. Euphemisms

The word "euphemism" comes from the Greek word *euphemo*, meaning "auspicious/good/fortunate speech/kind" which in turn is derived from the Greek root-words eu (ευ), "good/well" + pheme (φήμη) "speech/speaking".

The term *"eupheme"* was originally a word or phrase used in place of a religious word or phrase that should not be spoken aloud; etymologically, the *eupheme* is the opposite of the blaspheme (evil-speaking). The primary example of taboo words requiring the use of a euphemism are the unspeakable names for a deity, such as Persephone, Hecate, or Nemesis.

Euphemism was itself used as a euphemism by the ancient Greeks, meaning 'to keep a holy silence' (speaking well by not speaking at all).

Euphemism is a substitution of an agreeable or less offensive expression in place of one that may offend or suggest something unpleasant to the listener or in the case of doublespeak, to make it less troublesome for the speaker. It also may be a substitution of a description of something or someone rather than the name, to avoid revealing secret, holy, or sacred names to the uninitiated, or to obscure the identity of the subject of a conversation from potential eavesdroppers. Euphemisms and the process of euphemizing have the following characteristics:

- A euphemism is an expression substituted for another expression which has acquired a negative connotation.
- A euphemism can be substituted as synonym for a word or phrase of lower status.
- A euphemism is an expression deliberately created to raise the status of understanding.

When a phrase is used as a euphemism, it often becomes a metaphor whose literal meaning is dropped. Euphemisms may be used to hide unpleasant or disturbing ideas, even when the literal term for them is not necessarily offensive. This type of euphemism is used in public relations and politics, where it is sometimes called doublespeak. Sometimes, using euphemisms is equated to politeness.

There are also superstitious euphemisms, based (consciously or subconsciously) on the idea that words have the power to bring bad fortune (for example, not speaking the word "*cancer*") instead of this the descriptive way is used – *a mortal disease.* The doctors use technical terminology when discussing cancer in front of patients, e.g. *c.a. or neopsia, neoplastic process, carcinoma.*

Euphemisms are substitutes for their synonyms and other words where their use and existence are caused either by social conventions or by certain psychological and political factors. "With peoples of

developed culture and civilisation euphemism is intrinsically different, it is dictated by social usage, etiquette, advertising, tact, diplomatic considerations and political propaganda" [Lyons, 2005:25].

It is known the special taboo in naming old-fashioned word "Negro" instead of this a person from America who is member of a race of people who have dark skin, originally from Africa is called *African American*. It is politically correct to describe language, culture or behaviour in order to avoid offending particular groups of people.

Euphemisms always tend to be a source of new formations because after a short period of use the new term becomes so closely connected with the notion that it turns a word as obnoxious as earlier synonym.

6. The Evolution of Euphemisms

Euphemisms may be formed in a number of ways. Periphrasis or circumlocution is one of the most common — to "speak around" a given word, implying it without saying it. Over time, circumlocutions become recognized as established euphemisms for particular words or ideas.

To alter the pronunciation or spelling of a taboo word (such as a swear word) to form a euphemism is known as taboo deformation. There are number of taboo deformations in English, of which many refer to the infamous four-letter words. In the English language there are some euphemisms were substituted for the original, which no longer occurs in the language, for example, the word "*donkey*" replaced the old Indo-European-derived word "*ass*".

In American English, words which are unacceptable on television, such as *fuck*, may be represented by deformations such as *freak* – even in children's cartoons. Some subjects are considered personal, sensitive or taboo in English. For this reason, people avoid mentioning them by name and instead use a "euphemism" or humorous expression to refer to them.

The word "*lavatory*" has naturally produced many euphemisms. Here some of them: *powder room, washroom, restroom, ladies' room, gentlemen's room*. Pregnancy is another topic for delicate using this word. There are some substitutes for the adjective *pregnant: an interesting condition, in a delicate condition, in the family way, with a baby coming, with child expecting.*

The keys to understanding euphemisms are the concepts of avoidance and etiquette. We euphemize when we are avoiding giving offence. Euphemisms are also used for some physical disabilities, including "*hard of hearing*" for deafness, or "*has difficulty walking* " for "lameness".

As it has been noticed the numbers of euphemisms in the sphere of alcohol are over 2000. Such as *cod, fap, sponge, tightwa, fresh* etc.

Above all euphemisms are used in polite company to avoid the typical speech of power levels of society. This term refers to the substitution of a milder expression for a harsh or unacceptable one. This includes classical euphemisms such as *"pass on"* for *"die"*.

Euphemisms for death and murder.

The English language contains numerous euphemisms related to dying, death, burial, and the people and places which deal with death. The practice of using euphemisms for death is likely to have originated with the magical belief that to speak the word "death" was to invite death; where to "draw Death's attention" is the ultimate bad fortune – a common theory holds that death is a taboo subject in most English-speaking cultures for precisely this reason. It may be said that one is not dying, but fading quickly because the end is near. People who have died are referred to as *having passed away* or *passed* or *departed*.

Contemporary euphemisms and sometimes dysphemisms for death tend to be quite colourful , e.g. *"Kick the bucket"* , "*Turned their toes up*" seems innocuous enough until one considers that such might be fatal if such removes a commonplace stand that prevents a suicidal hanging.

Deceased is a euphemism for "dead" and sometimes the deceased is said *to have gone to a better place*, but this is used primarily among the religious with a concept of Heaven.

Humorous expressions to refer to death:
- *meet your maker*: "He's gone to meet his maker."
- *six feet under*: "I won't worry about money When I'm six feet under."
- *pushing up daisies*: "Last I heard about him, he's pushing up daisies."
- *snuff it:* "I've heard that poor old Ernie has snuffed it."
- *popped his clogs*: "Harold popped his clogs last year."
- *kick the bucket*: "So Joe has finally kicked the bucket."

As a result of distribution and influences of mass media and different psychological levers on language presently constructing type euphemism will intensively penetrate into all spheres colloquial and a literary language. Especially distributed tendencies are given in the English language in the USA, where advertising and business really without any restriction "break" language on the order. It is not surprised because even some American linguists suggest distinguishing two languages: "language of the facts" and "language of ideas".

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What is the euphemism?
2. The main characteristics of euphemism.
3. The etymology of the word euphemism.
4. The evolution of euphemisms.
5. Euphemisms for death and murder.

Seminar Task:
1. Give the Kazakh/Russian equivalents to the following euphemisms if it is possible.

curvy, fluffy, full-figured or heavy-set instead of "fat"

lost their lives for "were killed"

ill-advised for "very poor or bad"

pre-owned vehicles for "used cars"

a student being held back a grade level for "having failed or flunked the grade level"

sanitation worker (or, sarcastically, *sanitation officer or sanitation engineer*), or *garbologist* for "bin man" or "garbage man"

alcohol-related, single-car crash for "drunk driver"

specific about what one eats for being a picky eater

intellectually challenged for "being mentally retarded"

adult entertainment for "pornography"

legal capital for "stated capital"

gender reassignment for "sex change"

differently abled for "disabled"

chemical dependency for "drug addiction"

dual-diagnosed for having both mental illness and drug problems

2. *A self-study work.* Write ten English euphemisms of different types and analyze them from all points of view which were studied during the seminars.

Chapter 6. ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

1. Homonyms

Homonyms are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling. E.g.: *bank,* n. – a shore; *bank,* n. – an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging money.

The traditional approach is based on historical criteria. Lexemes with the same form but different origin are treated as homonyms and presented in separate entries: *Ball*, n. – a sphere, any spherical body. *Ball* n. – as "round object" has the Germanic origin; *ball*, n. – a large dancing party. *Ball* n. – as "dance" is of Romance origin.

The term "homonym" is derived from Greek *homos* – "similar" and *onoma* – "name", and thus expresses the sameness of name combined with the difference in meaning.

Homonymy exists in many languages, but in English it is particularly frequent, especially among monosyllabic words. In the list of 2540 homonyms given in the "Oxford English Dictionary" 89% are monosyllabic words and only 9.1 % are words of two syllables. From the viewpoint of their morphological structure, they are mostly one-morpheme words.

Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of leveling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. «*care*» from «*caru*» and «care» from «*carian*». They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. «to slim» from «slim», «*to water*» from «*water*». They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. «*reader*» /a person who reads and a book for reading/.

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: «to bear» from «beran» /to carry/ and «bear» from «bera» /an animal/. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. «fair» from Latin «feria» and «fair» from native «fager» /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide, e.g. «base» from the French «base» /Latin basis/ and «base» /low/ from the Latin «bas» /Italian «basso»/.

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. «cab» from «cabriolet», «cabbage», «cabin».

2. Classification of Homonyms

Homonyms are distinguished into three types:
1. Homonyms proper
2. Homophones
3. Homographs

Homonyms are the same in sound and spelling are traditionally termed *homonyms proper*. E.g.: *match,* (n.) – a game, *match,* (n.) – thing is used for producing fire. Homonyms proper can be named by other terms. As for definition of the famous scientist I.A. Arnold these words are *perfect homonyms.* Professor A.I. Smirnitsky called them *full homonyms.*

Homonyms are the same in sound but different in spelling can be defined as *homophones*. E.g.: *a piece* (n.) – *peace* (n.); *cent* (n.) – *sent* (v.); *write* (v.) – *right* (adj.); *maid* (n.) – *made* (v.). The examples here show that *homophones* may be belong both to the same and to different categories of parts of speech. Professor A.I. Smirnitsky offered the following definition, "Homonyms belonging to different categories of parts of speech and possessing one identical form in their paradigms are called *partial homonyms*." [Smirnitsky:1986, 96].

Homographs are words with the same spelling but pronounced differently.

E.g. *bow* –[bau]- (v.) – to incline the head or body in salutation, *bow* – [bəu] – (n.) – a flexible strip of wood for propelling arrows; *to lead* [li:d] – (v.) – to conduct on the way, go before to show the way, *lead* [led] – (n.) – a heavy, rather soft metal.

A more detailed classification was given by I.V. Arnold. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups:

• homonyms are identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms (a typical example or model of a word) and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. *a board* in the meanings *a council* and "a thin flat piece of wood";

• homonyms are identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. *to lie – lied – lied,* and *to lie – lay – lain*;

• homonyms are different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. *light – lights, light – lighter – lightest*;

• homonyms are different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. *a bit* and *bit* (from "to bite").

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What is the term "homonyms"?
2. Why the homonyms are particularly frequent in English?
3. What do you know about partial homonyms?
4. The main ways of development of homonyms.
5. What is the traditional classification of homonyms?
6. What classification was given by I.V. Arnold?

Seminar Tasks:
1. *Classify homonyms into homonyms proper, homographs and homophones. Explain the meanings of these words in English.*
a row [rou] – a row [rau], a fan – a fan, right (adj.) – right (n.), a piece – peace, bean (n.) – been (v.), a spring – spring (n), a bow [bəu] (n.) – to bow [bau] (v.), to tear [teə]- (v.) – a tear [tiə] (n.), sea (n.) – see (v.), a band – a band, week (n.)– weak (adj.), desert [`dezət]-(n.) – to desert [di`zə:t]- (v.), flour (n.) – a flower, a mole – a mole.
2. *A self-study work.* Find fourteen homonyms, explain the meanings of these words in English and give their classification.

3. Archaisms

Words can be classified according to the period of their life in the language. The number of new words in a language is always larger than the number of words which come out of active usage. Accordingly we can have archaisms, that words which have come out of active usage.

Archaisms are words which are no longer used in everyday speech, which have been ousted by their synonyms. Archaisms remain in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

Most of these words are lexical archaisms and they are stylistic synonyms of words which ousted them from the neutral style. Some of them are: *steed /horse/, slay /kill/, behold /see/, perchance /perhaps/, woe /sorrow/* etc.

Sometimes a lexical archaism begins a new life, getting a new meaning, then the old meaning becomes a semantic archaism, e.g. «*fair*» in the meaning «beautiful» is a semantic archaism, but in the meaning «*blond*» it belongs to the neutral style.

Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, then the old affix is considered to be a morphemic archaism, e.g. «*beautious» /»ous*» was substituted by «*ful*»/, «*bepaint*» / «*be*» was dropped/, «*darksome» /»some*» was dropped/, «*oft*» / «*en*» was added/. etc.

4. Neologisms

The rapid progress and development of technology, science and Internet required "new words and terms" which have appeared in the English language. This process is called as *neologisms* and especially used in nomination not only new objects, inventions but also the naming of new concepts which have taken on a new cultural context. The origin is the Greek word " *neo* – "new" + *logos* – "word, term, phrase" which have been recently created (coined) often to apply to new concepts, or to reshape older terms in newer language form. Eg.: the new word *screenager* – a young person or a teenager who spends a lot of time in front of the computer; also new words enter the English language *billboard, keyboard, flash drive*, etc.

The famous linguist R. Berchfield which worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED (New English Dictionary) said,

"that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization" [Berchfield: 1991, 123].

Neologisms can refer to an existing word or phrase which has been assigned a new meaning. They are often created by combining existing word or by giving words new and unique suffixes and prefixes. Now neologisms are relating to computers and the internet, for example, the word "cybersick/ness/" (a feeling of illness caused by using a computer for long periods of time).

The extra-linguistic causes are determined by the social nature of the language: they are observed in changes of meaning resulting from the development of the notion expressed and the thing named and by the appearance of new notions and things. In other words, extra-linguistic causes of semantic change are connected with the development of the human mind as it moulds reality to conform with its needs.

Neologisms can develop in main way when a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. For, instance, Macmillan English Dictionary (New Edition) presents the new lexical meanings of the existed compound words in the language.

- *Civil partnership* – 1) a relationship between a man and woman having no legal status; 2) a relation similar to marriage for two people who are the same sex. (the new legislation that allows same-sex couples to marry).

- *Designer baby* – 1) a baby whose parents dress it in designer clothes; 2) a human baby created using method that allows parents to choose certain genes in order to save or treat another child before is born. (This term is especially used in newspapers).

