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of the Republic of Uzbekistan

Uzbek State World Languages University
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SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу
лексикологии современного английского языка

ТАШКЕНТ
ГЛАВНАЯ РЕДАКЦИЯ
ИЗДАТЕЛЬСКО-ПОЛИГРАФИЧЕСКОЙ
КОМПАНИИ «SHARQ»

2010

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Данное учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка.

Утверждено на заседании Совета факультета 2-й английской филологии Узбекского Государственного университета мировых языков от 25 октября 2010 года. Протокол заседания № 3.

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Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по лексикологии современного английского языка «*Seminars in Modern English Lexicology*» предназначено для использования на семинарских занятиях и для самостоятельной работы студентов-бакалавров и магистров УЗГУМЯ. Данное пособие может также с успехом использоваться в других языковых вузах, где преподают лексикологию современного английского языка включен в учебную программу.

Каждое семинарское занятие рассчитано на 2 академических часа. Примерно столько же требуется на подготовку к нему во внеаудиторное время. Предлагаемый курс лексикологии современного английского языка, согласно учебного плана, рассчитан на 40 часов аудиторных занятий (20 часов лекций и 20 часов семинарских занятий).

В основу всей системы упражнений данной методразработки положены следующие методические принципы: упражнения составлены в порядке нарастания языковых трудностей и постепенного перехода от репродуктивных упражнений к продуктивному типу. Некоторые упражнения составлены с использованием материалов из Интернета и официальной литературы английских и американских авторов. Помимо упражнений, каждый студент должен самостоятельно подготовит доклад по актуальным вопросам изучаемого раздела лексикологии.

К пособию прилагается схема лексикологического анализа текста, список тем для самостоятельной работы студентов, рекомендуемая литература по основным лексикологическим терминам.

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SEMINAR 1

1. The object, goals and problems of Lexicology as a linguistic science
 - Subject of Lexicology, its types and branches
 - Interrelations of Lexicology with other linguistic sciences
 - The concept of the lexical unit and the lexical system
 - The word as the basic lexical unit
 - Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexical units
 - Methods of lexicological research
 2. Lexicography as a science and practice of dictionary compiling
 - History of English Lexicography
 - Types of dictionaries
 - Problems of dictionary compiling
- Literature**
1. Антрупшина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006.-(pages 3-11).
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 5. Муминов О. Lexicology of the English language, Т., 2006. – (pages 8-16).
 6. Харитончик З.А. Лексикология английского языка, Минск, 1992.

- Exercise 1: Answer the following questions:**
1. What is the subject matter of Lexicology?
 2. What types of Lexicology do you know?
 3. What aspects of the language is Lexicology connected with?
 4. What are the main features of the lexical unit?
 5. What subdivisions of Lexicology do you know?
 6. Name the branch of Lexicology which studies the following aspects of the vocabulary:

- ?
- a) the meaning of lexical units?
 - b) the types of set expressions?
 - c) the derivational patterns?
 - d) the types of dictionaries?
 - e) the origin of lexical units?
 - f) the semantic classes of words?

Exercise 2: Analyse the following words from the grammatical, phonetic and lexicological points of view:
 mouse, keyboard, AIDS, to edit, arms, slimastics, lord.

Exercise 3: Give the synchronic and diachronic analysis of the following words:

Childhood, country, chahtman, lady, daisy, admiral, flower.

Exercise 4: What dictionaries present the following information:

- ?
- a) the terminology related
 - b) the origin of the lexical unit?
 - c) translation of the words
 - d) who's who information?
 - e) explanation of the word
 - f) word meaning in pictures?
 - g) meaning in the same language?

Exercise 5: Compare the dictionary entries for the given words in four different dictionaries and present your findings in the class.

1. 'happy'; 2. 'head'; 3. 'animal'; 4. 'boy'; 5. 'to drive'.

SEMINAR 2

Morphological structure of English words

- The morpheme, its characteristics and types
- Methods of the morphological analysis of the word
- Grammatical (inflectional) and derivational (affixational) morphemes
- The stem and its types

Literature

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских и отделений педагогических институтов, М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966- (pages 11-48)
2. Буранов Ж., Муминов О., А Practical Course in English Lexicology, Т.: Ukiyuvchi, 1990.- (pages 19-26)
3. Гинзбург Р.З., Хидекель С.С., Князева Г.Ю., Санкин А.А. Лексикология английского языка: Учебник для институтов и факультетов иностранных языков, М., Высш. Школа, 1979.- (pages 7-11)
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Exercise 1: Divide the following words into their morphemes. Indicate which morphemes are inflectional and which are derivational.

Mistreatment; deactivation; psychology; airsickness; terrorized; uncivilized; lukewarm; arms; sooner.

Exercise 2: Identify the component morpheme(s) of each word. How many morphemes does each word contain and what type are they?

student	deforms	island
stupidity	unreliable	classroom
unfair	trial	paper
sandwich	disinfectant	inversion
sleeping	unfairly	magazine
unemployed	husbands	ugly

Exercise 3: Identify the roots in the following words:

Readiness, tired, unassuming, deactivated, possible, racketeers, cloudiness, hopefully, exceptionally, derivational, inflectional, characteristics.

Exercise 4: Do the full morphological analysis of each of the following words step by step. The steps are:

1. Say how many morphemes are in the underlined word in each phrase, and rewrite the word with hyphens between the morphemes.
2. Identify each morpheme in the word as bound or free; root or non-root, inflectional or derivational, prefix or suffix. For inflectional morphemes, identify the category the inflection marks (tense, number, etc.), and whether or not the inflection appears in a regular or irregular form.
3. For bound morphemes, give at least two other words in which the same morpheme appears (same meaning; same or nearly same form). One example is done for you as a sample:

Example: Several Americanisms

America-an-ism-s
America-free root

-an: bound morpheme, derivational, suffix; e.g., 'Dominican', 'Republican', 'Asian'

-ism: bound morpheme, derivational, suffix; e.g., 'Communism', 'defeatism'
-s: bound morpheme, inflectional, regular plural; e.g., 'walls', 'things'

1. an unfortunate error
2. exchanging pleasantries
3. we have misidentified the victim
4. children's clothing
5. they're previewing the slides.
6. her two ex-husbands
7. Which scenario is unlikelyer?
8. He unmasks me every time
9. the safest location
10. the inspector's parking place
11. They are all reactionaries.
12. The play delighted us.

