

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ  
ГОУ ВПО «КАЗАНСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ МЕДИЦИНСКИЙ  
УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

**МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ  
ПО КУРСУ «ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ»**

*(ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЕ И ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЕ АСПЕКТЫ)*

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**Методические рекомендации по КУРСУ «Лексикология» (теоретические и практические аспекты) для студентов специальности «переводчик в сфере профессиональной коммуникации».** – КГМУ, 2010. – 38 с.

Составители: О.В. Акимова, канд. филол. наук,  
доцент каф. контрастивной  
лингвистики и лингводидактики ТГГПУ;

Рецензенты: М.И. Солнышкина, доктор филол. наук,  
профессор каф. контрастивной  
лингвистики и лингводидактики ТГГПУ;

О.Г. Палугина, канд. филол. наук,  
доцент каф. контрастивной  
лингвистики и лингводидактики ТГГПУ;

Методические рекомендации предназначены для студентов специальности «Переводчик в сфере профессиональной коммуникации». Цель данных рекомендаций заключается в стимулировании самостоятельного, активного подхода студентов к осмыслению сложных лексических явлений и их анализу в различных условиях функционирования языка. Этому способствуют вопросы и задания, следующие за изучаемым материалом.

## INTRODUCTION

Every day we communicate with each other exchanging information of different kind. When we communicate verbally, we produce sounds that are organised into some unities according to the ideas and thoughts we want to send to our interlocutors. It makes it clear that in our speech, either oral or written, we use and combine such elements of language that can serve as means of communication being separate or in set combinations. These elements are termed words.


To communicate easily and effectively and avoid being misunderstood implies correct and proper application of words and their combinations: their stylistic peculiarities, their accurate use in different contexts, or their use in terms of time aspect.

In linguistics there is a part within which various characteristics necessary for a good command of language are covered and observed. It is the theory of the word. The fundamentals of the word theory and of the main problems associated with English vocabulary, its characteristics and subdivisions are presented in Lexicology of the English language.

## Unit One

### THE FUNDAMENTALS OF LEXICOLOGY

#### Part 1

 Study the following:

#### The Object and Aims of Lexicology

**Lexicology** (the term “lexicology” is of Greek origin (from “lexis” – “word” and “logos” – “science”). It means “the science of the word”) is the branch of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary of a language and properties of words (and word-groups) as the main units of language. It is the study of words.

Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes which make up words.

By the **vocabulary** (or **the stock of words**) of a language is understood the total sum of its words and word equivalents that the language possesses.

The term **word** denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word therefore is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

Modern English Lexicology aims at giving a systematic description of the word-stock of Modern English. Words, their component parts – morphemes – and various types of word-groups, are subjected to structural and semantic analysis primarily from the synchronic angle.

In other words, Modern English Lexicology investigates the problems of word-structure and word-formation in Modern English, the semantic structure of English words, the main principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings the laws governing the replenishment of the vocabulary with new vocabulary units. It also studies the relations existing between various lexical layers of the English vocabulary and the specific laws and regulations that govern its development. The source and growth of the English vocabulary, the changes it has undergone in its history are also dwelt upon, as the diachronic approach revealing the vocabulary in the making cannot but contribute to the understanding of its workings at the present time.

#### Aspects and Branches of Lexicology

Distinction is naturally made between **General Lexicology** and

#### Special Lexicology:

\***General Lexicology** is part of General Linguistics; it is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.

\***Special Lexicology** is the Lexicology of a particular language (e.g. English, Russian, etc.), i.e. the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units, primarily words as the main units of language.

Every Special Lexicology is based on the principles worked out and laid down by General Lexicology, a general theory of vocabulary.

**Semantics/semasiology** is the study of meaning. Modern approaches to this problem are characterised by two different levels of study: *syntagmatic and paradigmatic*.

\*On the syntagmatic level, the semantic structure of the word is analysed in its linear relationships with neighbouring words in connected speech. In other words, the semantic characteristics of the word are observed, described and studied on the basis of its typical contexts.

\*On the paradigmatic level, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system.

One further important objective of lexicological studies is the study of the vocabulary of a language as a system. The vocabulary can be studied

\***synchronically**, that is, at a given stage of its development. It is special Descriptive Lexicology that deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time., or

\***diachronically**, that is, in the context of the processes through which it grew, developed and acquired its modern form. It is special Historical Lexicology that deals with the evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by.

#### Part 2

? Answer the questions:

1. What is lexicology?
2. What are the main problems of lexicology?
3. What are the main differences between studying words syntagmatically and paradigmatically?
4. What is lexicology concerned with?
5. What are the structural aspects of the word?
6. What is understood by the semantic unity of a word?
7. Give a brief account of the main characteristics of a word as a main unit of language and speech.

8. What branches of lexicology do you know?
9. What is vocabulary?
10. What are synchronic and diachronic approaches in lexicological studies?

## *Unit Two*

### THE PROBLEM OF THE WORD

#### Part 1

##### Study the following:

Lexicology is concerned with words and with morphemes which make up words, variable word-groups, and phraseological units.

Although the ordinary 'speaker is acutely word-conscious and usually finds no difficulty either in isolating words from an utterance or in identifying them in the process of communication, the precise linguistic definition of a word is far from easy to state.

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

Each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. Also,

- 1) the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a *unit of communication*.
- 2) the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it.
- 3) the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

The term "**word-group**" denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function. Both words and word-groups (including phraseological units) are names for things, actions, objects, qualities, etc.

#### The English word as a Structure

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the **external and the internal structures of the word**.

\*By external structure of the word we mean its *morphological structure*.

\*The internal structure of the word, or its *meaning*, is commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely

due to their meanings. The area of lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word is called **semantics**.

Another structural aspect of the word is its **unity**. The word possesses both external (or formal) unity and semantic unity.

A further structural feature of the word is its **susceptibility to grammatical employment**. In speech most words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realised. The system showing a word in all its word-forms is called its **paradigm**. There are two approaches to the paradigm: (a) as a system of forms of one word it reveals the differences and relationships between them; (b) in abstraction from concrete words it is treated as a pattern on which every word of one part of speech models its forms. The lexical meaning of a word is the same throughout the paradigm, i.e. all the word-forms of one and the same word are lexically identical.

Besides the grammatical forms of words, i.e. word-forms, some scholars distinguish lexical varieties which they term **variants of words**. Distinction is made between two basic groups of variants of words.

\*lexico-semantic variants, i.e. polysemantic words in each of their meanings in actual speech.