- *Boomerang kid* – 1) a child is returned home; 2) an adult child who returns home after university, their first job or the end relationship because they have no money or job.

A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.

Here we can point out several semantic groups of neologisms connected with computerization:

- to denote different types of computers, e.g. *PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer* /analogue of a human brain/;

- to denote parts of computers, e.g. *hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware* / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/;
- to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc.;
- to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. *computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out* / to ruin data in a computer's memory/.

New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media. There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme «tele», e.g. *to telework, to telecommute* (to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works). There are also such words as *telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping* (when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home); when all operations are registered by the computer at your bank – *videobank* (it is computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence).

In the sphere of lingusitics we have such neologisms as: machine translation, *interlingual* (an artificial language for machine translation into several languages) and many others.

Many new words have come from medicine and biological science, e.g. biologically engineered, genetically modified. In the sphere of medicine computers we have the following neologisms: *telemonitory unit /a telemonitory* system for treating patients at a distance.

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: *finger-print scanner*, *biometric eye-scanner* (blood-vessel arrangements in eyes), *voice verification* (voice patterns). These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key.

In connection with criminalization of towns in UK voluntary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called «neighbourhood watch», «home watch». Criminals wear «stocking masks» not to be recognized.

With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in «speak» appeared in English, e.g. *artspeak, sportspeak, medspeak, education-speak, video-speak, cable-speak* etc.

There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

- macrobiotics (raw vegetables), microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers (beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg-);
- clothing, e.g. *catsuit* (one-piece clinging suit), *slimster , string* (miniscule bikini), *completenik* (a long sweater for trousers), *sweatnik* (a long jacket), *pants-skirt, bloomers* (lady's sports trousers);
- footwear e.g. *winklepickers* (shoes with long pointed toes), *thongs* (open sandals), *backsters* (beech sandals with thick soles);
- bags, e.g. *bumbag* (a small bag worn on the waist), *sling bag* (a bag with a long belt), *maitre* (a small bag for cosmetics).

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into: phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological /word-building/ and phraseological neologisms.

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds which are called artificial, e.g. *rah-rah* (a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades).

The productive structural patterns of Neologisms are formed according to the borrowings from another language, for example, Russian words: *sputnik, spaceship, space rocket.*

Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms.

Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as «free-fall» – appeared with the stock market crash in October 1987 (on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute).

There are also abbreviations of different types, such *as resto, teen* /teenager/, *dinky* /dual income no kids yet/, ARC /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS/, HIV / human immuno-deficiency virus/.

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. *snowmobile* (automobile),

danceaholic (alcoholic), *airtel* (hotel), *cheeseburger* (hamburger), *autocade* (cavalcade).

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: *decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, educationalist, slimster,* etc.

Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. 1) ***Trojan horse*** – a person or thing that is used to trick an enemy in order to achieve a secret purpose; to buy into (to become involved), fudge and dudge (avoidance of definite decisions 2) a computer program that is designed to destroy data, it is a type of virus. Origin came from the story in which the ancient Greeks hid inside a hollow wooden statue of horse in order to enter the city of their enemies, Troy. Set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. *electronic virus, retail park, acid rain, boot trade* etc.&

The intense development of science, technology and industry has called the intention and introduction of an immense number of new words with the new meanings.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What can you say about archaisms?
2. What is a lexical archaism?
3. What process is called as neologisms?
4. Give the semantic groups of neologisms connected with computerization.
5. What new words have come from medicine and biological science?
6. Name the different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life.
7. Describe the different types of neologisms.

Seminar Tasks:
1. *Analyze the following neologisms from the point of view of neology theory and also from the point of view of their morphemic structure and the way they were formed.*

Tourmobile, to de-dramatize , non-formals, to baby-sit, hide-away, to scrimp and save, fireside chat , cashless society, multinationals, hyperacidity, D-Day, religiosity, communication gap, laundered money, cheeseburger, micro-surgical, medicare.

2. *A self-study work*. *Prepare and write the paper or make the presentation on the following subjects:*

- Types of Neologisms and their characteristics.
- Art and Music Neologisms.
- Neologisms used in Mass Media.
- Computing Neologisms.
- Sports Neologisms.
- Neologisms in Fashions, clothing, footwear.
- New Business Words and new meanings.
- The creation of Neologisms with the help of word-building.

Chapter 7. PHRASEOLOGY

1. Phraseological Units or Idioms

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are stable word-groups characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning and compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms».

We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Idioms are widely used in standard spoken and written English today and can be defined as established and essential speech units with fixed and constant structures.

An idiom is a combination of words having a meaning that is different from the meanings of the individual words themselves. It is a phrase which does not always follow the normal rules of meaning and grammar.

The famous linguist J.S. McMordie says that "many idioms are examples of strong collocations, for example it is difficult to see why *spill the beans* should mean (to give away secret information).The words and grammar that make up this idiom are almost impossible to change, without changing the meaning" [McMordie, 2000: 352].

E.g.: *To sit on the fence* – can literally mean that one is sitting on a fence. However, the idiomatic meaning of this phrase is "that one is not making a clear choice regarding some issue". Many idioms are unique and fixed in their grammatical structure. The expression *to sit on the fence* cannot become "to sit on a fence" or "to sit on the fences".

Phraseological units, or idioms, as they are called by most western scholars, represent the most colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary. It reflects the nation's customs, facts, tradition of the past history.

E.g.: *Dark horse* – actually not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite and so one is not sure what can be expected from him. It is connected with the British tradition to go horse races and bid as to what horse can win the race. Often the race is won by an unknown horse, hence the expression *dark horse*.

E.g.: *A white elephant* is a valuable object or a thing which involves great expense or trouble for its owner, it may have cost a lot of money and which is also difficult to dispose of. Eg.: *The new office block has become an expensive white elephant*.

This phrase came from the interesting story, when the king of Siam (now Thailand) presented such elephants to the people whom he didn't like and wanted to ruin them. That person would have to spend all their money on looking after the rare animal and of course it was very expensive to have these animals in the household.

2. Principles of Classification

The idioms can be classified on the basis of different principles. The traditional and the oldest principle for classification is based on their original content and it might be termed as *thematic*. On this principle they are classified according to their sources of origin, referring to different spheres of human activity, life of nature, natural phenomena etc.

Prof. L.P. Smith distinguishes idioms connected with the sea, agriculture, wild and domestic animals, art, etc. E.g.: *in deep waters* (in trouble), *couch potato* (about a man who spends a lot of time watching television), *crocodile tears* (insincere tears for effect only) etc.

English idioms have many colloquial expressions with parts of human body which are called *somatic phrases* or it can be introduced

as *somatisms*. E.g.: *face to face* (person to person), *to lose one's head* (panic, lose control), *under one's nose* (very close, easily noticed), *easy on the eye* (pleasant to look at) etc.

Idioms-*zoomorphisms* are widely spread phraseological units where authors assign animal characteristics to human characters. E.g.: *paper tiger* (a person who appears to have power but is in reality ineffectual), *as gentle as a lamb* (very gentle person), *as scared as a rabbit* (very scared); *a fish out of water* (someone who is in unsuited situation), *horse about/around* (play or act in a wild or noisy manner) etc.

There are many idioms which have key words from special categories:

- Colours – *a black list* (a list of persons who are considered to be dangerous), *to have blue blood* (be royal or aristocratic in origin);
- Numbers – *a new one on me* (something surprising); *at sixes and sevens* (in a state of confusion, muddle, disorder);
- Time – *day after day* (every day), *rush hour* (the time of day when there is a lot of traffic), *in half a minute* (very soon).

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.

There are many phraseological units and the differences between them are also a lot. That's why it is important to say that phraseological units, or idioms, have different classifications based on their phraseology have been described by many authors. The most comprehensive are the doctoral theses of N.N. Amosova and A.V. Koonin. The detailed groups are given in the books on English idioms by L.P. Smith and W. Ball. The most significant theories advanced for Russian Phraseology are those by V.V. Vinogradov.

3. Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by Academician V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units: *phraseological combinations, phraseological unities, phraseological fusions* (фразеологические сочетания, единства и сращения).

Phraseological combinations are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They may be said to be clearly motivated, i.e. the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meaning of its constituents. E.g.: *to have a bite*, *to be a good hand at smth, bitter truth, swam neck, dog's life, to skate on thin ice* (to take risks) etc.

Phraseological unities are word-groups with a completely changed meaning i.e. meaning of the unit does not correspond to meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units, where the meaning of the whole unit can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical).

E.g.: *to play the first fiddle* (to be a leader in something), *to stick to one's word* (to promise), *old salt* (experienced sailor), *to lose one's heart to smb* (to fall in love). Collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e.g. *cash and carry* – (self-service shop), *in a big way* (in great degree) etc.

Phraseological fusions are word-groups with completely changed meanings, they are not motivated units, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components. These phrases are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages. E.g.: *a white feather, to cut somebody dead* means (to rudely ignore somebody, to pretend not to know or recognize him); *raining cat and dogs* (raining very heavily); *a skeleton in the cupboard* (a shameful or dangerous family secret); *to come a cropper* (to come to a disaster); *red tape* (bureaucratic methods: official rules that seem more complicated than necessary and prevent things from being done quickly). The origin is from the custom of tying up official documents with red or pink tape.

4. Structural Classification of Phraseological Units

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among one-top units he points out three structural types;

a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type), e.g. *to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in* etc.;

b) units of the type «to be tired» . Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions «by» or «with», e.g. *to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at* etc.

c) prepositional – nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, e.g. *on the doorstep* (quite near), *on the nose* (exactly), *in the course of*, *on the stroke of*, *on time*, *in time*, *on the point of* etc.

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal such as: *a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck* and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e.g. *high road*, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e.g. *first night*. In many cases both components are idiomatic, e.g. *red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others*.

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, e.g. to *read between the lines*, *to sweep under the carpet* etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, e.g. *to fall in love*. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre, e.g. *not to know the ropes*. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, e.g. *to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners'* etc.

c) phraseological repetitions, such as: *now or never, part and parcel , country and western* etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, e.g. *ups and downs, back and forth;* often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g. *cakes and ale, as busy as a bee*.

5. Parts of Speech Classification of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I.V. Arnold.

Here we have the following groups:

a) noun-phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g., *a dog's life, a big shot, redbrick university, Green Beret;*

b) verb-phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. *to break the log-jam, to rain cats and dogs, to be on the beam, to nose out , to make headlines;*

c) adjective-phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g. *loose as a goose, safe and sound*, *as thin as a rail, high and mighty;*

d) adverb phraseological units, such as: *with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails;*

e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. *in the course of, on the stroke of*;

f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. *Catch me!, Well, I never*! *Take it easy*, etc.

In I.V.Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, e.g. *The sky is the limit, What makes him tick, I am easy*.

6. The Structural-Semantic Classification of PU

The classification system of phraseological units suggested by Russian professor A.V. Koonin is the latest outstanding achievement in the theory of phraseology. This classification is based on the combined structural-semantic principle and subdivided into four classes.

• Nominative phraseological units are represented by word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word: *wear and tear, well and good.*

• Nominative-communicative phraseological units include word-groups of the type: *to break the ice – the ice is broken*, that is, verbal word-groups are transformed into a sentence when the verb is used in the Passive Voice.

• Phraseological units include interjectional word-groups.

• Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings.

These four classes are divided into sub-groups according to the type of structure of the phraseological units.

"The classification system includes a considerable number of subtypes and gradations and objectively reflects the wealth of types

of phraseological units existing in the language"[Koonin,2008:44]. It is based on scientific and modern criteria and represents an earnest attempt to take into account all the relevant aspects of phraseological units and combine them within the borders of one classification system.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. Ways of forming phraseological units.
2. What is the thematic classification of phraseological units?
3. Semantic classification of phraseological units.
4. Structural classification of phraseological units.
5. Syntactical classification of phraseological units.
6. The classification system suggested by professor A.V. Koonin.

Seminar Tasks:
1. *Analyze the following phraseological units according to their meanings, structure, syntactical function and the way they are formed. Give Russian/Kazakh equivalents.*

to get into a jam, to stick your neck out, to be behind scenes, to be under someone's thumb, to lend someone a hand, to pay through the nose, to jump out of one's skin, as smart as paint, it's my cup of tea, to be in the dog house, the green power, Green Berets, to get off one's back, a home bird, a cat nap, bosom friends, bitter truth, to ride the high horse, to live from hand to mouth, Nuts and bolts, to leap into marriage, to nose out, to fill in smth., a close mouth catches no flies, rain cats and dogs, to take the bull by the horns, a big bug, to be keen on, a fish out of water, to be green, a black look, from head to foot.

2. *Complete the following similes. Translate or give Russian/ Kazakh equivalents of the following phrases.*

A.	B.
1. as busy as …	a. soot
2. as sharp as …	b. a lamb
3. as cold as …	c. a mouse
4. as white as …	d. ice
5. as bold as …	e. a fox
6. as changeable as …	f. a razor
7. as greedy as…	g. a bird
8. as free as …	h. brass
9. as quiet as …	i. a cat

10. as black as …	j. a pig
11. as blind as …	k. ABC
12. cunning as …	l. a bat
13. as gentle as …	m. chalk
14. as easy as …	n. a bee

3. ***A self-study work of students.*** Work with special dictionaries (A.V. Koonin's

dictionary of phraseological units) and a dictionary of idioms. Find the English idioms with key words from special categories and analyze them in the written form.

- Somatic (parts of the body);
- Zoomorphism (key words: animals);
- Colors;
- Time, number.

Chapter 8. The BRITISH AND AMERICAN VARIANTS OF ENGLISH

1. Differences in Pronunciation

The variety of English spoken in the USA has received the name of American English which has distinctive features of its own. Sometimes these varieties are called Americanisms and may be defined as words or set expressions peculiar to the English Language.

As scientist G.B. Antrushina says, "Many Americanisms belong to colloquialisms and slang, that is to those shifting, changeable strata of the vocabulary which do not represent its stable or permanent bulk, the latter being the same in American and British speech" [Antrushina, 2004:264]. Many Americanisms easily penetrate into British speech, and, a result some of the distinctive characteristics of American English become erased.