Exercise 5: Identify inflectional and derivational morphemes in the following text:

Having thus answered the only objection that can ever be raised against me as a traveller, I here take a final leave of all my courteous readers and return to enjoy my own speculations in my little garden at Rediff; to apply those excellent lessons of virtue which I learned among the Houyhnhnms; to instruct the Yahoos of my own family, as far as I shall find them docile animals; to behold my figure often in a glass, and thus, if possible, habituate myself by time to tolerate the sight of a human creature, to lament the brutality to Houyhnhnms in my own country, but always treat their persons with respect, for the sake of my noble master, his family, his friends, and the whole Houyhnhnm race, whom these of ours have the honour to resemble in all their lineaments, however their intellectuals came to degenerate. ("Gulliver's Travels", J. Swift)

SEMINAR 3

Word formation in Modern English

- *Word formation as a language subsystem and word-building process*
- *Productivity of word building means, major and minor types of word formation*

• *Affixation as a highly productive type of word formation. Types of affixes.*

• *Classification of affixes according to various criteria (position in structure, part-of-speech, origin, meaning, usage, etc.).*

Literature

1. Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006.- (pages 78 - 120).
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5. Мешков О.Д. Словообразование современного английского языка, М., 1976.
6. Муминов О. Lexicology of the English language, Т., 2006. - (pages 26-28).

Exercise 1: Read the following sentences. With the help of the teacher, define the means by which the words in bold type are built. Translate the words into Uzbek/Russian.

1. She **steeled** herself to endure the **bumping** over the rough road. 2. She looked after the nurse with a **doglike** expression and slowly began to put on her **dressing-gown**. 3. Feelings continually voiced cease to be feelings and feelings never voiced deepen with their **dumbness**.
4. Life had rooted these ideas firmly in their minds. 5. He glanced at the clock and **edged** nearer to the door. 6. He was going to have tea with his **aunties**. 6. She had no intention of being **sidetracked** from

the subject. 7. Then her mind pictured the layout. 8. "Frightfully bad roads! The bus was **ditched** in that narrow turning." 9. He took the **hours-old** dish away. 10. He was **heart-sore** over the sudden collapse of a promising career. 11. I need not say that such a breach of confidence is **unthinkable**. 12. Then she **catfooted** to the opening, pausing for another second to listen. 13. It was a long hall **papered** and **carpeted** in dark green. 14. I'm always called "Mother" at home, because I've **mothered** him ever since my dear mother died.

Exercise 2: Read the following sentences. Translate the words in bold type into Uzbek/Russian.

1. In a **thoughtless** moment he put his hand in his pocket. 2. She seemed **resistless**. 3. He continued in his **honeyed** voice. 4. The coffee was so **sweetish**, it made her shudder. 5. He passed a **curtained** corridor. 6. The boy was still standing there, **peering** trainward. 7. These professions are only in **seasonal** demand. 8. Can't you see she is **edgy** after being up all night? 9. "No sense in getting **panicky**," she assured herself. 10. She was more **spiteful** than all the rest put together. 11. His words were playful but his look became grave.

Exercise 3: State the origin and explain the meaning of the suffixes and prefixes in:
Childhood, extravagant, hardship, ill-natured, freedom, underdeveloped, toward, irregular, brotherly, prewar, granny, reread, hatred, hireling, village, drunkard, limitation.

Exercise 4: Explain the difference between the meanings of the following words produced from the same root by means of different affixes. Translate them into Uzbek/Russian.

Watery – waterish, embarrassed – embarrassing, colourful – coloured, respected – respectful, respectable, manly – mannish.

Exercise 5: Use the prefixes and suffixes auto-, bio-, inter-, tele-, sub-, trans-, over-, -logy and the other clues given below, to build 12 words.

1. Something that moves, or is mobile, by itself, is: _____
2. "Graph" means recording or writing, so a word meaning 'self-writing' would be: _____
3. If "-matic" means working, then a mechanism that works by itself is: _____
4. Marine means to do with the sea. What can go under the sea? _____
5. A word meaning "across the sea" could be: _____
6. Portare is the Latin word "to carry". Make a word that means "carry across": _____
7. Flights "between nations" are described as: _____
8. Do you have 20/20 vision? This word means "seeing from far": _____
9. A word meaning "life study" is: _____
10. A piece of writing about someone else's life is: _____
11. Can you guess a word "own-life-writing"? _____
12. Can you guess the name of a science dealing with UFOs? _____

Exercise 6: Pick out words with noun-building suffixes. Explain the meaning of the words.

1. He did not know how the officialdom would end the scandal.
2. Gemma's friendship, her charm, her simple comradeship were the brightest things in his life.
3. Gabriel's wife served out spoonfuls of the pudding and passed the plates down the table.
4. It was a dull, respectable, uninspired townlet, but scarcely a hole.
5. The grey changelessness of things got hold of me.
6. The cat is a splendid mouser.
7. When he returned to the palace the marketing began.
8. "Please," auntie says, "will you try a piece of our Mayday cake?"
9. The pavement of the road took two months.
10. Shall I tell the receptionist that Mrs. Baird is a regular case and open an account for her?

Exercise 7: Determine what kind of morpheme is highlighted in the words below. Try to discover its origin. The item number follows the word in analysis. Put the Nos after each classification in the given column:

- Grammatical inflection _____
- Noun-forming suffix _____
- Verb-forming suffix _____
- Adjective-forming suffix _____

It was a dark and tempestuous(1) night. Suddenly, an explosion(2) pierced(3) the silence(4). The maid's(5) persistent(6) screams(7) rang from the conservatory(8). The butler was running(9) up the stairs, when he stumbled over the prostrate(10) body of his erstwhile employer(11), a reclusive(12) industrialist(13). Quickly, he deduced that the man had been given(14) a fatal(15) dose of an anesthetic(16). A fragile(17) document(18) was missing from the gigantic(19) safe. He began to organize(20) a reconnaissance(21) to search for the fugitive(22). After that, he planned to interrogate(23) the miscreant(24).

SEMINAR 4

Productive types of word formation

- *Compounding: classification of compounds, their structural and semantic features!*
- *Conversion: types of conversion, semantic relations between the converted pairs*
- *Shortening: abbreviation and clipping, their types and ways*

Literature

1. Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006.- (pages 78-120)
2. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских

оптделений педагогических институтов, М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966.- (pages 77-120)

3. Буранов Ж., Муминов О., А Practical Course in English Lexicology, Т.: Шкипшчи, 1990. — (pages 30-60).

4. Гинзбург Р.З., Хидекель С.С., Князева Г.Ю., Санкин А.А. Лексикология английского языка: Учебник для институтов и факультетов иностранных языков, М., Высш. Школа, 1979.- (pages 108-160).

5. Муминов О. Lexicology of the English language, Т., 2006.- (pages 26-59).

Compounding (Composition)

Exercise 1: Read the following sentences. Explain the meaning of the adjectives in bold type in English.