\*phonetic and morphological variants.

The most essential feature of variants of words of both groups is that a slight change in the morphemic or phonemic composition of a word is not connected with any modification of its meaning and, vice versa, a change in meaning is not followed by any structural changes, either morphemic or phonetic. Like word-forms variants of words are identified in the process of communication as making up one and the same word.

Thus, within the language system the word exists as a system and unity of all its forms and variants.

The **word** is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds (soundform), possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterised by formal and semantic unity.

**Word** denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. Neither can exist without the other. Word is a fundamental unit of language. It is a dialectical unity of form and concept. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest unit of a language which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

## Part 2

### ? Answer the questions:

1. What is lexicology concerned with?
2. What is a word?
3. What is a word group?
4. Why is the word viewed as a structure?
5. What structural aspects of the word do you know?
6. Explain what the paradigm of the word mean?
7. Classify lexical varieties of the word.

## Unit Three

### MEANING

#### Part 1

#### 📖 Study the following:

The word is one of the fundamental units of language.

The definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics, because the simplest word has many different aspects: a sound form, its morphological structure, it may occur in different word-forms and have various meanings.

The very function of the word as a unit of communication is made possible by its possessing a meaning. Therefore, among the word's various characteristics, meaning is certainly the most important.

It is universally recognized that word meaning is not homogeneous, but it is made up of various components, which are described as types of meaning. There are two types of meaning to be found in words and word forms:

1) **the grammatical meaning.** Such word forms as “girls”, “writers”, “tables”, etc., though denoting different objects of reality have smth in common, namely the grammatical meaning of plurality, which can be found in all of them.

2) **the lexical meaning.** Besides the grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus the word-forms “go”, “goes”, “went”, “going” possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical

meaning of the word, which may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit.

Thus, by lexical meaning we designate the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions, while by grammatical meaning we designate the meaning proper to sets of word forms common to all words of a certain class.

Both lexical and the grammatical meanings make up the word meaning as neither can exist without the other.

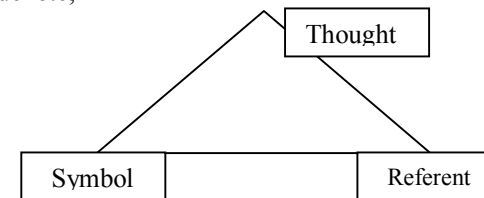
The branch of lexicology, that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as **semasiology**. Semasiology deals not with every kind of linguistic meaning only. This does not mean that we need not pay attention to the grammatical meaning. On the contrary, grammatical meaning must be taken into consideration in so far as it bears a specific influence upon lexical meaning. The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of word, semantic groupings and connections in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, etc.

**Meaning** is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. An exact definition of lexical meaning becomes especially difficult due to complexity of the process, by which language and human consequence serve to reflect outward reality. Meaning can be more or less described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated, in this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions.

Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning we shall give a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics.

There are two approaches to the problem:

1) **the referential approach**, which formulates the essence of meaning as the interdependence between words and things or concepts they denote;



It distinguishes between the three components, connected with meaning: a) the sound form of the linguistic sign (sign or symbol); b) the

concept underlying this sound form (meaning; thought or reference); c) the actual referent, i.e. the part or the aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers (thing meant).

2) **the functional approach**, which studies the functions of a word in speech. This approach is (sometimes described as contextual) based on the analysis of various contexts.

Current research in semantics is largely based on the assumption that one of the more promising methods of investigating the semantic structure of a word is by studying the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i. e. its *combinability* or *collocability*.

The mechanism by which concepts (i. e. mental phenomena) are converted into words (i. e. linguistic phenomena) and the reverse process by which a heard or a printed word is converted into a kind of mental picture are not yet understood or described.

### Types of Semantic Components

The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (i. e. its meaning) presents a structure which is called the *semantic structure* of the word.

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

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed **denotative component** (also, the term referential component may be used). The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word. To give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, it is necessary to include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed **connotations** or **connotative components** (the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about) and **the pragmatic aspect** (information on the situation of communication).

### Development of New Meanings

How new meanings develops? To find the answer to this question we must investigate the inner mechanism of this process, or at least its essential features.

The process of development of a new meaning (or a change of meaning) is traditionally termed *transference*. Two types of transference are distinguishable depending on the two types of logical associations underlying the semantic process:

**1) Transference Based on Resemblance (Similarity).** This type of transference is also referred to as *linguistic metaphor*. A new meaning appears as a result of associating two objects (phenomena, qualities, etc.) due to their outward similarity.

**2) Transference Based on Contiguity.** Another term for this type of transference is *linguistic metonymy*. The association is based upon subtle psychological links between different objects and phenomena, sometimes traced and identified with much difficulty. The two objects may be associated together because they often appear in common situations, and so the image of one is easily accompanied by the image of the other; or they may be associated on the principle of cause and effect, of common function, of some material and an object which is made of it, etc.

### Part 2

? *Answer the questions:*

1. What is understood by “semantics”?
2. What are the two levels of analysis in investigating the semantic structure of a word?
3. What is understood by collocability (combinability)?
4. What causes the development of new meanings?
5. Explain what is meant by the term “transference”.
6. What types of transference can you name?
7. What is meant by the widening and the narrowing of meaning?

☺ *Do the given tasks:*

**Ex. 3.1** *Group the following words into the columns in accordance with the sameness of their 1) grammatical, 2) lexical, 3) part-of-speech meaning:*

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

**Ex.3.2** *Identify the denotational and connotational aspects of lexical meaning of the given words:*

a) celebrated – notorious,	to glance – to glare,
to deal with – to grapple with,	adulthood – respect,
sophisticated – hardened,	ugly – repulsive,
adventure – ordeal,	to murmur – to mutter,
perfect – flawless,	

b) to conceal – to disguise, money – cash,  
to choose – to select, photograph – picture,  
to draw – to paint, odd – queer.

**Ex. 3.3** Explain the basis for the following jokes

1. Where have you been for the last four years?  
At college taking medicine.  
And did you finally get well?
2. Professor: You missed my class yesterday, didn't you?  
Student: Not in the least, sir, not in the least.
3. There are cynics who claim that movies would be better if they shot less films and more actors.
4. Booking clerk (at a small village station): You'll have to change twice before you get to York.  
Villager (unused to travelling): Goodness me! And I've only brought the clothes I'm wearing.
5. Caller: I wonder if I can see your mother, little boy. Is she engaged?  
Willie: Engaged! She's married!
6. "Papa, what kind of a robber is a page?  
"A what?"  
"It says here that two pages held up the bride's train."
7. "Doctor, what should a woman take when she is run down?!  
"The license number, madame, the license number."
8. Proctor (exceedingly angry): So you confess that this unfortunate Freshman was carried to this frog pond and drenched. Now what part did you take in this disgraceful affair?  
Sophomore (meekly): The right leg, sir.