The American variant of the English Language differs from British English in pronunciation, some minor features of grammar, but chiefly in vocabulary.

There are some specific phonetic peculiarities: British English gives a broad sound [a:] to words like *bath, dance* the Americans pronounce these words softly as [ǽ] like the word *flat.* The diphthong [ou] exists in both languages, but in British English pronunciation the sound is much narrower.

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary gives some other differences in pronunciation. In British English the consonant –r- is pronounced only before a vowel, for example, in *red* and *bedroom.* In all other cases the –r- is silent (*car, learn, over*). In American English the –r- is always pronounced.

In American English the –t- between vowels is pronounced as a soft d/d/, so that *writer* and *rider* sound similar, British English speakers usually pronounce the t as/t/.

Differences in pronunciation of individual words are illustrated in the table.

Table 8

Words	British	American
schedule	[ʃedju:l]	[skedju:l]
clerk	[kla:k]	[klə:k]
issue	[isʃju:]	[isju:]
vase	[va:z]	[veiz]
lientenant	[leftenent]	[lju:tenent]
direction	[direkʃən]	[dairekʃən]

2. Differences in Spelling

There are some differences between British and American usage in spelling.

So many words ending in **-bre, -tre** in Britain (*metre, fibre*) are spelled **-er** in the US (*meter, fiber*). Words ending in **-our** in Britain (*colour, labour)* are usually spelled **-or** in the US (*color, labor*). Most verbs ending in **-ize or -ise** are spelled **-ize** in the US with the exception of a small number of verbs like *advertise, devise, surprise* having different origin.

The words ending in **-ce** or **-se** are spelled in American use **-se**: *defense, offense*, while in British use they are spelled *defence, offence*. In British use, words of more than one syllable ending in **-l** and forming derivative double the **l** before a vowel: *travel – travelling – travelled, cancel – cancelling – cancelled*. In American use it is not doubled: *travel – traveling – traveled, etc.*

The American spelling is in some respects simpler than its British variant, in other respect just different. The table below illustrates some of the other differences.

Table 9

Words with spelling:	British English	American English
-re/ -er	centre, theatre	center, theater
-ou-/-o-	favourite	favorite
-gue/ -g	dialogue, catologue	dialog, catalog
-ce/ -se	defence, offence	defense, offense
-our/ -or	honour, colour	color, honor
-ise/ -ize -yse/ -yze	realize, analyse	realize analyze
-ll-/ -l-	jewellery	jewelry
-ae-/ -e-	encyclopaedia	encyclopedia
-xion/-ction	reflexion	reflection
-ity/ -ty	speciality	specialty
-s-/-z-	cosy	cozy

There is a tendency of simplifying the spelling of some words: *plough, programme, judgement* they are British and *plow, judgment, program* for American.

3. Grammar System of American English

The first distinctive feature is the use of the auxiliary verb **will** in the first person singular and plural of Future Indefinite Tense, in contrast to the British normative **shall**. The second distinctive feature consists in a tendency to substitute the Past Indefinite Tense for the Present Perfect Tense, especially in oral communication. An American is likely to say *I saw this movie* where an Englishman will probably say *I've seen this film.* An Englishman says: *I've lost my key today. Have you seen it?* An American says: *I lost my key. Did you see it?*

In American English the simple past can be used with ***already, just*** and ***yet***. In British English the present perfect is used:
- I have *already* given her the present. (*BrE*)
- I *already* gave her the present. (*AmE.*)
- I've *just* seen her. (*BrE*)
- I just saw her (*AmE.*)

- Have you heard the news yet? (*BrE*)
- Did you hear the news yet? (*AmE.)*

We can see the differences in following structure: in British English – *to have a bath, to have a shower, to have a break* in American – *to take a bath, to take a shower, to take a break.*

Some differences in using irregular verbs are given in the table.

Table 10

British English	American English
to get – got –got	to get – got – gotten
to spill – spilt – spilt	to spill – spilled – spilled
to burn – burnt – burnt	to burn – burned – burned
to spoil –spoilt –spoilt	to spoil – spoiled – spoiled

Preposition differences.

British English	American English
At the weekend/ at weekends	On the weekend/ on weekends
At the front	In the front
Fill in	Fill out
Get on (with somebody)	Get along (with somebody)
Stay at home	Stay home

Vocabulary Differences between British and American usage as well as differences in shade of meaning in the common stock of words are also numerous.

Eg.: In the UK, the word *smart* usually means dressed in expensive or fashionable clothes: *a smart suit for interviews*.

The usual American word for this is *stylish.* In the US, *smart* usually means clever: *He's the smartest boy in our group.*

Americanisms represented by name of objects are called differently in the United States and in England. *See the table* 7.

Table 11

British English	American English
Chemist's	Drug store
tin	can

sweets	candy
luggage	baggage
railway	railroad
autumn	fall
bookshop	bookstore
billion	trillion
milliard	billion
shopping trolley	shopping cart

All this brings us to conclusion that the language spoken in the United States is generally identical with that spoken in Great Britain. The grammar systems are fully the same. The American vocabulary is marked by certain peculiarities which are not sufficiently numerous or pronounced to justify the claims that there exists an independent American language. The language spoken in the USA can be regarded as a regional variety of English with its own peculiarities.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What are the differences in pronunciation?
2. What are the differences in spelling?
3. Grammar System of American English.
4. What are the preposition differences?
5. Differences in vocabulary system in American and British English.

Seminar Tasks:
1. *Write the following words according to the British norms of spelling.*
Woolen, humor, color, check, program, catalog, center, favor, jewelry.
2. *Match the words in American English with their British equivalents.*
American English words: 1. baggage, 2. blow-out, 3.gasoline, 4.round trip 5. line, 6. sidewalk, 7. subway, 8. tag, 9. truck, 10. vacation, 11. wire, 12.yard.

British English words: A) holiday, B) telegram, C) garden, D) pavement, E) luggage, F) label, G) petrol, H) underground, I) queue, J) puncture, K) lorry, L) return.

American English words: 1. apartment, 2. candy, 3. cookies, 4. drapes, 5. elevator, 6. eraser, 7. faucet, 8. French fries, 9. flashlight, 10.garbage, 11.purse, 12.vest.

British English words: A) lift, B) chips, C) handbag, D) undershirt, E) rubber, F) tap, G) sweets, H) biscuits, I) rubbish, J) flat, K) torch, L) curtain.

3. *A self-study work. Find in the dictionaries the British English and American English words according to the following subjects. Choose one of these themes and write your own analysis and explanation.*

- City and countryside.
- The animal kingdom.
- Buildings, bridges.
- Homes (Living rooms, dining rooms, bedroom, kitchen).
- Fruit and vegetables.
- Tools and instruments.
- Sports and equipment.
- Vehicles, transporting goods.
- Boats and ships.
- Clothes, accessories.
- Computing equipment.

Chapter 9. FORMAL AND INFORMAL STYLES OF SPEECH

1. Formal Styles of Speech

It is known that people in different situations of speech communication choose different kinds of words and structures to express their thoughts. The process of speech in each particular case can have a specific expressive means which depends on its stylistic characteristics or on the functional style it represents. The term functional style is determined as a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication. Functional style is classified into two groups: Formal and Informal styles of speech.

Formal Style is restricted to formal situations. In general, formal words fall into two main groups: words associated with *professional communication* and a group of *learned-words*. Professional communication includes special words, such as scientific, professional, trade, court system and other terminological words. Every field of modern activity has its specialized vocabulary: medical, legal, historical, special language of musicians, artists, linguists etc.

Learned-words are mainly associated with the printed page. It is a language of poetry and fiction literature. To learned-words also belongs official, bureaucratic language, official letters and documents.

2. Informal Styles of Speech

Informal Style of speech is usually used in the circle of family, relatives, friends.

Informal Style is relaxed, free-and-easy, familiar speech. It may be informal talk of well-educated people considerably differs from the special language.

Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three types: *colloquial, slang and dialect words.*

Colloquial words are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups. The term colloquialism implies that the words called colloquial are limited by their sphere of usage and, if used in a wrong situation (e.g. in a student's composition, in a conversation with an official acquaintance or with one higher in authority), may produce the impression of impoliteness or even rudeness. E.g. *He is a jolly chap* = (Он, парень что надо).

The stylistically neutral way of putting it is: *He is a good (fine) man*.

How are the kids? = The stylistically neutral way: How are your children?

I'm all right = the stylistically neutral way: *I feel quite well.*

I'm feeling down = the stylistically neutral way: I *'m depressed.*

"Colloquialisms are a persistent feature of the conversation of at least 90% of the population. For a foreign student the first requirement is to be able to differentiate those idioms that belong to literature, and those that are peculiar to spoken language"[Arnold, 1986:245]. It is necessary to pay attention to comments given in good dictionaries as to whether a word is colloquial (colloq.), slang (sl.) or vulgar (vulg.).

Slang words are identified and distinguished by contrasting them to standard literary vocabulary. They are expressive, mostly ironical words serving to create fresh names for some things that are frequent topics of conversation or discourse. Sometimes slang words sound vulgar, cynical and harsh. For example, the various slang words for *money*, such as *beans, brass, dibs, chink* etc. Slang synonyms for the word *head* are *attic, nut, brainpan, rotters*. Slang is used by persons of every grade of life, it changes with fashion and taste and sometimes leaves permanent and recognized additions to language.

Slang words which have been used in speech for certain period of time, people get accustomed to them and then accepted into literary vocabulary. For example, the following words: *donkey, fun, shabby, snob, teenager, trip, guys* etc.

Slang can be subdivided according to the sphere of usage, into general slang and special slang. General slang includes words that

are not specific for any social or professional group. Special slang is peculiar for some groups: teenagers' slang, students' slang, prisoners' slang, sea slang, slang of the thieves and vagrants, slang of professional gambler etc.

Dialect words. A dialect is a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. Local lexical peculiarities are noticeable in specifically dialectal words presenting the local customs, social life and natural conditions. British linguists distinguish dialect from accent, which refers only to pronunciation. Thus, any educated English speaker can use the vocabulary and grammar of Standard English, but different speakers use their own local words for everyday objects or actions, regional accent, or Received Pronunciation , which within the U.K. is considered an accent distinguished by class rather than by region. American linguists, however, include pronunciation differences as part of the definition of regional or social dialects. The combination of differences in pronunciation and use of local words may make some English dialects almost unintelligible from one region to another.

3. English Dialects in Great Britain

In Great Britain there are five main groups of dialects: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. The Northern dialect closely resembles the southern-most Scottish dialects. It retains many old Scandinavian words, such as *bairn* for child, and not only keeps its *r's,* but often rolls them. The most outstanding version is Geordie, the dialect of the Newcastle area.

-er > /æ/, so *father* > /fædhæ/.
/ou/ > /o:'/, so that *boat* sounds like each letter is pronounced.
talk > /ta:k/
work > /work/
book > /bu:k/
my > me
me > us
our > wor
you plural > youse

The form of English most commonly associated with the upper class in the southern counties of England is called *Received*

Pronunciation. It derives from a mixture of the Midland and Southern dialects which were spoken in London in the early modern period and is frequently used as a model for teaching English to foreign learners. Although speakers from elsewhere in England may not speak with an RP accent, it is now a class dialect more than a local dialect. It may also be referred to as "the Queen's (or King's) English", "Public School English", "BBC English" as this was originally the form of English used on radio and television.

One of the best known Southern dialects is Cockney, the regional dialect of the working class of East End London. The Cockney accent spoken by some Londoners is strikingly different from RP:

– initial /h/ is dropped, so *house* becomes [aus] or even [a:s].

– /th/ and /dh/ become /f/ and /v/ respectively: think > /fingk/, brother > /brœv'/.

– [t] between vowels becomes a glottal stop: water > /wo?i/.

– diphthongs change, sometimes dramatically: time > /toim/, brave > /braiv/, etc.

The various British dialects also differ in the words that they have borrowed from other languages.

4. The Dialects of the United States (with approximate areas):

Northern
- Northern New England (Maine and New Hampshire)
- Boston area (eastern Massachusetts, Rhode Island)
- Northeastern (Connecticut, western Massachusetts, Vermont, upstate New York, lower Michigan, northern Illinois.
- New York City area (including most of Long Island and northern New Jersey)
- North central (upper Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, the Dakotas**).**

Northern midland
- Philadelphia area (inc. eastern Pennsylvania, southern New Jersey, Delaware, and the Baltimore area)**.**
- Pittsburgh area (western Pennsylvania)

- Ohio-Plains (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Kansas).

Southern midland

Appalachia (western Virginia, eastern Kentucky, eastern Tennessee). Arkansas-Oklahoma.

Southern

- Virginia (eastern)**,** North Carolina (eastern)**,** South Carolina**,** Georgia-Florida.
- Mississippi-Gulf (including Alabama, Louisiana, western Tennessee, eastern Texas, western Kentucky

Western (Montana, Wyoming, Idaho, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, California), western Texas.

Dialect peculiarities modify the national language spoken in different parts of country. Today the dialect is practically used to denote the old dialects which are now dying away, and to denote the regional variants, a literary standard with some feature of local dialects.

Seminar Questions:

Consider your answers to the following.

1. In what situations is the formal style of speech used?
2. What are the main kinds of Informal words?
3. Colloquial words.
4. Slang words.
5. Dialect words**.**

What is the difference between Standard English and Dialect words**?**

The five main groups of dialects in Great Britain.

The dialects of the United States.