1. He was wearing a **brand-new** overcoat and hat.
2. His hair was a bit **reddish** before he went **piebald**.
3. It was a **snowy pitch-black** night.
4. The colour deepened in her **rain-wet** cheeks.
5. She never said she was **homesick**.
6. He ignored the red light as if he were **colour-blind**.
7. Don't be so **blood-thirsty**, father!
8. He acted with pride, which one could not expect from such a **lackey-minded** person.
9. She is a tall woman with **black** hair and eyes and an **ivory-white** face.
10. The woman stared at her papers with **sleep-filmed** eyes.
11. He held his hands for a moment against his **deep-lined** cheeks.

Exercise 2: Comment on the meanings of the following compound nouns. Translate them into Uzbek/Russian.

Thumb-nail, nerve-knot, danger-point, daylight, cream puff, corner-room, breast pocket, side-door, eggplant, jellyfish, boxcar, air-brake, ink-stain, love-quarrel, girl-page, restaurant-car, money box, handshake, stop-light, sunlight.

Exercise 3: Arrange the following compounds into three groups according to their motivation: fully or partially-motivated and non-motivated.

Light-hearted, butterfly, cabman, blackberry, wolf-dog, dragon-fly, looking-glass, bluestocking, necklace, earthquake.

Exercise 4: Form as many compounds as possible according to the patterns given in Exercise 3:

grass- tree-, -worthy
hand- -looking, -man

Conversion

Exercise 1: Read the following sentences, translate them. Define what part of speech the words in bold type are and what part of speech they are derived from.

1. Her heart **hungered** for action.
2. The road was **mined**.
3. The cows are **milking** well now.
4. His face **chilled** suddenly.
5. Calvoiced his **dream**.
6. The pages had **yellowed** with age.
7. He slowly **corke**d the bottle.
8. A butterfly **winged** its way into the air.
9. He **weekended** with us.
10. She carefully **bandaged** the arm.

Exercise 2: Explain the meanings of the verbs in bold type. Translate the verbs into Russian.

to powder one's nose, to elbow one's way, to head a delegation, to parrot the grown-ups, to nurse the wounded, to boss the job, to dock the ship, to garage the car, to barrel beer, to torture the prisoner, to anger the mother, to inconvenience the host

Exercise 3: Supply the verbs which the nouns in bold type are derived from. Translate the original and the converted words into Russian. Comment on the semantic character of the derived nouns.

1. She is an awful **tease**.
2. The boy happened to be a **cheat**.
3. She is the well-know **gossip** of the town.
4. The night **watch** rushed to his help.
5. Then followed an interminable **wait**.
6. His long **hunt** for the book resulted in a failure.
7. The station is a half-an-hour **walk** from our house.
8. Christine had the **run** of Mrs. Herbert's kitchen.
9. With his heavy bag and torn shoes he looked like a **tramp**.
10. He was certainly on the **move**.

Exercise 4: Comment on semantic relations within the conversion pairs. Use the verbs in your own sentences:
 Dog – to dog, finger – to finger, dress – to dress, pocket – to pocket, back – to back, monkey – to monkey.

Exercise 5: Translate and explain semantic changes in the following cases of conversion:
 To pirate, to worm, to up, to engineer, to oh-oh, to thou, to partner, to still, to copy, to hammer.

Shortening

Exercise 1: Write out in full the following shortened words:
 A.T., UNO, ad, comfy, U-boat, cycle, paratroops, prep, props, sub, CEDAW, info, FYI, MS.

Exercise 2: Translate the following shortenings, comment on the type of them, give their full forms:

H-bomb, mike, tee, comfy, UNESCO, Bella, cause, asap, OSCE, KR, etc., EU, HIV

Exercise 3: Divide the following clippings into three groups: aphoresis, apocope, syncopé and mixed form:
 Coke, email, fan, dub, vac, van, Japs, polio, flu, ad, pop.

Exercise 4: Give full forms of the following acronyms:

- Radar _____
- Laser _____
- UFO _____

SEMINAR 5

Minor (non-productive) types of word formation

- *Blending*
- *Backformation*
- *Sound gradation (interchange)*

- *Stress interchange*
- *Lexicalisation of plural forms of nouns*
- *Substantivisation of adjectives and adjectivisation of nouns*
- *Mixed forms of word formation*

Literature

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5. Муминов О. Lexicology of the English language, Т., 2006.- (pages 26-59).

Exercise 1: By means of which word formation processes have the following lexemes been made?

To photocopy	To enthuse	Radio station	NGO
Motel	Ready-made	Phone	To shoulder
To bottle	National	Keyboard	Independent
To overestimate	Ex-minister	To lecture	Childish
To sharpen	Yet	Smog	Washable
Laser	Pub	FIFA	To whiten
To party	Girlfriend	To xerox	Hoover
To bus	Cig	Housebreak	ATM

Exercise 2: Which word-formation processes are involved in the following sentences?

- a) Laurie parties every Saturday night. b) Tom worried that he might have AIDS.
 c) Zee described the new toy as fantabulous. d) Eliza exclaimed: Absobloomingly!

Exercise 3: More than one process was involved in the creation of each of the indicated forms below. Can you identify them?

- I just got a new car-phone.
- Johnny wants to be a footballer.
- The negotiators blueprinted a new peace proposal.
- Another skyjacking has just been reported.

Exercise 4: Distribute the following words among the word-formation processes:

Acronym	Compounding	Blending	Clipping	Affixation	Back-formation
---------	-------------	----------	----------	------------	----------------

RSVP, horseshoe, gas, ATM, smog, sitcom, RAM, FedEx, gangster, earring, memo, ASAP, moped, cheeseburger, dorm, notebook, fridge, anklet, washable, flu, childish, readability, sunglasses, photo, breathalyzer, megabyte, CPU, Doc, spam, feminist, blacklist, steno, to enthuse, Fruitoria, kickstand, scraper, pancake, to emote, side-walk, headache, scanner, math, neighbourhood, sailboat, USA, DOS, racetrack, football, CD, suitcase, resurrect, milkshake, to page, to televise, fairground, exam, UFO, skateboard, demo, radar, preempt.

Exercise 5: Which process or processes of word formation can you identify in the examples below?

a) franglais	d) CD player	g) to shop	j) boy-crazy
b) espresso	e) euro	h) vicarage	k) pillar-box
c) docudrama	f) radar	i) unselfishness	l) best-sellers

Exercise 6: What words are the components of the following blends:

Boatel, wintertainment, bomphlet, stagflation, sexsational, zydonk, motel?

SEMINAR 6

Semasiology as a science about meaning

- Semantic structure of English words. Lexico-semantic variants of the word.
- Meaning as a subject for investigation. Types of meaning in the word.
- Principles of semantic change, its causes, nature and results
- Metaphor and metonymy
- Methods of semantic research (componential, contextual and other analyses)

Literature

1. Антруппина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006.- (pages 129-160).
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Exercise 1: Give the semantic structure and state the sememes and semes of the following words:

Baby, monkey, woman, boy, flower, head, mouse.