**Ex. 3.4** Trace the logical associations between the different meanings of the same word:

1. He (in a telephone booth): I want a box for two.  
Voice (at the other end): Sorry, but we don't have boxes for two.  
He: But aren't you the box office of the theatre?

Voice: No, we are the undertakers.


**Ex. 3.4** Try your hand at being a lexicographer. Write simple definitions to illustrate as many meanings as possible for the following polysemantic words:

face, heart, nose, smart, to lose.

## Unit Four

### WORD-STRUCTURE

#### Part 1

 Study the following:

A great many words have a composite nature and are made up of smaller units, each possessing sound-form and meaning. These are generally referred to as morphemes defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language units.

Like a word a morpheme is a two-facet language unit, an association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-pattern. Unlike a word a morpheme is not an autonomous unit and can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word.

Identification of morphemes in various texts shows that morphemes may have different phonemic shapes (Cf. : [pli:z] in *please, pleasing*, [plez] in *pleasure* and [plez] in *pleasant*)

In such cases we say that the phonemic shapes of the word stand in complementary distribution or in alternation with each other. All the representations of the given morpheme that manifest alteration are called allomorphs of that morpheme or morpheme variants.

Morphemes may be classified:

- \*from the semantic point of view,
- \*from the structural point of view.

**Semantically** morphemes fall into two classes: root-morphemes and non-root or affixational morphemes. Roots and affixes make two distinct classes of morphemes due to the different roles they play in word-structure.

The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of a word, it has an individual lexical meaning shared by no other morpheme of the language. Besides it may also possess all other types of meaning proper to morphemes except the part-of-speech meaning which is not found in roots.

Non-root morphemes include inflectional morphemes or inflections and affixational morphemes or affixes. Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms, whereas affixes are relevant for building various types of stems — the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. Lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes.

Affixes are classified into prefixes and suffixes: a prefix precedes the root-morpheme, a suffix follows it. Affixes besides the meaning proper to root-morphemes possess the part-of-speech meaning and a generalised lexical meaning.

**Structurally** morphemes fall into three types: free morphemes, bound morphemes, semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes.

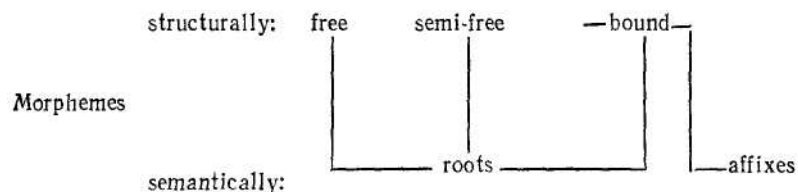
A free morpheme is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form.

A bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word.

Many root-morphemes also belong to the class of bound morphemes which always occur in morphemic sequences, i.e. in combinations with ‘ roots or affixes. All unique roots and pseudo-roots are bound morphemes. Such are the root-morphemes *theor-* in *theory*, *theoretical*, etc., *barbar-* in *barbarism*, *barbarian*, etc., *-ceive* in *conceive*, *perceive*, etc.

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

The relationship between the two classifications of morphemes discussed above can be graphically presented in the following diagram:



### Morphemic Types of Words

According to the number of morphemes words are classified into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic or root-words consist of only

one root-morpheme, e.g. *small*, *dog*, *make*, *give*, etc. All polymorphemic words according to the number of root-morphemes are classified into two subgroups: monoradical (or one-root words) and polyradical words, i.e. words which consist of two or more roots. Monoradical words fall into two subtypes: 1) radical-suffixal words, i.e. words that consist of one root-morpheme and one or more suffixal morphemes, e.g. *acceptable*, *acceptability*, *blackish*, etc.; 2) radical-prefixal words, i.e. words that consist of one root-morpheme and a prefixal morpheme, e.g. *outdo*, *rearrange*, *unbutton*, etc. and 3) prefixo-radical-suffixal, i.e. words which consist of one root, a prefixal and suffixal morphemes, e.g. *disagreeable*, *misinterpretation*, etc.

Polyradical words fall into two types: 1) polyradical words which consist of two or more roots with no affixational morphemes, e.g. *book-stand*, *eye-ball*, *lamp-shade*, etc. and 2) words which contain at least two roots and one or more affixational morphemes, e.g. *safety-pin*, *wedding-pie*, *class-consciousness*, *light-mindedness*, *pen-holder*, etc.

### Part 2

#### ? Answer the questions:

1. What do words consist of?
2. What is a morpheme?
3. What is meant by the term “allomorph”?
4. What types of morphemes can be singled out semantically and structurally?
5. What are radicals?
6. Characterise suffixes and prefixes in English/
7. Present the morphemic classification of the words in the English language.

#### ☺ Do the given tasks:

**Ex.4.1** Analyse the following words according to their morphemic types:

duck, illiterateness, back-bencher, house, uncover, dark-brown, disappointment, effective, black, historian, book-keeper, cry, monster, mistrust, unanswerable, home-sick, good, ex-wife, laughter-filled, go, unfortunately, age-long, manageability, short-sightedness.

**Ex. 4.2** Translate the words into Russian, taking into account the lexical meaning of the root and affixational morphemes:



eyelet, dehouse, neurosis, hostess, betrayal, antipathy, briefly, horsemanship, prewar, famous, weekly.

**Ex.4.3** Classify the following words according to the part-of-speech meaning of their affixational morphemes:

criticism, suitability, hatless, accordingly, combination, befriend, sideways, hospitalize, boyhood, congratulatory, enlarge, northwards, spacious, bureaucracy, quarrelsome, clarify, breakage, drinkable, weaken.

**Ex.4.4** Define the morphemes the different meaning of which helps to distinguish between words in the given sets:

- 1) phraseology, ideology, mythology, neurology;
- 2) notebook, copybook, exercisebook, textbook;
- 3) crossroads, cross-legged, crosswind, cross-current;
- 4) city-based, hospital-based, ocean-based, foreign-based;
- 5) forefoot, forehead, forepart, foreground;
- 6) raspberries, elderberries, strawberries, cranberries.