Seminar Tasks:

1. Match the Slang words with Standard English:

Slang Standard English

1. pal, mate a. child
2. guy, fellow, bloke b. dismiss
3. kid c. good
4. cops d. isn't, aren't
5. buck e. You are cheating (deceive) me
6. quid f. pound

7. broose g. friend
8. down h. man
9. clear off i. police
10. chuck, sling j. alcohol
11. fire, sack k. dollar
12. great l. Thank you
13. Sure m. Be careful!
14. Watch it! n. to throw
15. You're having me on o. Of course!
16. Ta. p. go away
17. ain't (isn't, aren't, hasn't, haven't) r. depressed

2. *A self-study work. Compose the following brief situations using formal and informal words. Your style should suit both the subject and the situation.*

a. A short review on a theatrical production or film.

b. A discussion between two teenagers about the same play or film.

c. A short formal letter to a professor, in which you tell him that you cannot come to the university and defend your course project. (Explain the reason).

d. An informal letter on the same subject to an intimate friend.

Part II
ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

Chapter 1. LEXICOGRAPHY as a branch of LINGUISTICS

Lexicography, the science of dictionary-compiling, is closely connected with lexicology, both dealing with the same problems – the form, meaning, usage, and origin of vocabulary units and making use of each other's achievements.

The word "lexicography" derives from the Greek "λεξικογράφος» (*lexikographos*), from "λεξικόν» (*lexicon*), neut. of "λεξικός» (*lexikos*), "of or for words, from "λέξις» (*lexis*), "speech", "word", and "γράφω» (*grapho*) in the meaning – to scratch, to inscribe, to write.

Lexicography has a common object of study with Lexicology both describe the vocabulary of a language. The essential difference between the two lies in the degree of systematization and completeness each of them is able to achieve.

Lexicology aims at systematization revealing characteristic features of words it means that lexicology concentrates more on general properties and features that can be viewed as systematic analysis. The province of lexicography is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words and phrases. Lexicographers have to arrange it most often according to a purely external characteristic, namely alphabetically.

It goes without saying that neither of these branches of linguistics could develop successfully without the other, their relationship being essentially that of theory and practice dealing with the same objects of reality.

Lexicography is divided into two related disciplines:

Practical lexicography is the art of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries. Practical lexicographic work involves several activities,

and the compilation of dictionaries requires careful consideration some of the following aspects:

- defining the communicative and cognitive functions of the dictionary
- selecting and organizing the components of the dictionary
- choosing the appropriate structures for presenting the data in the dictionary (i.e. frame structure, distribution structure, macro-structure, micro-structure)
- selecting words and affixes for systematization as entries selecting collocations, phrases and examples
- choosing lemma forms for each word or part of word to be lemmatized аннотация формируется для каждого слова
- organizing definitions and specifying pronunciations of words
- selecting equivalents in bi- and multi-lingual dictionaries
- translating words, collocations, phrases and examples in bi- and multilingual dictionaries
- designing the best way in which users can access the data in printed and electronic dictionaries scientific discipline

Theoretical lexicography (or Metalexicography) is the scientific discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language, developing theories of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries.

Metalexicography can be subdivided into three groups of research:
1. User research.
2. Dictionary criticism.
3. Systematic dictionary research.

User research formulates theories and methods for examining dictionary use and makes observations concerning general models of improving the use dictionaries, regards the needs of users in specific types of situation and how users may best access the data incorporated in printed and electronic dictionaries.

Dictionary criticism is concerned with dictionary reviews as well as with general models for assessment for existing dictionaries.

Systematic dictionaries research is the formulation of novel [na:vl (*Am)*] – *new* or improved theories, with aims to develop new principles and the design that can improve the quality of future dictionaries.

Lexicography can be grouped into:

General lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of general dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that provide a description of the language in general use. Such a dictionary is usually called a general dictionary or LGP dictionary.

Specialized lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of specialized dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that are devoted to a (relatively restricted) set of linguistic and factual elements of one or more specialist subject fields. Such a dictionary is usually called a specialized dictionary or LSP dictionary.

English lexicography is probably the richest in the world with respect to variety and scope of the published dictionaries. The demand for English dictionaries is very great all over the world. Nowadays it is impossible to imagine our life without dictionaries. With the help of the dictionaries the learner not only enriches his own vocabulary, he studies together with it the culture, traditions and mentality of the country.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What is Lexicography? The aim and objectives of Lexicography.
2. What is the main task of Practical lexicography? Practical lexicographic work involves several activities what are they?
3. What is Metalexicography? What can you tell about three groups of research of Theoretical lexicography?
4. Lexicography has a common object of study with Lexicology. What are the common objectives and what is the difference between these two disciplines?
5. Give the general characteristics and the difference between General lexicography and Specialized lexicography.

Chapter 2. A BRIEF HISTORY OF LEXICOGRAPHY

In is known that the first dictionary was the Chinese language dictionary. The book organized Chinese characters by semantic groups. The intention of this dictionary was to explain the true meaning and interpretation of words in the context of older ancient texts.

One of the earliest dictionaries known, and which is still extant today in an abridged form, was written in Latin during the reign of the emperor Augustus. It is known by the title De Significatu Verborum ("On the meaning of words") and was originally compiled by Verrius Flaccus. It was twice abridged in succeeding centuries, first by Sextus Pompeius Festus, and then by Paul the Deacon. Verrius Flaccus dictionary was an abridged list of difficult or antiquated words, whose usage was illustrated by quotations from early Roman authors.

The word "dictionary" comes from neoclassical Latin, "diction", meaning simply "word".

The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as The Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books with interlinear translation from Latin. The historical roots of British lexicography go back to 7th-8th centuries when Latin was a means of international communication in Europe and the most important texts, first and foremost biblical ones, were written in this language. Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15th century. These dictionaries were *Anglo-Latin, Anglo-German, Anglo-French.*

The first true English dictionary was done by Robert Cawdreys. Table Alphabetical of 1604, although it only included 3,000 words and the definitions it contained were little more than synonyms. The

first one to be at all comprehensive was Thomas Blounts dictionary Glossographia of 1656.

In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathaniel Bailey published the 1st etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was called *Universal Etymological English Dictionary*. Baileys entries are fuller, compared with the glosses in the hard-word books, and there are more of them (as many as 60, 000 in the 1736 edition), but his definitions lack illustrative support, and he gives little guidance about usage.

In 1755 an English scientist Samuel Johnson compiled a famous explanatory dictionary which was called *A Dictionary of the English language*. Over a seven-year period, Johnson wrote the definitions of 40,000 words, illustrating their use from the best authors since the time of the Elizabethans. Although Johnson was fewer entries than Bailey, his selection is more wide-ranging, and his lexicological treatment is far more discriminating and sophisticated.

So Johnson's Dictionary was the first attempt at a truly principled lexicography. It portrayed the complexity of the lexicon and of English usage more accurately than ever before; and his quotations initiated a practice which has informed English dictionaries ever since. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary but at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

Twenty six years later in 1884 James A. H. Murray published the first volume of his new dictionary. The aim was to produce a 4-volume work in a period of 10 years; but after 5 years, Murray and his colleagues had managed to complete only the section A-ANT; it was 352 pages, and sold for 62 S p in modern money. It was evident that the dictionary was a much greater work than had been envisaged. Additional editors were appointed and the last volume was published in 1928, the dictionary was called NED (New English Dictionary). It contained 12 volumes, comprising 15,487 pages and covering 414,825 lexical items.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title «The Oxford English Dictionary» because the work on this dictionary was conducted at Oxford. The dictionary contained 13 volumes.

In 1957, work on the dictionary was recommended by R.W. Burchfield with the appointment of to edit a new supplement. This dictionary appeared in 4 volumes between 1972 and 1986 it added

5,732 pages to the dictionary, and nearly 70,000 further lexical items.

The development of the learner's dictionary in Great Britain goes back to the 1930s. The first monolingual dictionary of English for foreign learners was compiled by M. West and J.G. Endicott in 1935 ("New Method English Dictionary" London: Longmans Green). The dictionary had about 30,000 entries. The compilers made a success attempt to define these words with the help of a vocabulary consisting of only 1,490 words. This facilitated the use of the dictionary by a foreigner with limited knowledge of English.

In 1942 in Japan A.S Hornby, E.V. Gatenby and H.Wakefield published the "Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary" (Tokyo: Kaitakusha) which was later retitled "Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English" (OALD) and became the most authoritative reference book for foreign learners of English all over the world.

The most famous American dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. In 1828 he published a two volume dictionary (70,000 words), which was called American Dictionary of the English language. He tried to simplify English spelling and transcription. The spellings were somewhat more conservative than those used in the 1806 book. Its pronunciations were generally provincial in character – those of Webster's own New England.

As it was large and very expensive scientists continued their work and made shorter editions of the dictionary. The shorter Oxford dictionary contained the same number of entries but far less examples from literature. They also compiled a Concise Oxford Dictionary. It contained only one volume and no examples at all.

American lexicography began to develop much later at the end of the 18th century. The work greatly improved the coverage of scientific and technical terms, as well as terms to do with American culture and institutions and added a great deal of encyclopedic information.

The label «American» in the title is more a reflection of the works of American authors referred to than of its uniquely American lexicon. Indeed, at one point Webster observed that «there were not 50 words in all which were used in America and not in England». On the other hand, nearly half of the words he did include are not to be found in Johnsons Dictionary, which added considerable force to his claim that he was giving lexicography a fresh direction.

Despite its weaknesses and its critics, the American Dictionary made Webster a household name in the USA. It was fiercely attacked in Britain for its Americanism especially in matters of spelling and usage; but the work was crucial in giving to US English an identity and status comparable to that given to the British English lexicon by Dr Johnson.

International Dictionary of 1909, with a second edition in 1934. The 3rd edition appeared in 1961, edited by Philip B. Gove, based on a collection of over 6 million citations of usage, and dealing with over 450,000 words. This edition prepared over a 10-year period, took up 757 editor-years, and proved to be highly controversial. Three supplements later appeared – of 6,000 words (1976), 89,000 words (1983), and 12,000 words (1986), and a CD is also available. Outside of this tradition, many other publishers have come to use the «Webster» name for their dictionaries and word-books.

Seminar Questions:

Consider your answers to the following.

1. Give the brief review concerning the history of English Lexicography.

2. What are the main historical periods of dictionary development?

3. What do you know about the first old English dictionaries?

4. Samuel Johnson – a famous English lexicographer. What can you say about his dictionaries?

5. James A. H. Murray published the first volume of his new dictionary. Tell the story of this dictionary development.

6. Noah Webster – a famous American lexicographer. What do you know about his dictionaries?

Chapter 3. COMMON CHARACTERISTICS of DICTIONARIES

The term «dictionary» is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meaning and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and origin. There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention upon only one of these aspects: pronouncing (phonetic) dictionaries (by Daniel Jones) and etymological dictionaries.

Many dictionaries also provide pronunciation information; grammatical information; word derivations, histories, or etymologies; illustrations; usage guidance; and examples in phrases or sentences. Dictionaries are most commonly found in the form of a book, but more and more dictionaries now are produced as software runs from electronic PDA or a general purpose computer.

Most dictionaries are produced by lexicographers.

Since words and their meanings develop over time, dictionary entries are organized to reflect these changes. Dictionaries may either list meanings in the historical order in which they appeared, or may list meanings in order of popularity and most common use.

Dictionaries also differ in the degree to which they are encyclopedic, providing considerable background information, illustrations, and the like, or linguistic, concentrating on etymology, nuances of meaning, and quotations demonstrating usage.

Any dictionary has been designed to fulfill one or more functions. The dictionary functions chosen by the maker(s) of the dictionary provide the basis for all lexicographic decisions, from the selection of entry words, over the choice of information types, to the choice of place for the information (e.g. in an article or in an appendix).

There are two main types of function:

- The communication-oriented functions comprise text reception (of understanding), text production, text revision, and translation.
- The knowledge-oriented functions deal with situations where the dictionary is used for acquiring specific knowledge about a particular matter, and for acquiring general knowledge about something.

The optimal dictionary is one that contains information directly relevant for the needs of the users relating to one or more of these functions. It is important that information is presented in a way that keeps the lexicographic information costs at a minimum.

A ***Glossary***, also known as a vocabulary it is an alphabetical list of terms in a particular domain of knowledge with the definitions for those terms. Traditionally, a glossary appears at the end of a book and includes terms within that book that are either newly introduced, uncommon, or specialized. While glossaries are most-commonly associated with non-fiction books, in some cases, fiction novels may come with a glossary for unfamiliar terms.

A bilingual glossary is a list of terms in one language defined in a second language or glossed by synonyms (or at least near-synonyms) in another language.

In a general sense, a glossary contains explanations of concepts relevant to a certain field of study or action.

A Thesaurus means a collection of words put in groups together according to likeness in their meanings. In general usage, a thesaurus is a reference work that lists words grouped together according to similarity of meaning (containing synonyms and sometimes antonyms), in contrast to a dictionary, which provides definitions for words, and generally lists them in alphabetical order.

As for the term "*learner's dictionaries*" is confined to dictionaries specifically compiled to meet the demands of the learners for whom English is not their mother tongue.

The common purpose of *learner's dictionaries* is to give information on what is currently accepted in modern English, to give important characteristics of lexical units. ***Learner's dictionaries*** can be classified in accordance with different principles:

- the scope of the word-list;
- the nature of information afforded

If we take into consideration these two main principles all *learner's dictionaries* are usually divided into:

- elementary/basic/ pre-intermediate *learner's dictionaries;*
- intermediate *learner's dictionaries;*
- upper-intermediate – advanced *learner's dictionaries.*

It is well known that we can't imagine studying any language in the world without such an important thing as a dictionary. It's obvious that it plays the most leading role in studying a language. But there is such a problem as what kind of a dictionary we must choose to improve our speech skills day by day.

A dictionary is the most widely used reference book in our houses and business offices. Correct pronunciation and correct spelling are of great social importance, because they are necessary for efficient communication.

1. Classification of Dictionaries

The main types of dictionaries are classified under different heads according to the choice of items included and the sort of information given about these dictionaries.

English dictionaries fall into *diachronic* and *synchronic* with regard to time.

Diachronic (historical) dictionaries, of which "The Oxford English Dictionary" is the main example, reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered.

Synchronic dictionaries or (***descriptive dictionaries***) are concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words, e.g. *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.*

The boundary between these dictionaries is, however, not very rigid and two principles may be blended, e.g. *Concise Oxford Dictionary*. Some descriptive dictionaries are at the same time historical when they represent the state of vocabulary at some past stage of its development.