Exercise 2: Give the denotational and connotational meanings of the following words:

Granny, to pass away, to feather-bed, to soft-soap, to cosmeticize, bureaucracy.

Exercise 3: Here are some borrowings from English currently used in Uzbek and Russian. Do you know the original words? What do they look and sound like in English?

Бизнесмен, бутсы, бульдозер, кемпинг, круиз, мокасины, мотель, сервис, шоу, хеппи-энд, менеджер, газета, хобби, сосиски, организация, проспект.

Exercise 4: What do you think is the difference between the words in the following pairs:

Nightly - nocturnal, yearly - annual, cloudy - nebulous, heavenly - celestial, womanly - feminine, brotherly - fraternal, bodily - corporeal, goodly - considerable, friendly - benevolent, homely - domestic, truthful - veracious, earthly - terrestrial.

Exercise 5: Insert the stylistically appropriate word from the list given in Exercise 5 above into the following sentences:

1. He gave me a ... answer.
2. The astronomers used an extremely elaborate ... map.
3. To enable the struggling authors to live Smith established a ... society.
4. New ideas were introduced both into the foreign and ... policy.
5. She looked at him, her eyes ... with sleep.
6. This specimen belongs to a species of ... animals.
7. She was in ... fear of the man.
8. The place had a ... air and the child soon quieted down.
9. This is an ... publication.
10. She looked very ... in her new dress.

Exercise 6: Below is a list of expressions with the word "red". In each case, try to find a plausible motivation for the use of the word and argue whether we have more to do with a "linguistic" metaphor or metonymy or more with a conceptual metaphor or metonymy.

- (a) a redhead (= someone with red hair)
- (b) red herring (= something that is not important, but distracts from things that are important)
- (c) red politics (= extremely left-wing, communist ideas)
- (d) He was caught red-handed (= in the act of doing something wrong).
- (e) He was beginning to see red (= he was getting very angry).
- (f) This was a red-hot (= very exciting) project.

Exercise 7: Identify the type of semantic shift that has occurred in each case. Choose either Metaphor or Metonymy.

- a) *barbecue* 'a rack for cooking meat over a fire' > *barbecue* 'a social event at which food is cooked over a fire';
- b) influence 'something which has flowed in' > influence 'something which affects someone without apparent effort';
- c) mouth 'the body opening through which one takes food' > mouth 'a person' (eg. "three mouths to feed");
- d) solve 'to loosen' > solve 'to clear up something puzzling';
- e) mouse 'a small rodent that typically has a pointed snout, relatively large ears and eyes, and a long tail' > mouse 'a computer device';
- f) white shirt 'a shirt that is white in color' > white shirt 'a man-ager'.

Exercise 8: For each example, tell whether the result of the semantic shift is Narrowing, Widening, Degeneration or Amelioration of original meaning:

- a) OE *wif* 'a woman' > Modern English *wife* 'a married woman';

- b) nuke 'to destroy with nuclear weapons' > nuke 'to destroy in any manner';
- c) Mide marshall 'groom for horses (literally 'horse slave')' > ME marshall 'high ranking officer';
- d) OE steorfan 'to die (of any cause)' > Modern English starve 'to die from hunger';
- e) Middle English vilein 'feudal serf, farmer' > Modern English villain 'a wicked or evil person';
- f) OE bouchier 'one who slaughters goats' > Modern English butcher 'one who slaughters animals';
- g) Middle English girele 'child' > Modern English girl 'female child';
- h) Lyric 'poem to be sung with a lyre' > Lyric 'any poem to be sung';
- i) OE mete 'any food' > Modern English meat 'animal flesh'.

Exercise 9: Explain the nature of the change of meaning in the following examples:

1. The wings of a bird, of a plane, of a mill; on wings of joy.
2. The foot of a man, of a hill, of a bottle; footnote.
3. Tongues of flame; The child's tongue is coated. My mother tongue is Uzbek/Russian.
4. The neck of a girl, of a bottle; break one's neck.
5. Moscow is the heart of the country; My heart is beating with excitement; to lose one's heart.
6. The mouth of a pot, of a river, of a cave; live hand to mouth.

SEMINAR 7

1. Semantic classification of the English vocabulary

 - Synonyms and their sources. Types of synonyms. Synonymic dominant.
 - Antonyms, their types and classification.
 - Homonyms, their types and classification

- Other types of semantic classes: paronyms, hyperonyms and hyponyms

- Semantic fields, thematic and conceptual groups, etc.

2. English vocabulary as a system

- Neutral and stylistically marked vocabulary

- Functional styles literary, colloquial, slang, etc.)

- Neologisms

- Obsolete and archaic words

Literature

1. Антропина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006. - (pages 160-224).

2. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских университетов педагогических институтов, М.-Л., 1966. - (pages 145-180).

3. Буранов Ж., Муминов О., А Practical Course in English Lexicology. - Т, 1990. - (pages 95-104).

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5. Муминов О. Lexicology of the English language, Т., 2006. - (pages 81-107).

Synonyms and Antonyms

Exercise 1: In what respects do the following synonyms differ?

1. policeman, bobby, cop
2. master, owner, head, proprietor, possessor
3. worker, labourer, toiler, hand
4. fabricate, construct, frame, invent, forge, manufacture, feign
5. mansion, house, habitation, residence, abode, hut, cottage

Exercise 2: Change the following sentences so that they express the contrary meaning by using antonyms. State whether they are absolute or derivational antonyms.

1. All the seats were occupied.
2. The room was lighted by the strong rays of the sun.
3. He added three hundred to the sum.
4. I came in while you were asleep.
5. A lamp is a necessary thing in this room.
6. The door was closed and locked.
7. In the second year of their residence the company seemed especially to increase.
8. The little boy was outside the car.
9. He drew two crooked lines.
10. Light curtains hung in the dining-room windows; therefore it was light.

Exercise 3: Are the following words synonyms? Prove your point of view.

pillow, cushion	mirror, looking glass
sink, basin	fireplace, mantelpiece
desktop, laptop	watch, clock
stove, vent	sail, float, swim
linen, underwear	hurt, ache
mustache, whiskers	cut, slice, chop
rack, shelf	clean, peel
clock, watch	eatable, edible
rocket, missile	private, personal

Exercise 5: Is Sonnet 130 by W. Shakespeare based on similarity of meaning of words? Are those words synonyms? Prove.