**Ex.4.5** Segment the following words into morphemes. Define the semantic types and the structural types of morphemes constituting the given words:

aimless, beggarly, postman, shorten, destabilize, sympathy, fruitfulness, maltreatment, disaffected, overrule, photographic, half-eaten, thory, rent-free.

**Ex.4.6** Combine the words the derivational affixes of which express:

- a) not/ without or opposite of;
- b) exceeding/ a great extent or a large amount of/ a great deal of;
- c) similarity/resemblance;
- d) (very)small Or not enough;
- e) liking for:

nameless, hyperactive, sneaky, oversleep, microsurgery, frolicsome, anti-war, disapprove, booklet, priceless, cuboid, overwork, superclever, depopulated, whitish, bibliophile, non-smoker, outgrow, paraprofessional, apolitical, spherule, talkative, lifeless, fiendish, duckling, mistrust, Francophilia, feathery, unhappiness, much-worn, superrich, underdevelopment, childless, mini-market, multicoloured, kitchenette, disorder, ladylike, quarrelsome, hyperactive, amoral, microfilm, babyish, ageless, ultramodern, inattention, flowerlike, humanoid, creative, undercooked, multitalented, sub-Victorian, miniskirt, anticlimax, extra-soft,

hypothermia, outlive, paramilitary, greyish, countless, clockwise, lambkin, duty-free, megabucks, starlet.

## Unit Five

### WORD-FORMATION

#### Part 1

 Study the following:

**Word-formation**, or word-building, or word-derivation, is understood as processes of producing new words from the resources of the particular language (Antroushina).

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

Together with borrowing, word-building provides for enlarging and enriching the vocabulary of the language.

The problem of word-building is associated with prevailing morphological word-structures and with processes of making new words.

The main structural types of Modern English words are:

- \*root words: *book, port, table, street, lamp, to make, etc.*
- \*derived words: *globalization, pleasure, jumper, driver, etc.*
- \*compounds: *dining-room, forget-me-not, bluebell, etc.*
- \*shortenings: *doc, M.P., flu, etc.*

Among word-formation types the following are usually mentioned:

- \*morphological (derivation),
- \*lexico-semantic (conversion),
- \*syntactic (composition).

#### Productivity of Word-Formation Means

The ways of forming new words in modern English can be described as **productive and non-productive**.

**Productive** methods are those which can be resorted to for the creation of new words in present-day English whenever the occasion demands

The ways which cannot now produce new words are termed **non-productive or unproductive**.

In modern English the following three ways of word-building can be considered as the most productive ones: affixation, conversion,

composition.

### **Morphological: Derivation (Affixation). Types of Affixes**

Words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes) are called derived words or derivatives and are produced by the process of word-building known as affixation (or derivation).

Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary.

The process of affixation consists in coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme.

Derived words formed by affixation may be the result of one or several applications of word-formation rule and thus the stems of words making up a word-cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees.

Within affixation two types are distinguished:

**\*prefixation:** *to enrich, to coexist, to disagree, to undergo, anti-war, biannual, uneasy, super-human, ex-champion, co-author, disharmony, subcommittee*

**\*suffixation:** *brightness, violinist, suitable, baker, doubtful, formation, poetic, cloudlet, etc.*

Affixes are classified into **native and borrowed**:

**\*native:** *worker, feeling, childhood, careless, tidy, lonely, wooden, handsome, widen, warmly, etc.*

**\*borrowed:** *lat: relation, congratulate, contribute, disable, curable, constant, minor, solar; fr: arrogance, patience, appointment, tigress, curious, enact, etc.*

### **Lexico-semantic: Conversion**

Conversion is one of the most productive ways of modern particularly English word-building. Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affixless way of word-building or even affixless derivation.

**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.

The new word has a meaning which differs from that of the original one though it can more or less be easily associated with it. It has also a new paradigm peculiar to its new category as a part of speech. A word changes its syntactic function without any shift in lexical meaning.

Conversion is not only a highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. Its immense productivity is considerably encouraged by analytical features of the English language in its modern stage of development. A great number of one-syllable words is another

factor in favour of conversion, for such words are naturally more mobile and flexible than polysyllables.

The high productivity of conversion finds its reflection in speech where numerous occasional cases of conversion can be found, which are not registered by dictionaries and which occur momentarily, through the immediate need of the situation.

### **Syntactic: Word-Composition**

**Composition** is the type of word-building in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems. Compounds, though fewer in quantity than derived or root words, still represent one of the most typical and specific features of English word-structure.

There are three aspects of composition that present special interest:

**\*structural** (compounds are not homogeneous in structure)

**\*semantic**

**\*criteria for distinguishing between a compound and a word-combination.**

Traditionally according to the structure three types of compounds are distinguished:

1) **neutral:**

**\*simple neutral:** *blackbird, shop-window, sunflower, bedroom, tallboy, etc.*

**\*derived:** *absent-mindedness, blue-eyed, golden-haired, broad-shouldered, lady-killer, film-goer, music-lover, honey-moon-er, first-nighter, late-comer, newcomer, early-riser, evildoer, teenager, babysitter, strap-hanger, fourseater, luncher-out* ("a person who habitually takes his lunch in restaurants and not at home"), *goose-flesher* ("murder story") or *attention getter*.

**\*contracted:** *TV-set (-program, -show, -canal, etc.), V-day (Victory day), G-man (Government man "FBI agent"), H-bag (handbag), T-shirt, etc..*

In neutral compounds the process of compounding is realized without any linking elements, by mere juxtaposition of two stems.

2) **morphological.**

It is represented by words in which two compounding stems are combined by a linking vowel or consonant.

This type is non-productive.

*E.g.: Anglo-Saxon, Franko-Prussian, handiwork, handicraft, craftsmanship, spokesman, statesman.*

3) **syntactic.**

These words are formed from segments of speech, preserving in their structure numerous traces of syntagmatic relations typical of speech: *lily-of-the-valley, Jack-of-all-trades, good-for-nothing, mother-in-law, sit-*

*at-home, pick-me-up, know-all, know-nothing, go-between, get-together, whodunit, no-stopping-zone, no-left-turn.*

### Semi-Affixes

The words with *-proof, -man, -land, -like, etc.* for the second element stand between compounds and derived words in their characteristics: *sportsman, gentleman, nobleman, salesman, seaman, fisherman, countryman, statesman, policeman, chairman, etc.* *-land* (e. g. *Ireland, Scotland, fatherland, wonderland*), *-like* (e. g. *ladylike, unladylike, businesslike, unbusiness like, starlike, flowerlike, etc.*), *-worthy* (e. g. *seaworthy, trustworthy, praiseworthy*).