According to the choice of items included and the sort of information given about these items all dictionaries may be divided into two big groups – ***encyclopedic*** and ***linguistic***.

Encyclopedic dictionaries are scientific reference book giving information on all branches of knowledge, or with one particular

branch. These dictionaries deal not with words, but with facts and concepts. Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena and people and give some information about them.

The best known encyclopedias of the English-speaking world are: the Encyclopedia Britannica (in 24 volumes) and the Encyclopedia Americana (in 30 volumes).

There exist also biographical dictionaries and many minor encyclopedias. Very popular book in Great Britain and the USA are also Collier' s Encyclopedia (in 24 volumes) intended for students and school teachers; Chamber's Encyclopedia (in 15 volumes) which is a family type reference book, and Everyman's Encyclopedia (in 12 volumes) designed for all round use. Besides the general encyclopedic dictionaries there reference books that are confined to definite fields of knowledge, such as The Oxford Companion to English Literature, Oxford Companion to Theatre, Cassel's Encyclopedia of World Literature, Dictionary of Mystery Writers Pseudonyms, etc.

There also numerous dictionaries presenting information about notable persons (scientists, writers, kings, presidents, etc.) often called Who's Who dictionaries.

For practical purpose it is important to know that *American dictionaries* are characterized by encyclopedic inclusion of scientific, technical, geographical and bibliographical items whereas it is common practice with British lexicographers to exclude from their dictionaries information of this kind to devote maximum space to the linguistic properties of words. Some dictionary-compilers include in their word-lists such elements of purely encyclopedic nature as names of famous people together with their birth and death dates or names of major cities and towns, giving not only their correct spelling and pronunciation, but also a brief description of their population, location, etc.

Linguistic dictionaries are word-books the subject-matter of which is lexical units and their linguistic properties: pronunciation, definition, meaning, origin and other linguistic information.

Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin and their usage; words are usually given in the alphabetical order. Words can be listed with etymologies or with their equivalents in another language (or other languages).

Linguistic dictionaries can be divided into two classes by different criteria.

According to the nature of their word-list we may speak about *general dictionaries* and *restricted* or *specialized dictionaries.*

The terms general and restricted do not refer to the size of the dictionary or to the number of items listed.

General dictionaries contain lexical units in ordinary use with this or that proportion of items from various spheres of life. These dictionaries present a complete picture of a language and are devoted to general user. General dictionaries include frequency dictionary, a rhyming dictionary, explanatory (monolingual) and translation (bilingual) dictionaries.

Most *Frequency dictionaries* and tables of word frequencies published in English-speaking countries were constructed to make up lists of words considered suitable as the basis for teaching English as a foreign language, the so-called basic vocabulary. Such are, e.g., the famous E. Throndike dictionaries and M. West's General Service List. Other frequency dictionaries were designed for spelling reforming, for psycholinguistic studies of modern English. In the 70s-90s there appeared a number of frequency dictionaries of English made up by linguists for the purposes of automatic analysis of scientific and technical texts and for teaching purposes.

Explanatory dictionaries present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered, e.g. the New Oxford Dictionary of English, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. It should be mentioned, that in Cambridge Learner's Dictionary for the clear understanding of users is given the picture with the realization of breaking process. This opportunity allows users to understand the giving word at once.

In explanatory dictionaries the appendixes of the first kind usually include various word-lists: geographical names, foreign words and expressions, forenames, etc., record new meanings of words already entered and words that have come into existence since the compilation of the word-book. The educational material may include a list of colleges and universities, special signs and symbols used in various branches of science, tables of weights and measures, etc.

Seminar Questions:

Consider your answers to the following.

1. What is the term of "dictionary"? Why do we say that dictionary is the most widely used reference book at present day?

2. What are the common characteristics of dictionaries you can describe?

3. Any dictionary is designed to fulfill one or more functions. What main types of function do you call?

4. What can you say about Encyclopedic dictionaries and the information which given in it? What Encyclopedic dictionaries do you like and why?

5. What definitions can you give for dictionaries Glossary and Thesaurus? What are the specific characteristics of these dictionaries?

6. What are the main principles of classifying *learner's dictionaries*?

7. What can you tell about General dictionaries? Give the descriptions of Frequency and Explanatory dictionaries.

Seminar task:

1. Choose an interesting material for presentation from the encyclopedic dictionary.

2. Analyze the structure and content of the given entries taken from two dictionaries: The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary and Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

2. Specialized Dictionaries

These dictionaries cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary belonging to terminological, phraseological, slang, neologisms, dialected word-books, dictionaries of new words, of foreign words, synonyms and antonyms, abbreviations, (also technical dictionaries) focus on linguistic and factual matters relating to specific subject fields.

A specialized dictionary may have a relatively broad coverage, e.g. a picture dictionary, in that it covers several subject fields such as science and technology (a multi-field dictionary). *Restricted dictionaries* make their choice only from a certain part of the word-stock, the restriction being based on any principle determined by the compiler.

"A distinction would be made between two types of specialized dictionaries, namely *maximizing and minimizing dictionaries*" [Karpova, 2010:12].

A maximizing dictionary is intended to cover by far the greatest part of the vocabulary of the subject field under consideration.

A minimizing dictionary is designed to cover only a limited part of this vocabulary, for instance the most frequently used LSP terms. The total number of words in a good minimizing general language dictionary has been estimated to be approximately 30,000. In specialized dictionaries, the number varies depend on the size of the vocabulary of the LSP in question.

According to the typological characteristic all specialized dictionaries are divided into the following types:

• *A multi-field dictionary* has been designed and compiled to cover the terms within two or more subject fields. Multi-field dictionary is an example of the ordinary technical dictionary, covering a large number of separate subject fields, e.g. *banking, economics, finance, insurance and marketing*.

Multi-field dictionaries should be contrasted with single-field dictionaries and sub-field dictionaries. The main problem with multi-field dictionaries is that they tend to cover one or two subjects extensively, whereas the vast majority of subjects are only represented by a very limited number of terms.

Secondly, the typical multi-field dictionary tends to be a minimizing dictionary, i.e. it covers only a limited number of terms within the subjects covered.

• *A sub-field dictionary* that has been designed and compiled to cover the terms of one (or possibly more) sub-fields of a particular subject field. Sub-field dictionaries should be contrasted with multi-field dictionaries and single-field dictionaries. Examples of sub-field dictionaries are a dictionary of contract law (as opposed to the single-field dictionary of law) and a dictionary of fusion welding (as opposed to a dictionary of welding), or a dictionary of ethical philosophy (as opposed to a dictionary of philosophy).

The main advantage of sub-field dictionaries is that they can easily be maximizing dictionaries, i.e. deep rather than broad, attempting to cover as many terms of the sub-field as possible without expanding into several volumes. Consequently, sub-field dictionaries are ideal for extensive coverage of the linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects within a particular subject field.

A single-field dictionary that has been designed and compiled to cover the terms of one particular subject field. Single-field dictionaries

should be contrasted with multi-field dictionaries and sub-field dictionaries. The main advantage of single-field dictionaries is that they can easily be maximizing dictionaries, i.e. attempt to cover as many terms of the subject field as possible without being a dictionary in several volumes. Consequently, single-fields dictionaries are ideal for extensive coverage of the linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects within a particular subject field.

Specialized dictionaries deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, e.g. only in relation to their etymology or frequency, pronunciation, usage, e.g. the Longman Pronunciation Dictionary. These dictionaries of scientific and other special terms concentrated on one of the distinctive features of the word. For example, *Special Glossaries* are dictionaries of technical terms and different professions, trades, crafts, sports.

Dictionaries of abbreviations, synonyms, antonyms, borrowings, proverbs, toponyms, slangs and dialects give the specific characteristics and description of the lexical units. For example, Dictionaries of American English Dialect and Slang Words, Dictionaries of Old English and Middle English with explanations in Modern English, Dictionary of Homonyms and Paronyms.

The special dictionaries can have the following groups:

Pharaselogical dictionaries in England and America have accumulated vast collections of idiomatic or colloquial phases, proverbs and other, usually image-bearing word-groups with profuse illustrations. The well-known an Anglo-Russian Phraseological Dictionary by A.V. Koonin has many advantages over the reference books published abroad and can be considered the first dictionary of English phraseological proper.

Dictionaries of slang contain elements from areas of substandard speech such as vulgarism, jargonisms, taboo words, curse-words, colloquialisms, etc.

The most well-known dictionaries of this type are Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English by E. Partridge, Dictionary of the Underworld: British and American, The American Thesaurus of Slang by L.V. Berry & M. Den Bork, The Dictionary of American Slang by H. Wentworth and S.B. Flexner.

Pronouncing dictionaries record contemporary pronunciation. As compared with the phonetic characteristics of words given by other dictionaries is much more detailed: they indicate variant pronunciations

(which are numerous in some cases), as well as the pronunciation of different grammatical forms. The world famous English Pronouncing Dictionary by Daniel Jones, is considered to provide the most expert guidance on British English pronunciation. The most popular dictionary for the American variant is A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English by J. S. Kenyon and T. A. Knott.

Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of these words and forms of these words in other languages.

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

In **monolingual dictionaries** the words and the information about them are given in the same language, e.g. Macmillan Essential Dictionary for learners of English, Dictionary of Neologisms, Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs, New Oxford Learner's Thesaurus (a dictionary of synonyms).

Bilingual dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language, the meanings of words and their contexts are translated into the target-language system, e.g. the English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary by A.V. Koonin, English-Russian Dictionary by Prof. V.K. Müller.

All bilingual dictionaries have two principal purposes: reference for translation and guidance for expression. These dictionaries provide an adequate translation of every item in the target (second) language and expression in the source language.

Bilingual dictionaries are available in a number of formats, and often include a grammar reference and usage examples.

- *Printed dictionaries* – Printed dictionaries range from small pocket-sized editions to large, comprehensive multi-volume works.

Handheld electronic dictionaries (also: Pocket electronic dictionaries or PEDs) – Electronic dictionaries are small devices that receive input via a miniature keyboard, speech recognition or a scanning device that reads printed text, and outputs the translation on a small LCD screen or speaks the translation audibly.

Dictionary programs – software that allows words or phrases to be input and translated on computers and smart phones.

Online dictionaries – Online dictionaries similar to dictionary programs, these are often easy to search, but not always free to use, and in some cases lack the accuracy (particularly in open collaborative dictionaries), or scope of printed and electronic dictionaries.

Visual dictionaries – A visual dictionary is a printed dictionary that relies primarily on illustrations to provide the user with a reliable way of identifying the correct translation. Visual dictionaries are often multi-lingual rather than bilingual—instead of containing translations between two languages they often cover four or more languages.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. What are the main characteristics of Specialized dictionaries?
2. What Specialized dictionary or dictionaries do you use in the process of education? What is your experience of using these dictionaries?
3. What are the main features of maximizing and minimizing dictionaries?
4. What are the typological characteristics of specialized dictionaries?
5. What dictionaries are called monolingual and bilingual?
6. What monolingual dictionary/dictionaries do you use in your training a foreign language?
7. What bilingual dictionaries do you know? Give a short review about these dictionaries.
8. What English translation dictionaries are very popular in Kazakhstan? Explain the reasons of this fact.

Seminar Tasks:
1. Define which type the given dictionaries refer to: *encyclopedic – linguistic, general – restricted, explanatory – specialized, monolingual – bilingual*.
E.g. The Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Plus is a linguistic, restricted, explanatory, monolingual dictionary.
1. The New Oxford Dictionary of English. 2. The Oxford English-Russian Dictionary. 3. The English Pronouncing Dictionary. 4. The Oxford Companion to English Literature. 5. The Longman Business English Dictionary. 6. The Cambridge Guide to Fiction in English. 7. A Dictionary of Neologisms. 8. The Macmillan Collocations Dictionary. 9. A Bibliographic Dictionary of Pseudonyms. 10. The Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms. 11. The Macmillan Study Dictionary. 12. The English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary.

2. Analyze the peculiarities of the setting, arrangement and translation of English-Russian Dictionary by Prof. V.K. Müller.

3. The Famous English Dictionaries

The famous and the self-styled premier dictionary of the English language is the *Oxford English Dictionary* (*OED*), published by the Oxford University Press. In 1928 the full dictionary was republished in ten bound volumes. In 1933 this dictionary was fully reprinted as twelve volumes with one volume supplement and in 1989 the second edition was published in twenty volumes with more supplements. In 2011 the editors had completed the third edition with descriptions for approximately 600,000 words and now the Oxford English Dictionary is the world's most comprehensive single-language print dictionary according to the *Guinness Book of World Records*.
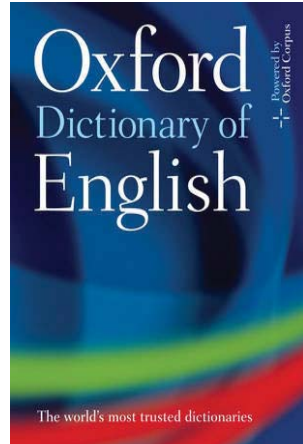
The *Oxford English Dictionary*, or other dictionaries aimed at speakers of English with native-level competence. The dictionary was first published in 1948 and the current edition is the Eighth edition published in 2010.

The first electronic version of the dictionary was made in 1988. The online version has been available since 2000, and as of August 2010 was receiving two million hits per month from paying subscribers.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary
The first *Advanced learner's dictionary* was the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, first published 64 years ago. It is the largest English language dictionary from Oxford University Press aimed at a non-native audience. Users with a more linguistic interest, requiring etymologies or copious references, usually prefer the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, or indeed the magnum opus, the *Oxford English Dictionary*, or other dictionaries aimed at speakers of English with

native-level competence. The dictionary was first published in 1948; the current edition is the eighth which first published in 2010. It is now published on paper and as a CD-ROM (ISBN 0-19-479900-X); the latter includes many etymologies.