W. Shakespeare Sonnet CXXX

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun,
 Coral is far more red than her lips' red;
 If snow be white, why then her breasts are dun;
 If hairs be wires, black wires grow on her head.
 I've seen roses damasked, red and white,
 But no such roses see I in her cheeks;

And in some perfumes is there more delight
 Than in the breath that from my mistress reeks.
 I love to hear her speak, yet well I know
 That music hath a far more pleasant sound;
 I grant I never saw a goddess go,
 My mistress, when she walks, treads on the ground;
 And yet by heaven, I think my love as rare
 As any she belied with false compare.
 Recommendation: Learn this world-famous sonnet by heart!

Exercise 6: Keeping in mind that problems such as meaning equivalence should be approached on the basis of 'graduation' because there are comparatively few clear-cut cases, find in the following list of words synonymic series and classify them into three groups:

- a) synonyms which display an obvious semantic difference (ideographic synonyms);
- b) synonyms which display an obviously stylistic difference (stylistic synonyms);
- c) synonyms more or less equally displaying both differences.

Ailing, arrogant, battle, begin, behold, bicker, brawl, bright, cal-
 lous, clever, commence, conflict, conquest, consume, cruel, defeat,
 devour, diseased, dispicuous, dumb, easy, eat, engorge, facile, fatu-
 ous, fight, food, grub, hard-boiled, haughty, high-hat, hoity-toity,
 horse, ill, inept, ingest, intelligent, light, masticate, obduracy, pace,
 proud, quarrel, sagacious, see, shrewd, snobbish, snooty, squabble,
 steed, stride, stroll, stupid, supercilious, tiff, walk.

Exercise 7: With the help of dictionaries explain the meaning of each member of the synonymic groups given below. Give their synonymic dominants.
 bystander - spectator - looker-on; cry - weep - shed tears - sob
 -snivel - wail - whimper; distinguished - illustrious - famous - noted
 - eminent - celebrated.

Exercise 8: Find antonyms to the following words:

Add, asleep, correct, despair, different, esteem, exclude, hand-some, high, mount, profound, reject, scarce, truth, weak.

Exercise 9: Name classifiers (hyperonyms) for the following groups of hyponyms:

- a) lettuce, peas, onion, paprika, cucumber, leek
- b) Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune

Exercise 10: Find five hyponyms for each of the words below:

- a) building
 - b) profession
 - c) drink
1. ...
 2. ...
 3. ...
 4. ...
 5. ...

Homonyms

Exercise 1: Spell the following homophones. Translate them into Russian and use them in sentences of your own.

['sɪəriəl], ['fɑ:ðəl], [leɪn], [meɪz], [diəl], [pleɪt], [preɪ], [ə'raʊn], [bi:t], ['berɪ], [seɪl], [sent], [pi:s]

Exercise 2: Transcribe the following homographs. State their different meaning.

Lead, compact, row, invalid, polish, desert, wind, bow, tear, close

Exercise 3: Choose the right word:

- 1) Our team will (loose, lose) unless it learns to pass the ball.
- 2) After dinner we all (set, sat) round the table.
- 3) Ann will clean all the carpets (accept, except) this one.
- 4) Liz (quite, quiet, quit) likes her job and spends a lot of time at work.

- 5) Nick is not sure (weather, whether) Jeff is going with us.
- 6) Kim (through, threw) the javelin a record distance.

Exercise 4: Speak about the type of homonyms and explain the difference:

proceed – precede; access – excess; principal – principle; affect – effect; stationary – stationery; dessert – desert n – desert v; cite – site – sight; persecute – prosecute; peace – piece

Exercise 5: Explain what stylistic device is used in these proverbs and sayings, what it is based upon.

- 1) A clean fast is better than a dirty breakfast.
- 2) Who feasts till he is sick, must fast till he is well.
- 3) Feast today and fast tomorrow.
- 4) – Is life worth living? – It depends upon the liver.
- 5) – What do you do with the fruit? – We eat what we can, and what we can't eat we can.
- 6) Her nose was sharp, but not so sharp as her voice or the suspiciousness, with which she faced me.
- 7) Nowadays all of us are so hard up, that only pleasant things to pay are compliments, so it's the only thing we pay.
- 8) When the life goes tough, the tough get going.

Exercise 6: Give words homonymous with the following and say what they mean:

Fare, flour, rite, soul, horse, beat, which, plane, gate, break

Exercise 7: The following are homographs. How are they pronounced and what do they mean?

Bow – bow, desert – desert, lead – lead, minute – minute, row – row, rear – rear, wind – wind.

Exercise 8: Find the homophones to the following words and say what they mean:

Rain, dye, cent, tale, sea, week, peace, seen, meat, steel, knight, sum, coarse, sight, hare, sail, sell, blue, beach, led.

Exercise 9: Would you expect the following words to be entered more than once in a dictionary (as homographs) of to be treated in a single entry (as a case of polysemy). First make a guess then consult a dictionary.

- coach (bus, give training) _____
- cobble (stone for paving, mend shoes) _____
- fence (round a field, sport using a sword) _____
- mount (ascend, mountain) _____
- rook (bird, chess piece) _____
- stable (firmly fixed, place for horses) _____

Exercise 10: Find the meanings of the archaic words in the following list:

Phaeton, hapless, damsel, swain, reck, patter, nonce, huggermugger, happy.

SEMINAR 8

Phraseology as a branch of Lexicology

- *Set expressions, semi-fixed combinations and free word groups*
- *The definition and classification of phraseological units.*
- *Stability and idiomacity of phraseological units compared to words*
- *Different classifications of phraseological units*
- *Proverbs and sayings as special subsystem of phraseology*
- *Phrasal verbs /verbal collocations*

Literature

1. Антрусина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка, М.: Дрофа, 2006 - (pages 225-251).

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5. Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка. М., 1972

6. Муминов О. Lexicology of the English language, Т., 2006. - (pages 108-116)

Exercise 1: Pick out all the phraseological units from the following sentences and classify them. Translate all the passages into Russian or Uzbek.

1. 'I'd like to have a day or two in which to think it over.' 'Why, certainly, certainly, Mr. Cowperwood,' - replied Steper genially. 'That's all right. Take your time.'
2. Jos, a clumsy and timid horse-man, did not look to advantage in the saddle. 'Look at him, Amelia dear. Such a bull in a china shop I never saw.'
3. In the end he parted friends with both Tighe and Rivers. 'That's a smart young fellow,' observed Tighe, ruefully. 'He'll make his mark,' rejoined Rivers.
4. There was no reason why Anna should not make a splendid match. Joe and Ed might also marry since they were not destined to set the world on fire in commerce.
5. And he concluded ... that no man could tell what he would do if he were in the shoes of another man.
6. A simple cold, caught in the room with double windows ... and James was in deep waters.
7. 'Jo,' he said. 'I should like to hear what sort of water you're in. I suppose you're in debt?'
8. He was

not vastly interested in Clare. She had always been to him one of those women who took the bit between their teeth and were bound to fetch up now and again with broken knees. 9. ... the sooner you are gone bag and baggage, the better for all parties. 10. This lady knew all the Forsytes, and having been at June's "at home," was not at a loss to see with whom she had to deal. 11. The sea run high and the boat may be dashed to pieces on the rocks. 12. I guess I'll pop outside and have a word with Miss Bunting. 13. The matter with her is that I played the fool with her, that's all. 14. If you cry I will give Miss Wilson a piece of my mind for worrying you. 15. I know that we cut a very poor figure beside you.