On the one hand, the second component seems to bear all the features of a stem and preserves certain semantic associations with its free form; on the other, its meaning has become generalised that it is approaching that of a suffix.

**Semantically** compounds can be **idiomatic and non-idiomatic** accordingly to the degree of semantic cohesion of the constituent parts:

**\*idiomatic:** *blackboard, football, pick-pocket, lazybones, chatterbox;* or, *ladybird, bluebottle, merry-go-round, butter-fingers, wall-flower, etc.*

**\*non-idiomatic:** *bedroom, working-man, dancing-hall, etc.*

To distinguish compounds from word-groups is possible due to the combination of some criteria: graphic, phonetic, semantic, morphological, syntactic.

### Shortening (Contraction)

Shortenings (contracted words/ curtailed words) are produced in two ways:

**\*The first** is to make a new word from a syllable (or two) of the original word.

The word may lose its beginning (as in *phone* made from *telephone, fence* from *defence*), its ending (as in *hols* from *holidays, vac* from *vacation, props* from *properties, ad* from *advertisement*) or both the beginning and ending (as in *flu* from *influenza, fridge* from *refrigerator*).

**\*The second** is to make a new word from the initial letters of a word group.

*U.N.O.* ['ju:neu] from *the United Nations Organisation, B.B.C.* from the *British Broadcasting Corporation, M.P.* from *Member of Parliament*. This type is called initial shortenings. They are found not only among formal words, such as the ones above, but also among colloquialisms and slang.

If the abbreviated written form can be read as though it were an ordinary English word it will be read like one. For this form the term “**acronym**” is usually used: *laser, radar, scuba*.

This comparatively new way of word-building has achieved a high degree of productivity nowadays, especially in American English. It is commonly believed that the preference for shortenings can be explained by their brevity and is due to the ever-increasing tempo of modern life.

### Minor Types of Modern Word-Building

**Sound Interchange** may be defined as an opposition in which words or word forms are differentiated due to an alternation in the phonemic composition of the root.

#### Sound-Imitation(Onomatopoeia)

The words of this type are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings and inanimate objects.

#### Reduplication

New words are made by doubling a stem, either without any phonetic changes, or with a variation of the root vowel or consonant.

#### Back-Formation(Reversion)

This process is based on analogy. It denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.

## Part 2

### ? Answer the questions:

1. What are the main types of enriching the English vocabulary?
2. What are the principal productive ways of word-building in English?
3. What do we mean by derivation?
4. What is the difference between frequency and productivity of affixes?
5. Give examples of your own to show that affixes have meanings.
6. What features of Modern English have produced the high productivity of conversion?
7. Which categories of parts of speech are especially affected by conversion?
8. What is understood by composition?
9. What groups can compounds be subdivided into structurally?
10. What are the interrelationships between the meaning of a compound word and the meanings of its constituent parts?

11. What are the criteria for distinguishing between a compound and a word-combination?
12. What are the two processes of making shortenings?
13. What minor processes of word-building do you know?
14. What is the difference between a lexical morpheme and a grammatical morpheme?

☺ **Do the given tasks:**

**Ex. 5.1** Deduce the meaning of the following derivatives from the meaning of their constituents:

reddish, irregular, illegal, retype, old-womanish, disrespectful, inexpensive, unladylike, disorganize, renew, eatable, disinfection, snobbish, handful, tallish, sandy, breakable, underfed.

**Ex. 5.2** Explain the difference between the meanings of the following words produced from the same root by means of different affixes:

watery – waterish;  
 embarrassed – embarrassing;  
 manly – mannish;  
 colourful – coloured;  
 distressed – distressing;  
 respected – respectful – respectable; exhaustive – exhausting – exhausted;  
 touchy – touched – touching.

**Ex. 5.3** Find cases of conversion in the following sentences:

1. The clerk was eyeing him expectantly.
2. An aggressive man battled his way to Stout's side.
3. What are you doing here? - I'm tidying your room.
4. My seat was in the middle of the row. I could not leave without inconveniencing a great many people, so I remained.
5. How on earth do you remember to milk the cows and give pigs their dinner?
6. Ten minutes later I was speeding along in the direction of Cape Town.
7. Restaurants in all large cities have their ups and downs.
8. A man could be very happy in a house like this if he didn't have to poison his days with work.
9. I often heard that fellows after some great shock or loss have a habit, after they've been on the floor for a while wondering what hit them, of picking themselves up and piecing themselves together.

**Ex. 5.4** Find the semantic correlations existing between the words made by conversion:

1. He began to nose about. He pulled out drawer after drawer, pottering round like an old bloodhound.
2. The next night I took him along to supper with me.
3. The desk clerk handed me the key.
4. There are advantages, you see, about rooming with Julia.
5. Use small nails and nail the picture on the wall.
6. "Jeeves," he said, "I have begun to feel absolutely haunted. This woman dogs me."

**Ex. 5.5** Explain the type of word-building in the italicized words:

1. A *successful* old lawyer tells the following story about the *beginning* of his *professional* life...
2. It was *doubtless* my first client to see me.
3. *Picture* me, then grabbing the nice, *shiny* receiver of my new phone and plunging into an *imaginary conversation*.
4. ... But I'll manage to *sandwich* your case in between the others somehow.
5. The *stranger* entered the office.

**Ex. 5.6** Find compounds and give their types:

1. The children were in the midst of a free-for all. "Richard, who started this?" asked the father as he came into the room. "Well, it all started when David hit me back."
2. One blue-and white morning the old woman stood in her long, tidy garden and looked up at her small neat cottage. The thatch on its tip-tilted roof was new and its well –fitting doors had been painted blue. Its newly-hung curtains were cheerful... Bird-early next morning she went into dew-drenched garden.

**Ex. 5.7** Find shortenings and specify the method of their formation:

1. But, Doc, I got bad eyes!  
Don't worry. We'll put you up front. You won't miss a thing.
2. Excuse me, but I'm in a hurry! You've had that phone 20 minutes and not said a word! – Sir I'm talking to my wife.

Ex. 5.8 Define the type of word-building process:

a mike; to babysit; a torchlight, to book, unreasonable, homelike; to murmur, a pub, H-bag; a make; merry-go-round; to blood-transfuse; a go; M.P.; thinnish; a find.