Concise Oxford English Dictionary

The *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (officially titled *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* till 2002 and widely abbreviated *COD*) is probably the best-known of the 'smaller' Oxford dictionaries. The latest edition of the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* contains over 240,000 entries and 1,728 pages (concise only compared to the OED at over 21,000 pages). Its twelfth edition, published in 2011, is used by the United Nations as the current authority for spellings in documents written in the English language for international use. It is available free on the web and as an electronic eBook for a variety of handheld device platforms. In addition to providing information for general use, it documents local variations such as U.S. and U.K. usage.

New Oxford American Dictionary

The New Oxford American Dictionary (NOAD) is a single-volume dictionary of American English compiled by American editors at the Oxford University Press.

NOAD is based upon the *New Oxford Dictionary of English* (NODE), published in the United Kingdom in 1998, although with substantial editing, additional entries, and the inclusion of illustrations. It is based on a corpus linguistics analysis of Oxford's 200 million words database of contemporary American English.

The Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners

The number of people learning English and using Macmillan dictionaries is growing every day. Macmillan is very much in tune with the broad range of levels, ages, cultural backgrounds and motivation that these learners encompass. With this in mind, Macmillan has created a series of dictionaries which respond to the differing needs of learners worldwide.

The Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners was conceived, compiled and edited by the Reference and Electronic Media Division of Bloomsbury Publishing Plc. Managing editor is Michael Mayor. The Dictionary was printed and bound in Malaysia in 2002.

The Dictionary includes words on the basis of their use in the language today. Some words are identified as being trademarks or service marks. Neither the presence nor absence of such identification in this Dictionary is to be regarded as affecting in any way, or expressing a judgment on, the validity or legal status of any trademark, service mark, or other proprietary rights anywhere in the world.

The definitions in the Macmillan English Dictionary have been based on information derived from 200 million words of English which make up the World English Corpus.

The Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners is a linguistic dictionary because it describes vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin and their usage; words are given in the alphabetical order.
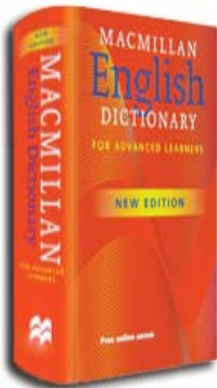
It is a general, explanatory (monolingual) dictionary. The entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology.

The second edition of the Macmillan English Dictionary contains a wealth of new material, while building on the innovative features that won it two prestigious awards. Macmillan has established a reputation as one of the world's leading reference publishers. Our award-winning dictionaries for learners of English have become the choice of thousands of teachers and students worldwide. Dictionaries created from scratch by skilled lexicographers working in Britain and America, using revolutionary software to analyze English**.**

Noah Webster's "American Dictionary of the English Language".

Noah Webster (1758–1843), the author of the readers and spelling books that dominated the American market at the time, spent decades of research in compiling his dictionaries. His first dictionary "A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language" appeared in

1806 where he introduced features that would be a hallmark of future editions such as American spellings (center, theater, honor, color, program, catolog, favorite etc.). He included technical terms from the arts and sciences rather than confining his dictionary to literary words.

  Webster's Third New International Dictionary was published in September 1961 after about a decade of preparation by G. C. Merriam who issued the entirely new Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language, commonly known as Webster's Third, or W3. A team of lexicographers compiled the new form of dictionary which contained more than 450,000 entries, including over 100,000 new entries and as many new senses for entries carried over from previous editions.

     The enormous raw material collected in dictionaries is widely used by linguists in their research. The principles of dictionary-making are always based on linguistic fundamentals, and each individual entry is made up in accordance with the current knowledge and findings of scholars in various fields of language study.

     List of major English dictionaries:
     Merriam-Webster Dictionary
     Webster's Third New International Dictionary (descriptive)
     Random House Dictionary of the English Language
     The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language
     Oxford English Dictionary (descriptive)
     Concise Oxford Dictionary
     New Oxford Dictionary of English
     New Oxford American Dictionary
     Canadian Oxford Dictionary
     ITP Nelson Canadian Dictionary
     Samuel Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language (prescriptive)
     Noah Webster's an American Dictionary of the English Language (prescriptive)
     Brewers Dictionary of Phrase and Fable
     Chambers Dictionary
     Collins COBUILD
     Collins English Dictionary
     Gage Canadian Dictionary
     Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.

4. The Process of Lemmatization

Every dictionary, it doesn't matter what they are monolingual or bilingual dictionaries, all of them consist of a *lemma* (pl. – *lemmata*) is the lexicographical term for what is popularly referred to as entry word or headword. The lemma directs the user to the required dictionary article, headed by the lemma

The *lemma* functions as a representative of a linguistic sign in a dictionary; it represents the lexical item described in the individual dictionary entry. In a dictionary having an alphabetical macrostructure, the lemma also has the function of determining the position of the entry in the lemma list.

Lemmatization is a commentary of a head word or the presentation of a lemma in a dictionary entry.

Lexicography has a tradition of lemmatizing noun in the singular, verbs in the infinitive and gradable adjectives in the neutral uninflected form, although a few dictionaries use other lemmatization criteria.

The whole content of the dictionary entry, the components it includes, all of them directly depend on the compiler of the dictionary: the author's style of compiling, methods of exposition etc.

In order to explain the lemmatization process in a facilitated way of the word "***marathon"*** look at the example from the monolingual dictionary below:

Diagram 4
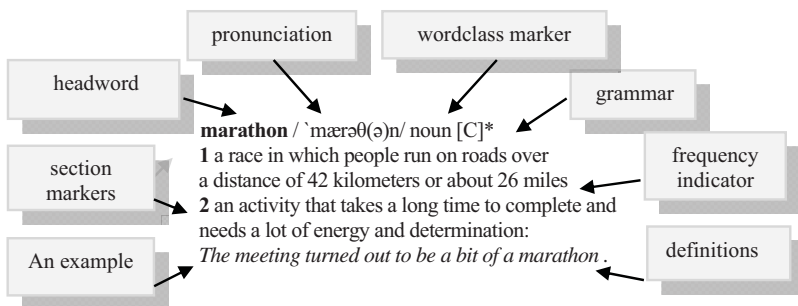
Compare the structure of lemmatization of the word "***marathon***" in "Oxford English-Russian dictionary"

Diagram 5

pronunciation	wordclass marker

marathon / `mærəθ(ə)n/ n.
(~ race) марафон, марафонский бег;
~ runner марафонец;
(attr.): a ~ effort гигантское усилие

headword

compounds

translation

an attributive word
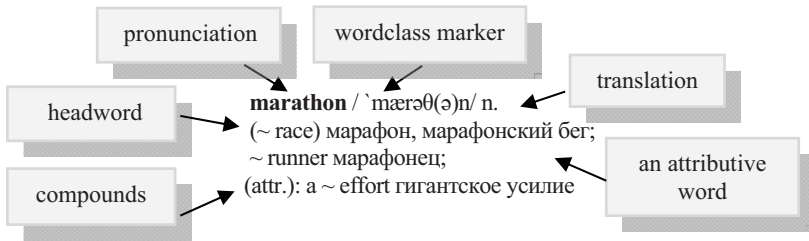
    From the extract above we can see the considerable distinctions of the presentation of the head word in monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. As you see in monolingual dictionaries the received information is much fuller than in bilingual one.

    Care should be taken not to mix up the terms monolingual and explanatory, on the one hand, and bilingual and translation dictionaries on the other. The two pairs of terms reflect different dimensions of dictionaries. The terms monolingual and bilingual pertain to the language in which the information about the words dealt with is couched. The terms explanatory and translation dictionaries characterize the kind of information itself. Thus among dictionaries of the same type, say phraseological or terminological, we may find both monolingual and bilingual word-books.

    It is important to realize that no dictionary, even the most general one, can be a general-purpose word-book, each one pursues a certain aim, each is designed for a certain set of users. Therefore the selection of material and its presentation, the language in which it is couched depend very much upon the supposed users, i.e. whether the dictionary is planned to serve scholarly users or students of the general public. Thus to characterize a dictionary one must be qualify it at least from the four angles mentioned above:

- the nature of the word-list;
- the information supplied;
- the language of the explanations;
- the prospective user.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1.   Oxford English Dictionary (OED) and its editions. Give the shot review of these dictionaries.

2.   What is the Concise Oxford English Dictionary*?*

3.   The Macmillan English Dictionary is one of the world's leading reference publishers. What can you say about this fact give your arguments?

4.   Noah Webster's "American Dictionary of the English Language". What information can you give about this dictionary?

5.   What other known English dictionaries can you call? Give the description of them.

6.   Basic terminology used in Lexicography. Give the definition and some examples of lemma.

7.   Process of Lemmatization in different dictionaries. Why the entry or lemmatization of lexical units can be different in dictionaries?

Seminar tasks:

1.   *A self –study work*. Choose three words from deferent dictionaries and analyze the nature of the information presented in the given entries. (See the presentation of illustrative material).

Cambridge Learner's Dictionary English-Russian, 2011

Every dictionary entry begins with the head word in a bold

command¹ /kəma:nd / **noun 1** [U] control over someone or something and responsibility for them командование, руководство. *The soldiers were*

under the command of *a tough sergeant-major*. ◦ *Jones was in command (= the leader).* **2** [C] B2 an order to do something приказ, команда **3** [no plural] B2 knowledge of a subject, especially a language знание, владение (предметом) *She had a good command of French.* **4 be at sb's command** to be ready to obey someone's orders быть в чьум-либо распоряжении, быть к чьим-либо услугам **5** [C] an instruction to a computer команда **command²** – **verb** formal**1** [T] to control someone or something and tell them what to do командовать *He commanded the armed forces*. **2** [I,T] to order someone to do something

приказывать (+to do sth) The officer commanded his men to shoot. **3 command attention/loyalty/respect**, etc to deserve and get attention, loyalty, respect, etc from other people приковывать внимание/внушать предонность/уважение.

2.   Write all types of Macmillan English Dictionaries and give a brief description of main principles of selection of lexical units.

Chapter 4. MODERN TRENDS IN ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

1. Corpus Linguistics

Modern trends in English Lexicography are connected with the appearance and rapid development of such branches of linguistics as Corpus-based linguistics (Corpus linguistics) and Computational linguistics.

The term "*corpus* (*pl. corpora*)" means a large collection of texts stored in a computer, which can be analyzed in many different ways. Typically, a corpus will contain written material taken from books, newspapers, magazines, journals, advertising leaflets and so on, the content of which will have been transferred into a database.

Spoken material recorded from interviews, phone calls, radio programs, public meetings, the academic lectures and so on is, in many cases, also transcribed, or transferred from digital sources, and included in the database.

Why the Corpus is used in dictionary making?

• Machine-readable corpora allow dictionary makers to extract all authentic, typical examples of the usage of a lexical item from a large body of text in a few seconds.

• Corpora allow dictionary makers to select entries based on frequency information.

• Corpora can readily provide frequency information and collocation information for readers.

• Textual (e.g. register, genre and domain) and sociolinguistic (e.g. user gender and age) information encoded in corpora allows lexicographers to give a more accurate description of the usage of a lexical item.

Corpus linguistics extends our knowledge of language by combining three different approaches: the (procedural) identification of language data by the categorial analysis, the correlation of language data by statistical methods and the (intellectual) interpretation of the results.

Corpus-based linguistics deals with compiling various electronic corpora for conducting investigations in different linguistic fields such as phonetics, phonology, grammar, stylistics, graphology, discourse, lexicon and many others.

Corpus linguistics, on the other hand, aims to reveal the conventions of a certain language community on the basis of a relevant corpus. In a corpus, words are embedded in their context. Corpus linguistics is especially suited to describe the gradual changes in meaning: it is the context which determines the concrete meaning in most areas of the vocabulary.

Corpus linguistics aims to analyze the meaning of words within texts, or rather, within their individual context. First and foremost, words are text elements, not lexicon or dictionary entries.

In Computational linguistics the techniques of computer science are applied to the analysis and synthesis of a language and speech. The use of a language corpora and the application of modern computational techniques in various lexicographical researches and in dictionary making in particular, have stipulated the appearance of

Corpus-based lexicography (Corpus lexicography) and Computational lexicography.

Corpus-based lexicography is the major branch of corpus linguistics where can be not only introduced new methods, but also extended the entire scope of research. In the last forty years, great progress has been made in the application of new technologies in language analysis. In particular, the ability to collect and store large collections of texts in electronic form, and then interrogate the data with sophisticated software tools has revolutionized the way we can study language behavior and evolution.

Corpus-based lexicography is a widespread use of corpus information in assisting with the compilation and revision of dictionaries.

The British compiler John Sinclair leads the way as initiator of the first strictly corpus-based dictionary of general language (COBUILD 1987).

The COBUILD English dictionary used the Bank of English contained the corpus of 20 million words.

Britain was also the site of the first corpus-based collocation dictionaries (such as Kjellmer 1994). Bilingual lexicography may also have a benefit from a corpus-oriented approach: a fact that is evident when comparing the traditional Le Robert & Collins English-French Dictionary edited by B.T.S. Atkins with Valerie Grundy and Marie-Hel´ ene Corr ` eard's ´Oxford-Hachette Dictionary which covers the same language pair.

2. Different types of Corpora

Corpora can have a technical bias if the sources are mostly of a scientific or technical nature, or they might have a literary slant, if the sources consist mostly of works of literature. While there is no such thing as a perfectly balanced corpus, it is still possible to achieve a relatively representative mix of sources.

The British National Corpus (BNC) is a 100 million word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20th century, both spoken and written. The latest edition is the *BNC XML Edition*, released in 2007. One of the ways BNC was to be differentiated from existing corpora at that time was to open up the data not just for the use of academic research, but to commercial and educational uses as well.

The **written part** of the BNC (90%) includes, for example, extracts from regional and national newspapers, specialist periodicals and journals for all ages and interests, academic books and popular fiction, published and unpublished letters and memoranda, school and university essays, among many other kinds of text.