Exercise 2: Translate and analyse the following phraseological units with 'eye' from the point of view of their classification into fusions, unities, collocations, idioms, phrasemes, etc.:

Fn eye for an eye—to be constantly in the public eye—to close one's eyes to smth—to cry one's eyes out—to do (someone) in the eye—to give one's eyes—to have a good eye for a bargain—to have eyes at the back of one's head—to keep one's eyes open / clean / skinned / peeled—to make smb open one's eyes—to pipe the eye, to put the finger in the eye—all my eye! - up to the eye in smth—painted (up) to the eyes—eyes right!—Four eyes see more than two.—it was a sight for sore eyes—to make eyes at—the eye of heaven—have an eye for—see with half an eye—eye candy—to turn a blind eye to smth.

Exercise 3: Complete the following phrases so that they make English proverbs Explain the meaning of the given part.

1. A bird in the hand.
2. The last straw.
3. Eat one's cake and have it.
4. Old bird.
5. The early bird.
6. Half the battle.
7. A silver lining.
8. Fine feathers.
9. A new broom.
10. A bee in one's bonnet.
11. Spilt milk.
12. A grey mare.

Exercise 4: Give as many phraseological units as possible, using any of the following words:
to beat, to catch, to mind, bone, love, mouth, dead, ready

Exercise 5: Explain the change in the original meaning of the verb and the influence of the post-verbal element:

Back out of—desert, fail to keep a promise; back up—support; bear up under—endure; bear on—have to do with; care for—like, guard, supervise, maintain; break into—interrupt; cut in on—interrupt; do without—deprive oneself of; go in for—be interested in; participate in; get away with—do without being caught or punished; get around—evade, avoid; get ahead of—surpass, beat; come out with—utter, produce; come across—find accidentally.

Exercise 6: Find out the meanings of the following phrasal verbs and give them in sentences of your own:

Fall out with; fall behind in; drop out of; get by with; hold out against; get through with; keep up with; take after; make up for.

Exercise 7: Complete each proverb (A-L) with one of the endings (1-12), and copy them into your notebook.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| A. Make hay | 1. before they are hatched. |
| B. A cat in gloves | 2. in the mouth. |
| C. Too many cooks | 3. is past recalling. |
| D. Don't make a mountain | 4. catches no mice. |
| E. To be born with | 5. out of a molehill. |
| F. There is no use | 6. makes a bad ending. |
| G. Don't count one's chickens | 7. spoil the broth. |
| H. What is done | 8. while the sun shines. |
| I. Actions speak | 9. a silver spoon in one's mouth. |
| J. Don't look a gift horse | 10. crying over spilt milk |
| K. A bad beginning | 11. cannot be undone. |
| L. A word spoken | 12. louder than words. |

SEMINAR 9

Etymological survey of the English language

- *Etymological overview of the English word-stock*
- *Concept of native and loan (borrowed) words, phraseological units and affixes*
- *Specific characteristics of the native and borrowed language elements*

Assimilation of borrowed words and its types

- *Etymological doublets*
- *International words and 'false friends' of translator*

Literature

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2. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских отделений педагогических институтов, М.: Л., Просвещение, 1966.-(p. 181-208)
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5. Муминов О. Lexicology of the English language, Т., 2006. - (p. 116-130)

Exercise 1: Translate the following into Russian. State from what languages the following expressions and shortenings are borrowed.

Coup d'état, kindergarten, tête-à-tête, Blitzkrieg, enfant terrible, persona grata, beau monde, leit-motiv, bon mot, prima donna, Ottawa, rima, Hun, nazi, etc., e. g., a. m., p. m.

Exercise 2: Group the following words according to their origin.

Cafan, oregetta, machine, vanilla, waltz, skipper, algebra, telephone, dollar, wigwag, мазутка, ragoda, kangaroo, taboo, gorilla, tobacco, chauffeur, beauty, umbrella, squaw, nup, sputnik, cosmодrome.

Exercise 3: Compare the meaning of the following Russian and English words. Use them in sentences of your own.

Характер - character, реализовать - realize, агитатор - agitator, кондуктор - conductor, магазин - magazine, спекулировать - speculate, инцидент - incident, объект - object, принципиальный - principal

Exercise 4: Explain the etymology of the following words. Write them out in three columns: a) fully assimilated words; b) partially assimilated words; c) massimilated words. Explain the reasons for your choice in each case.

Ballet, beet, butter, skin, take, cup, police, monk, garage, phenomenon, wine, large, lesson, criterion, nice, coup d'état, river, loose, skit.

Exercise 5: Why the following words can be called "translator's 'false friends'"?

Prospect, conductor, condition, intelligent, accurate, academic, abstract, tyrography,

Exercise 6: Using a dictionary compare the meaning of the following pairs of words and explain why they are called 'etymological doublets'. Analyze the semantic changes in the following words, and the phonetic features that betray their origin.

Abridge - abbreviate, artist - artiste, captain-chiefain, card - chat, cavalry - chivalry, catch - chase, corps - corpse, egg - edge, gage - wage, hotel - hospital, hale - whole, liquor - liqueur, of - off,

pauper — poor, raise — rear, senior — sir, scar — share, skirt — shirt, shade — shadow, whit — wight, kirk — church, nay — no, skin — hide, sky — heaven, warden — guardian, chair — cathedral, camera — chamber

Exercise 7: Find the three versions of each word in the different language origins and put them in the right column in the box:

Massacre, pay, intrepid, beautiful, lethal, fatal, chest, box, romance, earnings, treasure, money, wealth, courageous, mortal, attractive, summit, commisserie, funds, currency, execute, amorous, apex, love, tip, bold, expert, case, coffer, wise man, receptacle, kill, slay, deadly, salary, lovely.

Native (English)	French (but may have Latin origin)	Latin related to Greek
deadly	fatal	lethal

Exercise 8: Word History: Look up the following words in a dictionary which gives word origins. Trace the history of each word as completely as possible.