### Unit Six

## WORD-GROUPS AND PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

### Part 1

 Study the following:

The largest two-facet lexical unit comprising more than one word is the word-group observed on the syntagmatic level of analysis of the various ways words are joined together to make up single self-contained lexical units.

The degree of structural and semantic cohesion of word-groups may vary:

- 1) free or variable word-groups or phrases
- 2) set-phrases, word-equivalents or phraseological units

The main factors active in uniting words into word-groups are the lexical and the grammatical valency of words.

There is a certain **norm of lexical valency** for each word and any departure from this norm is felt as a literary or rather a stylistic device. Words habitually collocated in speech tend to constitute a cliché. The lexical valency of correlated words in different languages is not identical.

The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures is termed grammatical valency.

Word-groups may be classified according to their headwords into nominal groups or phrases, adjectival, groups, verbal groups, etc.

### Meaning of word-groups

As with word-meaning, the meaning of word-groups may be analysed into lexical and grammatical components: lexical meaning and structural meaning. The lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups are interdependent and inseparable.

## Phraseological units

Phraseological units, or idioms, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary.

Free word-groups are so called not because of any absolute freedom in using them but simply because they are each time built up anew in the speech process where as idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structures.

The task of distinguishing between free word-groups and phraseological units is further complicated by the existence of a great number of marginal cases, the so-called *semi-fixed* or *semi-free word-groups*, also called *non-phraseological word-groups* which share with phraseological units their structural stability but lack their semantic unity and figurativeness.

There are two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups: semantic and structural.

The semantic criterion: phraseological units are defined as word-groups conveying a single concept, whereas in free word-groups each meaningful component stands for a separate concept. The semantic criterion of distinguishing phraseological units from free word-groups is taken as the major one.

The structural criterion: brings forth pronounced distinctive features characterising phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups. Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units, though, some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others. Structural invariability of phraseological units finds expression in a number of restrictions.

A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterised by a completely or partially transferred meaning. The degree of semantic change in a phraseological unit may vary ("completely or partially transferred meaning"). In actual fact the semantic change may affect either the whole word-group or only one of its components. Taking into account mainly the degree of idiomaticity phraseological units may be classified into three big groups: phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological collocations

\*Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated word-groups.

\*Phraseological unities are partially non-motivated as their meaning can usually be perceived through the metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit.

\*Phraseological collocations are motivated but they are made up of words possessing specific lexical valency which accounts for a certain

degree of stability in such word-groups. In phraseological collocations variability of member-words is strictly limited.

## Part 2

### ? Answer the questions:

1. What is lexical valency?
2. What are words habitually collocated in speech called?
3. Is there any difference in the lexical valency of correlated words in different languages?
4. What is grammatical valency?
5. What is the lexical meaning of the word-group?
6. What is the structural meaning of the word-group?
7. In what way do the lexical and structural types of meaning of word-combinations interact?
8. What is phraseological unit?
9. What is the main difference between phraseological units and word-groups according to the structural and semantic criteria?
10. What makes phraseological units similar to words?
11. What types of phraseological units can be distinguished according to the degree of idiomacity?

### ☺ Do the given tasks:

**Ex. 6.1** State meanings of the given polysemantic adjectives on the basis of their lexical valency? i.e. with the help of nouns they are combined with:

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| smart                                    | 1) shoulders, river, chest, staircase, smile;                     |
| 1) shirt, car, garden, officer;          | 2) lands, plains, fields;   |
| 2) person, child, carpenter;             | 3) opinions, view, taste, ideas;                                  |
| 3) blow, rise/fall, attack;              | 4) outline of a plan (framework), sense;                          |
| 4) restaurant, set (society);            | 5) hint, statement, purpose, distinction;                         |
|  | 6) joke, love, story, humour;                                     |
| dry                                      | ugly  |
| 1) shirt, soil, paint;                   | 1) face, man, houses, furniture, building, picture, surroundings; |
| 2) climate, month, heat, summer;         | 2) scene, wound, confrontation, clouds;                           |
| 3) sherry, wine;                         |   |
| 4) book, subject, lecture, text;         |   |
| 5) joke, answer, humour, thanks, manner; |   |
| broad                                    |   |

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 3) ideas, feelings, rumours, moment;                            | full                                    |
|   | 1) bottle, glass, train, drawer, mouth; |
| wide  | 2) truth, name, address, year, height;  |
| 1) road, gate, river, gap, avenue, foot;                        | 3) speed, marks, force, gallop.         |
| 2) interests, experiences, support, variety, selection, choice; |   |

**Ex. 6.2** Translate the sentences into Russian paying special attention to the grammatical valency of the italicized words. State the difference in the grammatical valency of the corresponding words in the Russian and English languages:

- 1) He firmly believes that she is *innocent* of the crime.
- 2) I *explained* the situation to the bank manager and he arranged a loan.
- 3) Several children in the class cannot *speak* English.
- 4) Did the newspapers really *affect* the outcome of the election?
- 5) Robson strongly *objected* to the terms of the contract.
- 6) I first *encountered* him when studying at Cambridge.
- 7) A 23-year-old woman was found *guilty* of murder in the Central Court today.
- 8) Her family strongly *disapproved* of her behaviour.
- 9) Don't *bother* him with your complaints.
- 10) I'll stay here and *wait* for Mike.
- 11) If you're not *sure* of the answers, say so.

**Ex. 6.3** State which of the italicized units are phraseologisms and which are free word-combinations:

- 1) He asked to warm a glass of juice but they *left* it rather *cold* on the table.
- 2) Instrumental music, oddly enough, *left* me rather *cold*.
- 3) Where do you think you *lost* your purse.
- 4) I couldn't stand noise any longer. I *lost* my temper.
- 5) Have a look *at the reverse side of the coat*.
- 6) *The reverse side of the medal* is that we'll have to do it ourselves.
- 7) *Keep the butter in the refrigerator*.
- 8) *Keep the eye on the child*.
- 9) He *threw some cold water* on his face to wake up.
- 10) I didn't expect that he would *throw cold water* upon our project.
- 11) The tourists *left the beaten track* and saw a lot of interesting places.

12) The author *leaves the beaten track* and offers a new treatment of the subject.

**Ex. 6.4** Explain how the misunderstanding arises in each case:

1. Tom: What would you do if you were in my shoes?

Tim: Polish them!

2. "You must be pretty strong", said Willie, aged six to the young widow who had come to call on his mother.