The **spoken part** (10%) consists of orthographic transcriptions of unscripted informal conversations (recorded by volunteers selected from different age, region and social classes in a demographically balanced way) and spoken language collected in different contexts, ranging from formal business or government meetings to radio shows and phone-ins.

Today, most publishers of the best-selling English learner dictionaries have access to corpora. Some corpora are publicly

available collections of data that are the result of the collaboration between various parties

The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) is the largest freely-available corpus of English, and the only large and balanced corpus of American English. The corpus was created by Mark Davies of Brigham Young University, and it is used by tens of thousands of users every month (linguists, teachers, translators, and other researchers). COCA is also related to other large corpora that we have created.

The corpus contains more than 450 million words of text and is equally divided among spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic texts. It includes 20 million words each year from 1990-2012 and the corpus is also updated regularly (the most recent texts are from Summer 2012). Because of its design, it is perhaps the only corpus of English that is suitable for looking at current, ongoing changes in the language (see the 2011 article in *Literary and Linguistic Computing*

The Brown Corpus of Standard American English: Created in the early sixties, this was the first modern, computer readable, general language corpus. Since this pioneering work, a lot of effort has gone into building bigger language data banks.

The Longman Corpus Network contains over 300 million words; The Cambridge International Corpus, around 200 million words; The Oxford English Corpus, today including over a billion words.

Summing up we can say that the corpus also allows you to easily limit searches by frequency and compare the frequency of words, phrases, and grammatical constructions, in at least two main ways:

• By genre: comparisons between spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic, or even between sub-genres (or domains), such as movie scripts, sports magazines, newspaper editorial, or scientific journals

Over time: compare different years from 1990 to the present time You can also easily carry out semantically-based queries of the corpus. For example, you can contrast and compare the collocation of two related words (*little/small*, *democrats/republicans*, *men/women*), to determine the difference in meaning or use between these words. You can find the frequency and distribution of synonyms for nearly 60,000 words and also compare their frequency in different

genres, and also use these word lists as part of other queries. Finally, you can easily create your own lists of semantically-related words, and then use them directly as part of the query.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.

1. What modern trends in English Lexicography can you review?
2. Give the definition to the term "*corpus*". Why the Corpus is used in dictionary making?
3. What can you say about Corpus-based linguistics and its specific feature?
4. What is Computational linguistics? What programs of Computational linguistics do you know?
5. What is Corpus-based lexicography (Corpus lexicography). What are the main characteristics?
6. Give the review and analysis about the different types of corpora.
7. What do you know about the British National Corpus?
8. The Corpus of Contemporary American English – the main characteristics and objectives.

Seminar task:
1. Do some research on the Web and find out many different kinds of dictionaries and give you own comments.
2. Make a presentation about The Cambridge International Corpus.

3. Computational Lexicography. Electronic dictionaries

Computational Lexicography deals with the design, compilation use and evaluation of electronic dictionaries.CL involves not only the creation of machine-readable dictionaries, both directly created in electronic format and derived from published dictionaries), but also the building of lexicons for machine use, as well as the development of dictionaries (in databases) for human use.

With the rapid development of technology, the market for electronic equipment has been well-sold. In the past decade, the electronic

dictionaries are very popular among students and other consumers in comparing with a paper dictionary the electronic dictionary is much easier to use, more portable and contains more than one million words. Generally, users need only type into a word and the definitions of the word come into being on the little screen, while traditional ones need you to leaf through several pages.

An ***electronic dictionary*** is a dictionary whose data exists in digital form and can be accessed through a number of different media. Electronic dictionaries can be found in several forms, including:

- as dedicated handheld devices;
- as apps on smartphones and tablet computers or computer software;
- as a function built into an E-reader;
- as CD-ROMs and DVD-ROMs, typically packaged with a printed dictionary, to be installed on the user's own computer;
- as free or paid-for online products.

Most types of dictionary are available in electronic form. These include general-purpose monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, historical dictionaries such as the *Oxford English Dictionary*, monolingual learner's dictionaries, and specialized dictionaries of every type, such as medical or legal dictionaries, thesauruses, travel dictionaries, dictionaries of idioms, and pronunciation guides.

Electronic dictionary databases, especially those included with software dictionaries are often extensive and can contain up to 500,000 headwords and definitions, verb conjugation tables, and a grammar reference section.

Bilingual electronic dictionaries and monolingual dictionaries of inflected languages often include an interactive verb conjugation, and are capable of word stemming and lemmatization.

Publishers and developers of electronic dictionaries may offer native content from their own lexicographers, license data from print publications, or both, as in the case of Babylon offering premium content from Merriam Webster, and Ultralingua offering additional premium content from Collins, Masson and Simon & Schuster, and Paragon Software offering original content from Duden, Britannica, Harrap, Merriam-Webster and Oxford.

Nowadays, there are some popular electronic dictionaries:

- CD-ROM which are supplied with the British and American pronunciation of each word;

- SMART treasures with synonyms on the theme groups, the interactive exercises;
- QUICK find which allows to find out the meaning of every word.

These portable dictionaries with light weight are convenient and user-friendly.

There are distinguished two types of electronic dictionaries: ***online*** and ***CD-ROM dictionaries*** which are usually electronic versions of the printed reference books supplemented by more visual information, pronunciation, interactive exercises and games .

An ***online dictionary*** is a dictionary that is accessible via the Internet through a web browser. They can be made available in a number of ways: free, free with a paid subscription for extended or more professional content, or a paid-only service. Some online dictionaries are organized as lists of words, similar to a glossary, while others offer search features and additional language tools and content such as verb conjugations, grammar references, and discussion forums.

Online dictionaries such as Oxford Online Dictionary, Longman Online Dictionary make convenient the user to carry searches of words and it is also the comfortable and easy way to observe the word lemmatization.

Online translate programs such as PROMT, ABBYY Lingua, Slovoed Compact Dictionary and much more pocket dictionaries. These electronic dictionaries allow users to find out the needed word, its translation, synonyms and word compounds. As you see the advantages of electronic dictionaries are tremendous and obvious. In addition, there is some other added functionality, such as calendar, alarm clock, calculator, address book.

It is an example of the verb from Slovoed Compact Dictionary. Here we can see that the program finds out the headword from the left after from the right sight we can observe headwords lemmatization. There is the sound indicator, which can allow users to listen to headword's correct pronunciation; further there is the headword which should translate including the grammatical category of the verb; then you can see the English translation of the headword printed in bold and with the close meanings in Russian within brackets; further there are word compounds with the verb "делать" much used in Russian language. Each translation follows after hyphen and for the convenience of users is printed in bold.

From our point of view such kind of compact dictionary is more comfortable one, but when it is a learner, who wants to know more about the definite word, its synonyms, idioms and set phrases with this word, it's rather to use dictionary books.

It is obvious that the intense development of computer science gives the new perspectives in the dictionary making process, including various useful appendices in vocabulary-building materials.

Seminar Questions:
Consider your answers to the following.
1. Computational Lexicography and its most significant characteristics.
2. Electronic dictionaries their types and distinctive features.
3. What popular electronic dictionaries do you know? Give a brief review.
4. The development and peculiar characteristics of an online dictionary
5. What can you tell about electronic dictionaries and online translate programs?

Seminar task:
1. *A self –study work*. Create your specialized dictionary with definitions and illustrative materials (20-25 words). Choose a subject for work on the dictionary and give the complete description and analysis.
Topics:
1. Idioms and proverbs with NAMES OF PLANTS.
2. Idioms with key words – animals (*zoomorphizms*).

3. Idioms with key words – parts of a human body (*somatisms*).
4. Idioms with elements of color scales
5. Idioms with elements of food lexicon.
6. Neologisms in the field of Fashion (clothes, footwear, accessories)
7. Computing Neologisms.
8. Neologisms in the field of Art and Music.
9. Neologisms in the sphere of Sport.
10. Special linguistic terminology.
11. Special business terminology.
12. Dictionary of Collocations.
13. Dictionary of Pseudonyms in the English, Kazakh and Russian literature.
14. Dictionary of Stage Names of famous singers and actors.
15. Eponyms derived from prominent person's names.
16. Eponyms in the sphere of trademarks.

List of Scientific subjects
for the project work of students and undergraduates

1. New Blends in the English language.
2. Linking and Blending in American English
3. The Productive Ways of Lexical Abbreviations.
4. Sound Imitation and its types existing in different languages.
5. Compound words with the new lexical meanings.
6. Deferent Types of Conversion in Present-Day English.
7. New Abbreviations in the English/Russian/Kazakh languages.
8. New eponyms derived from prominent person's names in the English/ Kazakh/ Russian languages.
9. The main features of Neologisms used in computer technology.
10. Neologisms in the field of Art and Music.
11. Neologisms in the sphere of Sport.
12. Neologisms in the sphere of Fashion.
13. New Business Words and new meanings.
14. The current development of economic terminology in different languages.
15. Professional Terminology in the English Language.
16. New Borrowings in the English language.
17. Synonyms with evaluative connotation in the English and Kazakh/Russian languages.
18. Zoomorphisms in set phrases and idioms of the English and Kazakh/Russian languages.
19. Phraselogical Units with Names of Plants in different languages.
20. English idioms with components of *color scales* in comparison with the Russian/Kazakh language.
21. English Idioms with key words from special categories: *numerals* (in comparison with Kazakh/Russian).
22. English Idioms with elements of food lexicon (*food idioms*) in comparison with Kazakh/Russian.
23. Somatic phraseological units with key words: **face, ear, eye, head, hair, neck** in the English and Kazakh/Russian languages.
24. Somatic phraseological units with key words: **heart, back, blood, hand, skin** in the English and Kazakh/Russian languages.
25. Superstitious taboos and Euphemisms in national culture.

26. English Forms of Address (introductions, greetings, requests, apologies, thanks) in comparison with native language.

27. English Proverbs and Sayings and their equivalents in Kazakh, Russian.

28. Anglicisms in names of modern professions in Kazakhstan.

29. English Idioms with prepositions.

30. Verbal Idioms in the English and Kazakh/Russian languages.

31. English Contemporary Euphemisms in comparison with other languages.

32. Colloquial Words and Expressions.

33. Student's Slang of the English language.

34. The Development of Local Dialects in Great Britain.

35. American Professional Slangs.

36. Canadian, Australian Variants of English.

37. Variants of English in the United Kingdom (Scottish, Irish English)

38. History and development of English Dictionaries.

39. Monolingual English dictionaries and their classification.

40. Lemmatization of Bilingual English-Russian Dictionaries.

41. Specialized English Dictionaries and their types.

42. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.

43. New Oxford Dictionaries of English and their characteristics.

44. Macmillan Phrasal Verbs Dictionary.

45. Encyclopedic English Dictionaries.

46. The main features of Electronic English Dictionaries.

47. The peculiarities of Oxford Picture Dictionary.

48. Oxford Phrasal Verbs with idiomatic meanings.

49. Noah Webster's Dictionaries.

50. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology.

TESTS

Discipline "English Lexicology and Lexicography"
Variant -1

1. The root of the word is … .
A) a derivational affix
B) the basic unit of a language
C) the basic part of a word to which affixes are added
D) a grammatical paradigm
E) a derived stem

2. The main types of dictionaries are… .
A) general and etymological
B) general and special
C) special and multilingual
D) usage and slang dictionaries
E) general and ideographic

3. Dictionaries of American English are … .
A) explanatory dictionaries
B) etymological dictionaries
C) general dictionaries
D) dictionaries of synonyms
E) specialized dictionaries

4. Glossaries are… .
A) unilingual books that give definitions of terms
B) thing-books that give information about extra-linguistic factors.
C) word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.
D) dictionaries explaining origin of words
E) dictionaries giving information about all branches of knowledge

5. "Thesaurus" means
A) a collection of words put in groups together according to likeness in their meaning.
B) a dictionary of abbreviations
C) an etymological dictionary
D) a list of explanations of words, especially unusual ones at the end of a book
E) an alphabetical list of words used in a book or collection of books by one writer

6. The following words *pyjamas khaki, mango, bungalow* which became international came from.
A) Australia;
B) New Zealand;
C) India
D) Canada;
E) The USA.

7. Choose the line with native English.
A) vacuum, exist, act
B) machine, parachute, valley
C) xylophone, epoch, chemist
D) confetti, macaroni, tobacco
E) summer, hope, life, head, son

8. What does lexical assimilation of borrowings comprise?
A) change in sound form and stress
B) various changes in the semantic structure of the word and formation of derivatives from borrowed word-stems
C) different changes in sound -form and grammatical paradigms
D) changes in sound form
E) structural changes

9. PU: *a white elephant, a white feather*
A) phraseological unity
B) familiar quotation
C) phraseological combination
D) phraseological fusion
E) proverb.