Example: sherbet - Turkish < Persian < Arabic (< = 'from')

1. sugar
2. chocolate
3. robot
4. hurricane
5. bizarre
6. horde

Exercise 9: Work on Greek and Latin roots. For each underlined root below, decide whether it originally comes from Greek or from Latin. Indicate which letter in the root provides the clue.

chrysalis renovate telegraph psychic
 equal homonym visual chaos
 kilometer homonym ferrous helicopter

Exercise 10: Test (Multiple Choice Questions)

1. In its historical development the English language adopted words from almost every known language, especially from _____.
 A) Latin, German and French B) Latin, Greek and French
 C) Latin, Greek and Dutch D) Latin, German and Spanish
2. The English vocabulary has grown from 50,000 to 60,000 words in Old English to the tremendous number of over _____ words today.
 A) 100,000 B) 500,000 C) 1,000,000 D) 5,000,000
3. The vocabulary of Old English contains some fifty or sixty thousand words, which were chiefly _____.
 A) Celtic B) Old Norse C) Anglo-Saxon D) Latin
4. The English language from _____ to the present is called Modern English.
 A) 450 B) 1100 C) 1600 D) 1800
5. Middle English began with the _____ conquest of England in 1066.
 A) Greek B) Norman C) Danish D) Roman
6. The history of English begins with the conquest of what is now England by the Angles, Saxon and the _____.
 A) Scandinavians B) Danes C) Jutes D) Norsemen
7. Most Latin borrowings came into English through _____.
 A) German B) Dutch C) French D) Celtic

Exercise 11: A Word Origin Quiz:

Even the most ordinary words often have extraordinary histories. Take this quiz and find out how much you know about the words we use every day.

1. What is the original literal meaning of halibut?
 - a) "Holy fish" b) "Protruding eyeballs" c) "Facing the sun"
2. The word assassin comes from:
 - a) Asininus, a Roman senator murdered in AD 43
 - b) An Arabic word for hashish users
 - c) Europe's historically tumultuous Alsace region
3. The word buckaroo comes from:
 - a) The Spanish word for cowboy
 - b) Billy Buck, an early rodeo star
 - c) A slang term for a payment to a farm laborer
4. The word cliché comes from:
 - a) A character satirized in Punch magazine
 - b) An Urdu word meaning parable
 - c) The sound made by a printing plate
5. What is the original meaning of guerilla?
 - a) "Freedom fighter" b) "Little war" c) "Gorilla"
6. Which creature's name means "river horse"?
 - a) The sturgeon b) The donkey c) The hippopotamus
7. What does orangutan mean?
 - a) "Orange ape" b) "Man of the jungle" c) "Grare ape"
8. The word parasite was originally closest in meaning to:
 - a) "Dinner guest" b) "Teetotaler" c) "Vampire"
9. The word sarcasm comes from:
 - a) A Greek word meaning "to tear flesh"
 - b) A Sanskrit word meaning "opposite"
 - c) A Latin word meaning "to open a gap"
10. The word paparazzi derives from:
 - a) A type of camera
 - b) The name of an Italian tabloid
 - c) A character in a film

SEMINAR 10

Variants and dialects of Modern English

- *History of English dissemination*
- *Characteristics of the Standard English and its variants*
- *Distinctive features of American and other variants of English*
- *Dialects and their role in the language development*
- *Role of English as a global language*

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Exercise 1: Answer the following questions:

1. In which countries is English the national and official language?
2. What is the difference between a territorial variant and a local dialect of a language?
3. Why can't we call American English a separate language?
4. What are the reasons for the existing divergences in the vocabulary of British and American Englishes?
5. What tendency do lexical differences between British and American English show?
6. What dialects and regional variants are observed on the British Isles? What is their nature? What tendencies do they show?

Exercise 2: Translate the following words into English, giving two variants – British and American:

каникулы, бензин, детская коляска, плащ, консервная банка, студент 2 курса, почтальон, шапки, очередь, бумажник, справочное бюро.

Exercise 3: Point out words: 1) the meaning of which in American English is entirely different from that in British English, 2) the general meaning of which is the same in both American and British English, but which have acquired an additional specific meaning in American English.

apartment, tardy, guess, homely, mad, sick, billion, corn, dessert, commute, lunch, cane

Exercise 4: Give the British spelling of the following words: humor, apologize, center, pretense, inflexion, jewelry, quarreled, woolen, harbor, pajamas, gipsy, program

Exercise 5: Analyse the structure of the following American words, and decide what are the most productive word building means in American English.

rattlesnake, movies, backwoods, to park, sweet-potato, dorm, egg-plant, ok, cat-bird, ad, blue-grass, to interview, talkies, sun-fish, to advocate, perm, bull-frog, gym, to jail, auto, copperhead,

Exercise 6: Many words were borrowed by the first American settlers from other languages. Analyse the origin of the following words and find out what languages they were borrowed from. Comment on the nature of the language contacts.

cookie, hickory, ranch, squash, nosh, banjo, canoe, coyote, mus-tang, chowder, mazel tof, wigwam, war-path, tobacco, canyon, prairie, Ohio, caboose, buffalo, gopher, jazz, rodeo, kirsch, cafeteria, Yankee, Kentucky, Louisiana, raccoon, bagel,

Exercise 7: Analyse the meaning of the following words in BrE and AmE and point out words:

- a) which have other word-equivalents in British English; explain their meanings;
- b) the meaning of which in American English is entirely different from that in British English;
- c) the general meaning of which is the same in both American and British English, but which have acquired an additional specific meaning in American English:

alumnus, apartment, attorney, baby, buggy, bill, candy, checkers, closet, corn, drug-store, fall, faucet, first floor, garbage, gas (gasoline), lift, mail (v.), mailbox, math, movie, the movies, pants, truck, vest

Exercise 11: The following passage, liberally sprinkled with bits of Cockney rhyming slang, may be hard to interpret. Try to work out what the whole phrase must be as well as the meaning.

I got up this morning, brushed my 'Amsteds and my Barnet, kissed the dustbin lids and put on my tit for to go for a ball up the fog. I didn't have much bees, but I still put an Oxford on a Charing Cross that came in at 20 to 1. I could hardly Adam my Donald! So I

went to the rub-a-dub and had a pig's with some chinas. Only one, though, because I didn't want to be elephant's when I got home to the trouble.

Scheme of the lexicological analysis of the text

1. Explain the choice of the vocabulary in connection with the contents and the type of the text (narration, description, commentary, dialogue, monologue, mixed form; literary, poetic, bookish, colloquial, jargon, etc.).
2. Comment on the morphemic structure of the longest words in the text. Find free, bound, root, non-root, derivational, inflectional and other types of morphemes. Comment on the derivational structure of the words of the text. Find simple, derived, compound, compound-derived stems.
3. Analyse the words according to their word-formational (derivational) patterns. Find derived words, converted pairs, compound words, shortenings. In affixal words find productive and non-productive affixes, native, borrowed, living and dead and other types of affixes. Find words formed by minor types of word-formation, such as blending, back-formation, sound and stress interchange, etc. Find words belonging to the word-clusters or word families.
4. Find polysemantic words and explain in which of their meanings they are used in the text. Analyse the nature, causes and results of the semantic change with the help of componential analysis.
5. Find synonyms in the text and indicate the difference between them. Analyse them according to the existing classifications (ideographic and stylistic synonyms; contextual synonyms, etc.).