"Strong? What makes you think so?"

"Daddy said you can wrap any man in town around your little finger."

3. He: Don't you hate people who talk behind your back?

She: Yes, especially at the movies.

4. "I'd hate to be in your shoes".

"You couldn't get in them".

**Ex. 6.5** Identify the evaluational and emotive macrocomponents of meaning in the given phraseological units. The contexts in which the phraseological units are given will be of help to you.

1. a cuckoo in the nest – *sb who shares in or takes over privileges, tasks that belong to others.*

You've gained a lot from this deal, but that is not fair. You are a cuckoo in the nest.

2. to hit the roof – *to lose one's temper suddenly and violently.*

If I'm late again he'll hit the roof.

3. a fine kettle of fish – *a difficult situation.*

That's a fine kettle of fish: the car won't start and I have to leave in five minutes.

4. to keep up with the Joneses – *to try to own all the same things as people you know in order to seem as good as them.*

Her only concern in life was keeping up with Joneses.

5. a fair-weather friend – *sb who is only your friend when you are happy and successful.*

I had a lot of money and I knew a lot of people, but most of them turned out to be fair-weather friends.

## Unit Seven

### SOME ASPECTS OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

#### Part 1

 Study the following:

#### Functional differentiation of the English Vocabulary

Speech expresses the speaker's attitude to what he is talking about, his emotional reaction, his relations with his audience. The emotional colouring of the word may be permanent or occasional. A word acquires its emotional colouring, otherwise called its affective connotations.

By the sphere of communication we mean the circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a lecture, an informal talk, a formal letter, an intimate letter, a speech in court, etc.

All these circumstances or situations can be roughly classified into two types: formal (a lecture, a speech in court, an official letter, professional communication) and informal (an informal talk, an intimate letter).

**Informal vocabulary** is used in one's immediate circle: family, relatives or friends. One uses informal words when at home or when feeling at home. Informal style is relaxed, free-and-easy, familiar and unpretentious.

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

Among other informal words, **colloquialisms** are the least exclusive: they are used by everybody, and their sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least of literary colloquial words. The sphere of communication of literary colloquial words also includes the printed page, which shows that the term "colloquial" is somewhat inaccurate.

All or most **slang words** are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted. Each slang metaphor is rooted in a joke, but not in a kind or amusing joke. All or most slang words are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted. Each slang metaphor is rooted in a joke, but not in a kind or amusing joke. This is the criterion for distinguishing slang from colloquialisms: most slang words are metaphors and jocular, often with a coarse, mocking, cynical colouring.

Dialects are regional forms of English. Standard English is defined as the English language as it is written and spoken by literate people in both formal and informal usage and that is universally current while incorporating regional differences.

**Formal words** fall into two main groups: words associated with professional communication and a less exclusive group of so-called *learned words*.

### Learned Words

These words are mainly associated with the printed page. It is in this vocabulary stratum that poetry and fiction find their main resources.

### Archaic and Obsolete Words

These words stand close to the "learned" words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction. Learned words and archaisms are both associated with the printed page.

### Professional Terminology

Hundreds of thousands of words belong to special scientific, professional or trade terminological systems and are not used or even understood by people outside the particular speciality. Every field of modern activity has its specialised vocabulary.

### Basic Vocabulary

These words are stylistically neutral, and, in this respect, opposed to formal and informal words described above. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication.

The basic vocabulary is the central group of the vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core. That is why words of this stratum show a considerably greater stability in comparison with words of the other strata, especially informal.

In learning a foreign language, the basic vocabulary words comprise the first and absolutely essential part of the students' functional and recognition vocabularies. They constitute the beginner's vocabulary.

Basic vocabulary	Informal	Formal
<i>begin</i>	start, <i>get started</i>	<i>commence</i>
<i>continue</i>	<i>go on, get on</i>	<i>proceed</i>
<i>end</i>	<i>finish, be through, be over</i>	<i>terminate</i>
<i>child, baby</i>	<i>kid, brat, beam</i> (dial.)	<i>infant, babe</i> (poet.)

## Terminological Systems

Sharply defined extensive semantic fields are found in terminological systems.

Terminology of a language consists of many systems of terms. We shall call a term any word or word-group used to name a notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture.

Being mostly independent of the context a term can have no contextual meaning whatever. The only meaning possible is a denotational free meaning. A term is intended to ensure a one-to-one correspondence between morphological arrangement and content. No emotional colouring or evaluation are possible when the term is used within its proper sphere.

The terminology of a branch of science is not simply a sum total of its terms but a definite system reflecting the system of its notions. Terminological systems may be regarded as intersecting sets, because some terms belong simultaneously to several terminological systems.

Terms are not separated from the rest of the vocabulary, and it is rather hard to say where the line should be drawn.

With the development and growth of civilisation many special notions become known to the layman and form part and parcel of everyday speech.

### Part 2

#### ? Answer the questions:

1. Where are formal words used?
2. Are learned words used only in books?
3. What are the controversial problems connected with terminology?
4. What is understood by the basic vocabulary?
5. Should students of English learn terms? If so, which branches of knowledge?
6. What is understood by the basic vocabulary?

#### ☺ Do the given tasks:

**Ex. 7.1** Make up lists from the italicized words classifying them into learned (*officialese, literary*), terms, archaic words:

1) Mr. Claud Gurney's production of *the Taming of the Shrew* shows a violent *ingenuity*. He has learnt much from Mr. Cochran; there is also a touch of Hammersmith in his *ebullient* days. *The speed, the light, the noise, the deployment*, of expensively coloured figures ... amuse the senses and



sometimes divert the mind from the unfunny brutality of the play, which *evokes* not one natural smile.

(From a theatrical review)

2) It was none other than Grimes, the Utility *outfielder*, Connie had been forced to use in the last game because of the injury to Joyce – Grimes whose miraculous *catch* in the eleventh *inning* had robbed Parker of a *home run*, and whose own *homer* – a fluky one – had given the Athletics another Wold’s Championship.

(From *Short Stories* by R. Lardner)

3) “I have, with esteemed advice ...” Mr. Aubrey bowed briefly towards the sergent, ...” ... prepared an admission of guilt. I should instruct you that Mr. Freeman’s decision not to proceed immediately is most strictly contingent upon your client’s signing, on this occasion and in our presence, and witnessed by all present, this document.”

(Ibid.)