10. Complete the idiom *"as like as two…"* using one of the following words
A) peas
B) bears
C) twins
D) nuts
E) cucumbers

11. Choose one of the following lines with the sentence that has an idiom.
A) there are two possible explanations about the origin of this famous phrase
B) "why can't the mayor just cut all the red tape and let us have a parade without a permit"
C) some idioms originated as colloquialisms or slang
D) some idioms were well-known proverbs and short sayings that express practical, basic truth
E) it's time to go to bed

12. Dictionaries of antonyms are … .
A) general
B) dictionaries of the most difficult words
C) specialized dictionaries
D) dictionaries of frequency
E) explanatory dictionaries

13. Functional affixes
A) form blendings
B) form different words
C) provide the structural completeness of a word-group
D) convey emotional components of meaning
E) convey grammatical meaning

14. The word *exam* is a case of … .
A) shortening
B) blending
C) back-formation
D) sound-interchange
E) onomatopoeia

15. The word combinations *a long distance, a long speech, a short path, a short time* are cases of metaphor based upon
A) similarity of function
B) similarity of shape
C) similarity of behaviour
D) the analogy between duration of time and space
E) similarity in position

16. The following words *hell, damn, shut up* are… .
A) terms
B) dialectical words
C) slang
D) vulgarisms
E) synonyms

17. Choose the line with the derivational antonyms
A) careful – careless
B) slow – fast
C) correct – incorrect – wrong
D) temporary-permanent
E) enemy – friend

18. *Archer, phaeton*, *beautious* are … .
A) vulgarisms

B) common colloquial words
C) dialectical words
D) jargonisms
E) archaisms

19. A morpheme is … .
A) the smallest meaningful unit of form
B) the basic unit of a language
C) a cliché
D) a collocation
E) an abbreviation

20. Structurally morphemes fall into … .
A) root morphemes
B) stem morphemes
C) prefixational morphemes
D) suffixational morphemes
E) free, semi-free, bound, semi-bound morphemes

21. Which of the following phraseological units is not motivated
A) bear a grudge
B) bear malice
C) hot dog
D) take a liking
E) to show one's teeth

22. Choose the line with the homographs in the following sets of words
A) new – knew
B) brake – break
C) by – buy
D) piece – peace
E) bow – bow

23. The selection of lexical units, arrangement and setting of the entries is one of the main problems in … .
A) lexicology
B) phonetics
C) phraseology
D) lexicography
E) grammar

24. Compound words are … .
A) words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms
B) class of lexical elements possessing the same lexico-grammatical meaning
C) nouns denoting some feelings and state

D) derivational morphemes standing before the root
E) the smallest meaningful unit

25. The word *dogged* is
A) root word
B) derivative
C) compound
D) compound derivative
E) morpheme word

26. Words: *Long-legged, left-handed, sky-colored* are …
A) derivatives
B) compounds
C) compound derivatives
D) simple words
E) synonyms

27. The words: *zebra*, *skydivers, finger-print scanner* are …
A) historisms
B) common colloquial words
C) neologisms
D) jargonisms
E) vulgarisms

28. Semantically morphemes are classified as
A) bound morphemes
B) free morphemes
C) semi-free morphemes
D) root and affixational morphemes
E) semi-bound morphemes

29. *A Don Juan, the foot of the bed, Head of the school* are cases of
A) a metaphor
B) a metonymy
C) a euphemism
D) an irony
E) litotes

30. The difference between the British and American English is noticeable in the field of … .
A) phonetics
B) grammar
C) vocabulary
D) rhythm and intonation of speech
E) in all the fields of the language system.

31. Special Lexicology … .
A) devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
B) discusses the origin of various words, their change and development
C) deals with the vocabulary of a given language of a given stage of development
D) deals with casual relations between the way the language works and develops and the facts of social life
E) studies the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages

32. Historical Lexicology … .
A) devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of the given language
B) discusses the origin of various words, their change and development
C) deals with casual relations between the way the language works and develops and the facts of social life
D) deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of development
E) studies the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages

33. Derivational affixes are used … .
A) to connect parts of blendings
B) to build different structures
C) to form only neologisms
D) to form different words
E) to form only synonyms

34. Usually the leading component of the idiom is expressed by … .
A) a noun or an adverb
B) a verb or a noun
C) an adjective
D) a conjunction
E) a preposition or an adverb

35. Match the terms with their classification types: ideographic, contextual, absolute, stylistic
A) synonyms
B) antonyms
C) homonyms
D) compoundings
E) idioms

36. Metonymy is based on… .
A) narrowing of meaning
B) contiguity of meaning
C) pejoration of meaning
D) amelioration of meaning
E) extention of meaning

37. Metaphor is a transfer of name based on… .
A) pejoration of meaning
B) contiguity of meaning
C) the association of similarity
D) amelioration of meaning
E) extension of meaning

38. Choose the line that has words belonging to terminology
A) lovely, beautiful, colorful, handsome
B) a book, a shop, a suit, a street
C) telegraph, antibiotic, radar, metaphor
D) to go to bed, to get up, to have breakfast, to clean
E) three, above, are, far, straight

39. Stylistic synonyms are …
A) words which differ in connotations
B) words identical in their sound -form or in graphic form or in both, but different in meaning
C) words which differ in their morphemic structure but coinciding in their sound-form
D) two words having the same denotational meaning but differing in stylistic connotation
E) words which differ in shades of meaning

40. Words, which are different in sound and in meaning, but identical in spelling are…
A) homonyms proper
B) homophones
C) full homonyms
D) synonyms
E) homographs

41. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary is …
A) a frequency dictionary
B) an explanatory dictionary
C) a special dictionary
D) a restricted dictionary
E) a biographical dictionary

42. The formation of British lexicography go back to … centuries.
A) 9th-10th
B) 8th-9th
C) 7th-8th
D) 6th-7th
E) 5th-6th

43. Who was the compiler of a famous explanatory dictionary which was called "A dictionary of the English language"? When was it published?
A) in 1604, Robert Cawdreys
B) in 1721, Nathaniel Bailey
C) in 1789, A. Hornby
D) in 1755, Samuel Johnson
E) in 1884, James A.H.Murray

44. Dictionaries of abbreviations, antonyms, borrowings, neologisms are …
A) rhyming and thesaurus type of dictionaries
B) etymological dictionaries
C) glossaries
D) general dictionaries
E) specialized dictionaries

45. American lexicography began to develop at the end of the … century.
A) 16th
B) 17th
C) 18th
D) 19th
E) 15th

Discipline "English Lexicology and Lexicography"
Variant -2

1. A stem is … .
A) a functional affix
B) a derivational affix
C) a prefix
D) a suffix
E) the part of the word that remains unchanged through its paradigm

2. Which of the following lines has diminutive suffixes?
A) heroine, actress
B) booklet, girlie
C) poetic, picturesque
D) cloudy, girlish
E) funny, sunny

3. Choose the line where all the words have American spelling.
A) travelling, centre, colour, offence
B) jewellery, woolen, favour, metre
C) armour, although, fibre, monologue
D) humor, theater, program, thru
E) telegramme, center, picturesque

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4. "Thesaurus" means

A) a collection of words put in groups together according to likeness in their meaning.

B) a dictionary of abbreviations

C) an etymological dictionary

D) a list of explanations of words, especially unusual ones at the end of a book

E) an alphabetical list of words used in a book or collection of books by one writer

5. Prefix *well* in the word *well-known* is

A) an infix

B) a semi-affix

C) an allomorph

D) a suffix

E) an inflection

6. Choose the line with root words

A) reread, mispronounce, unwell

B) V-day, lab, pram

C) room, work, book

D) workaholic, mother-in-law, update

E) singing, friendship, kingdom

7. *Boomerang kid*, *billboard, keyboard* are … .

A) neologisms

B) common colloquial words

C) dialectical words

D) jargonisms

E) vulgarisms

8. According to the structure the words: *fridge, pub, tech, USA*, *exam* are… .

A) simple

B) shortened

C) compound

D) derived

E) blendings

9. Semasiology is the branch of lexicology that deals with … .

A) differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication

B) the phonemic shape of words

C) the grammatical function of words

D) a positional mobility of words within a sentence

E) the study of word meaning

10. Which of the following lines have derived stems?
A) story-teller, match-box, friendly
B) beautiful, girlish, activate
C) distance, experiment, sequence, police
D) ache, cup, look
E) chortle, goody-goody, flower

11. What is blending?
A) sound imitation
B) sound and stress interchange
C) back-formation
D) shortening and compounding
E) affixation and conversion

12. Which types of word-building are similar to conversion?
A) adjectivization, adverbialization, substantivization
B) blending, telescoping, reduplication
C) sound and stress imitation
D) initial and final clipping
E) lexical and graphical abbreviations

13. Cross out non-somatc idiom.
A) to pay through the nose
B) to be good hand at somethig
C) to stick to one's word
D) to live from hand to mouth
E) to keep your head

14. Choose the line with total (complete or absolute) synonyms
A) pretty, handsome, beautiful
B) functional affix, inflection, flexion
C) to eat, to partake, to peck
D) capable , skillful, qualified
E) companion, friend, associate

15. Which of the following suffixes are of Greek origin?
A) –doom, -hood, -ly;
B) –able, -ible, -ant, -ous;
C) –age,-ful,-ence;
D) –ist, -ism, -ite;
E) –anti, -dom, -ful.

16. Define the American English word.
A) tram
B) nightdrees

C) aubergine
D) shopping trolley
E) eggplant

17. The phrases: *the foot of the bed, bookworm* are cases of … .
A) a metaphor
B) a metonymy
C) a euphemism
D) an irony
E) litotes

18. Lexicography deals with…
A) the word-making process in English
B) variants of the English language
C) classification of loan words
D) the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries
E) the etymological background of the English word stock

19. What is abbreviation?
A) the result of reduction of a word to one of its parts
B) the result of adding affixes to free stems
C) the result of merging parts of words into one new word
D) the result of subtracting a real or supposed suffix from existing words
E) the result of shortening and compounding

20. Which word-building ways are similar to compounding?
A) affixation
B) sound imitation
C) conversion
D) back formation
E) blending and reduplication

21. The words consist of a root and affix or affixes are called …
A) derivatives
B) nucleus
C) productives
D) shortenings
E) ontractions

22. Word-groups with a completely changed meaning, they are not motivated the meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts are called…
A) praseological word-groups;
B) praseological unities;
C) praseological fusions;
D) praseological units
E) praseological combinations;

23. What is the difference between the derivational and functional suffixes?
A) a derivational suffix precedes and a functional suffix follows the root
B) both of them precede the root
C) both types of suffixes follow the root, a derivational suffix forms nouns, a functional suffix forms other parts of speech
D) a derivational suffix forms various new words while a functional suffix forms various grammatical forms of the same word
E) they are synonymous terms

24. *The White House, boston, volt, mackintosh* are cases of… .
A) a metaphor
B) a metonymy
C) a euphemism
D) an irony
E) litotes

25. A metonymy is … .
A) a transfer of name based on the association of similarity
B) a transfer based upon the association of contiguity of meaning
C) specialization of meaning
D) degradation or of meaning
E) amelioration of meaning

26. The following words *pyjamas khaki, mango, bungalow* which became international came from… .
A) Australia;
B) New Zealand;
C) India
D) Canada;
E) The USA.

27. The toponyms *Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Utah* are … .
A) Indian words (of Indian tribes)
B) Spanish words
C) German words
D) French words
E) Italian words

28. Define the idiomatic compounds with partial changed meaning.
A) Bluebottle
B) bluestocking
C) tallboy
D) blackberries
E) butter-fingers

29. Define non-synonymic word.
A) to fabricate
B) to produce
C) to create
D) to make
E) to astound

30. The root of the word is …
A) a derivational affix
B) the basic unit of a language
C) the basic part of a word to which affixes are added
D) a grammatical paradigm
E) a derived stem

31. Lexicology deals with … .
A) the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words
B) the origin of various words
C) the English word in its morphological and semantic structure
D) the theory and practice of compiling vocabulary
E) casual relations between the way the language works and develops and the facts of social life

32. General Lexicology
A) studies the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages
B) devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
C) discusses the origin of various words, their change and development
D) deals with casual relations between the way the language works and develops and the facts of social life
E) studies the vocabulary irrespective of any particular language

33. By internal structure of the word we mean
A) the morphological structure of the word
B) the meaning of the word
C) the stylistic structure of the word
D) the emotional part of the word
E) the utterance of the word

34. Give the idiomatic phrase to the following definition: "decide to face a problem or difficulty instead of avoiding it".
A) to take the bull by the horns
B) let the cat out of the bag
C) at a snail's pace
D) pay through the nose
E) a night owl

35. Identify the main function of the morphemes
A) to change the lexical meaning of some parts of speech
B) to form one part of speech from another
C) to form a new sentence
D) to find out the meaning of the word
E) to name the lexical units

36. Point out the informal style of speech.
A) professional terminology
B) official letter
C) literary
D) learned words
E) dialect words

37. Which is a slang word?
A) a man
B) kid
C) pound
D) a child
E) good

38. Define the type of homonyms: "homographs".
A) rite-right
B) see-sea
C) piece-peace
D) a row – a row
E) a ball – a ball

39. Define the British English word.
A) streetcar
B) sidewalk
C) baggage
D) subway
E) gasoline

40. The words *ballet, buffet corps, bouquet, cliché* are borrowings from … .
A) Latin
B) Indian
C) Spanish
D) French
E) Scandinavian

41. Lexicography is divided into two related disciplines:
A) practical, theoretical
B) practical, computational

C) structural, lexical
D) theoretical, computational
E) semantic, linguistic

42. What is the object of study in lexicography?
A) vocabulary of the language and the properties of words
B) interpretation of texts
C) dictionary-compiling
D) a language influence on social life
E) grammatical functions of words

43. Who was the compiler of the 1st etymological dictionary? When was it published?
A) in 1604, Robert Cawdreys
B) in 1721, Nathaniel Bailey
C) in 1755, Samuel Johnson
D) in 1796, John Smith
E) in 1884, James A.H.Murray

44. What aspect is presented in explanatory dictionary?
A) semantic
B) syntactical
C) morphological
D) structural
E) grammatical

45. Who is the compiler of "English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary"?
A) T.A. Knott
B) L.V.Sherba
C) V.K.Muller
D) A.V.Koonin
E) J. S. Kenyon

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KEYS to the Tests

Variant 1

1. C	13. D	25. B	37. C
2. B	14. A	26. C	38. C
3. E	15. D	27. C	39. D
4. A	16. D	28. D	40. E
5. D	17. A	29. A	41. B
6. C	18. E	30. C	42.C
7. E	19. A	31. A	43.D
8. B	20. E	32. B	44.E
9. D	21. C	33. D	45.C
10. A	22. E	34. B	
11. B	23. D	35. A	
12. C	24. A	36. B	

Variant 2

1. E	13. C	25. B	37. B
2. B	14. B	26. C	38. D
3. D	15. D	27. A	39. C
4. A	16. E	28. D	40. D
5. B	17. A	29. E	41. A
6. C	18. D	30. C	42.C
7. A	19. A	31. A	43.B
8. B	20. E	32. E	44.A
9. E	21. A	33. B	45.D
10. B	22. C	34. A	
11. D	23. D	35. B	
12. A	24. B	36. E	

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