4) “Sir,  
*in re* Miss Ernestina Freeman

We are *instructed* by Mr. Ernest Freeman, father of the *above-mentioned* Miss Ernestina Freeman, to *request* you to attend at these *chambers* at 3 o’clock this coming Friday. Your failure to attend will be regarded as an acknowledgement of our client’s right to *proceed*.”

(From *The French Lieutenant’s Woman* by J. Foweles)

5) “... I want you to keep an eye on that *air-speed indicator*. remember that an airplane stays in the air because of its *forward speed*. If you let the speed drop too low, it stalls – and falls out of the air. Any time *the ASI shows a reading* near 120, you tell George instantly. Is that clear?” “Yes? Captain. I understand.” “Back to you, George... I want you to *unlock the autopilot* – it’s clearly marked on *the control column* – and take the airplane yourself. ... George, you watch *the artificial horizon* ... *Climb and descent indicator* should stay at zero.”

(From *Runway Zero-Eight* by A. Hailey, J. Castle)

6) Tybalt. This, by his voice should be  
a Montague,  
Fetch me my rapier, boy. What! dares the slaves  
Come *hither*, cover’d with an *antick* face,  
To *flee* and scorn at our *solemnity*?  
Now, by the stock and honour of my *kin*,  
To strike him dead I hold it not a sin.

(From *Romeo and Juliet*  
by W. Shakespeare, Act 1, Sc. 5)

**Ex. 7.2** Prove that the italicized words are professional terms. What is the humour based on in each of the jokes?

1) “Where did the car hit him?” asked the coroner.  
“At the junction of the dorsal and cervical verterbrae,” replied the medical witness.

The burly foreman rose from his seat.

“Man and boy, I’ve lived in these parts for fifty years,” he protestet ponderously, “and I have never heard of the place.”

2) The doctor’s new secretary, a conscientious girl, was puzzled by an entry in the doctor’s notes on an emergency case: “Shot in the lumbar region,” it read. After a moment she brightened and, in the interest of clarity, typed into the record: “Shot in the woods”.

3) A sailor was called into the witness-box to give evidence.  
“Well, sir,” said the lawyer, “do you know the plaintiff and the defendant?”  
“I don’t know the drift of them words,” answered the sailor.  
“What! Not know the meaning of ‘plaintiff’ and ‘defendant’! A pretty fellow you to come here as a witness! Can you tell me where on board the ship the man struck the other? “Abaft the binnacle,” answered the sailor.  
“What do you mean by that?” “A pretty fellow you to come here as a lawyer and don’t know what ‘abaf the binnacle’ means!”

**Ex. 7.3** Consider the italicized words and words-groups slang / colloquial. Give your explanation

1) Higgins: I’ve *picked up* a girl.

Mrs. Higgins: Does that mean that some girl has picked you up?

Higgins: *Not at all*. I don’t mean a love affair.

Mrs. Higgins: *What a pity!*

2) My wife has been *kiddin’* me about my friends ever since we was married. She says that... they ain’t nobody in the world got a *rummier bunch* of friends than me. I’ll admit the most of them ain’t, well, what you might call *hot*; they’re different somehow than when I first *hung around* with them. They seem to be lost without a brass rail to rest their *dogs on*. But of course they are old friends and I can’t *give them the air*.

☺ **Miscellaneous Tasks**

**Ex. 7.4** Read the following jokes. Write out the informal words and word-group and say whether they are colloquial, slang or dialect:

1) A yankee passenger in an English train was beguiling his fellow passengers with tall stories and remarked: "We can start with a twenty-story apartment this month, and have it finished by next."

This was too much for the burly Yorkshire man, who sat next to him. Man, that's nowt", he said. "I've seen 'em in Yorkshire when I've been going to work just laying the foundation stone and when I've been coming home at neet they've been putting the folk out for back rent."

2) A driver and his family had gathered bluebells, primrose roots, budding twigs and so on from a country lane. Just before they piled into the car to move off Father approached a farmer who was standing nearby and asked: "Can we take this road to Sheffield?" The farmer eyed the car and its contents sourly, then: "Aye, you mun as well, you've taken nigh everything else around here."

**Ex. 7.5** Compose the following brief situations. Your style should suit both the subject and the situation:

- 1) A conversation between two students discussing a party they both attended and the friends they met there.
- 2) A similar conversation between two much older, very prim and proper ladies.
- 3) A short review on a theatrical production or film.
- 4) A discussion between two teenagers about the same play or film.

**Task 1** Explain the logical associations in the following groups of meaning for the same words:

- The wing of a bird – the wing of the building;
- The eye of a man – the eye of a needle;
- The heart of a man – the heart of the matter;
- Green grass – green years;
- Ford – a Ford;
- Glass – a glass.

**Task 2** Find the homonyms in the following extracts:

- 1. "Mine is a long and a sad tale!" said the Mouse. "It is a long tail, certainly", said Alice.
- 2. In Brittany there was once a knight called Eliduc. – She looked up through the window at the night.

**Task 3** Say why the synonyms in the examples are not interchangeable:

- 1. The little boys stood glaring at each other ready to start a fight. – The Greek myth runs that Narcissus gazed at his own reflection in the water until he fell in love with it and died.
- 2. You only want a car so that you can be independent of me. – She longed with all her heart for him to take her in his arms.

**Task 4** Find antonyms and describe the effect they give:

- 1. His words seemed to point out that sad, even, tragic, things could never be gay.
- 2. It was warm in the sun, but cool under the shady trees.
- 3. He is my best friend and he is my bitter enemy.
- 4. He hated to be exposed to strangers, to be accepted or rejected.

**Task 5** Complete the following definitions:

- 1. The four groups of words according to their morphological structure are .....
- 2. A word-family is grouping according to .....

### Recommended Literature

3. Functional words are .....
4. By a lexico-grammatical group we understand .....
5. In ideographic groups words and expressions are classed according to .....
6. A semantic field is .....
7. Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three types:.....
8. .... are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted to achieve irony, etc.
9. .... words are mainly associated with the printed page.
10. .... is the central group of the vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core.
11. A term is .....
12. .... include terms, nomenclature, professional popular language, non-normative terms, units of common language.
13. According to their origin English words can be subdivided into two sets: .....
14. Among borrowings three types can be distinguished: .....
15. There are three types of borrowed words according to the degree of assimilation:
16. .... are two or more words originating from the same etymological source (possibly at different times), more or less similar in phonetic shape and meaning.
17. .... are words denoting objects and phenomena which are things of the past and no longer exist.
18. A neologism is.....

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