6. Find antonyms, state this type (contraries, contradictories, root and derivational antonyms).
7. Find homonyms in the text, give their classification (homophones, homographs, grammatical and lexico-grammatical homonyms, etc.).

8. Find unusual words, neologisms, archaisms, nonce-words, euphemisms, international words, etc. State their function in the text.
9. Find phraseological units in the text, give their classification and define their functions. Look for proverbs and sayings or their clippings in the text
10. Give etymological analysis of words (borrowed, native). Find out the language they came from (origin and source), degree of assimilation of the borrowed words (fully or partially assimilated words, barbarisms).
11. Explain why you enjoyed or didn't enjoy the language of the text.

TOPICS FOR SELF-STUDY AND COURSE PAPERS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

1. The role and place of Lexicology in the study of the language.
2. Semasiology as a branch of Linguistics and Lexicology.
3. Ways of semantic change of the word meaning.
4. Metaphor and metonymy as a source of semantic changes.
5. Types of meaning in the semantic structure of the word.
6. Polysemy and homonymy as universal language phenomena.

7. Semantic classes of words in Modern English.
8. Lexico-semantic characteristics of homonyms.
9. Lexico-semantic characteristics of synonyms and their classification.
10. Lexico-semantic characteristics of antonyms and their classification.
11. Word-formation as the branch of Lexicology.
12. The morphological structure of the word and the peculiarities of English stems.
13. Affixation as a productive type of word-formation.
14. Productive and non-productive affixes in the formation of verbs (nouns, adjectives).
15. Prefixation as a productive means in word building.
16. Conversion as a productive type of word-formation.
17. Suffixation as a productive type of word formation.
18. Compound words and their classes in Modern English.
19. Shortening of words as a means of word-formation.
20. Sound- and stress-interchange as archaic types of word formation.
21. Backformation in Modern English.
22. Blending in the advertisement language.
23. Phraseological units in Modern English and their classification.
24. Obsolete and archaic words in English.
25. Neologisms and ways of their formation in English.
26. Productive ways of nomination in English.
27. Stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary.
28. Etymology as a branch of Lexicology.
29. Main causes and sources of borrowing in the English language.
30. Mechanisms of assimilation of borrowed words in English/Russian/Uzbek.
31. Problems of Lexicography as a science.

32. The peculiarities of the English language in the USA/other English speaking countries.
33. English in English-speaking countries.
34. Cognitive aspects of semantics in synonyms.
35. Semantic fields and their role in language development.
36. Slang as a specific language layer.
37. Kinship terms in English and Russian/Uzbek.
38. Ways of expressing "goodness/badness" in English
39. The concept of 'joy' as expressed in phraseological units
40. The peculiarities of the English language in the USA
41. Semantic derivation as a means of word formation
42. Phraseology and problems of translation of idioms
43. Emotionally coloured and neutral vocabulary
44. English as a global language
45. The concept of 'beauty' in phraseological units
46. The semantic field of 'fauna' in English vocabulary
47. Affixal nouns in English and Uzbek/Russian
48. Computer language and phraseology
49. Interrelation of Cognitive Linguistics and Lexicology
50. Modern approaches to the sУрунов Улутбек <url>http://78@yandex.ru> study of word meaning

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GLOSSARY OF BASIC LEXICOLOGICAL NOTIONS AND TERMS

I. General overview of Lexicology as a science.

Lexicology is a branch of Linguistics which studies the vocabulary of the language. The term Lexicology is composed of two Greek morphemes: 'lexis' meaning 'word, phrase' and 'logos' which denotes 'learning, science'. Thus, the literal meaning of the term Lexicology is 'the science of the word'. Lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes (derivational affixes) and word-groups or phrases.

The word is the basic unit of language system used for the purpose of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity. The word is the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis. The word as well as any linguistic sign is a two-facet unit possessing both form and content or, to be more exact, sound-form and meaning. Neither can exist without the other.

Types of 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 the language.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time.

Historical Lexicology deals with the evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by.

Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology deal with the study of the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages, finding out the correspondences and differences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison.

Morphology is the branch of Lexicology studying the structure of a word, types of morphemes and stems.

Semasiology is the branch of Lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning of lexical units.

Phraseology is the branch of Lexicology specializing in the phraseological subsystem of language and is concerned with all types of set expressions.

Lexicography is the science of dictionary-compiling dealing with the problems of the presentation of the number, forms, meaning, usage and origin of vocabulary units.

Etymology is the science studying the origin of the words, native and borrowed lexical units, ways of the assimilation of borrowed words, external replenishment of the vocabulary.

II. Morphological structure of the word

Morpheme is the smallest two-facet unit (it has sound form and meaning) to be found within the word which is studied on the morphological level of analysis.

All morphemes are subdivided into two large classes: **root (free)** morphemes and **non-root (bound)** morphemes. Bound morphemes are represented by grammatical (inflections) and derivational (affixes) morphemes. Affixes include suffixes, prefixes, infixes and semi-affixes.

Semantic features – root morphemes (have individual lexical meaning) and non-root morphemes (have generalized meaning).

Root-morphemes are the semantic centre of the words and the basic constituent part without which the word is inconceivable.

Non-root morphemes include grammatical morphemes (inflections) and derivational morphemes (affixes).

Inflections carry only grammatical meaning reflecting grammatical categories (tense, number, person, degree, etc.).

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, but not with inflectional ones, unless they are important for word building.

Affixes are classified into **prefixes** and **suffixes**: a prefix precedes the root-morpheme, a suffix follows it. Besides, we also distinguish infixes (a few) and semi-affixes.

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

A bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are, naturally, bound morphemes, for they always make a part of a word, e.g. the suffixes -ness, -ship, -ise (-ize), etc., the prefixes un-, dis-, de-, etc. (e.g. readiness, comradeship, to activate; unnatural, to displease) and can not be used separately.

Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme (a word). 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 procedure generally employed for the purposes of segmenting words into the constituent morphemes is the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. During breaking a word into its constituents at each stage of the procedure we segment the word into immediately broken morphemes, and they are termed as the Immediate Constituents (ICs). We finish the process of segmentation when we arrive at constituents which cannot be further broken, and these indivisible morphemes are referred to as the Ultimate Constituents (UCs).

The nature, type and arrangement of the ICs of the word is known as its derivative structure.

According to the derivative structure all words fall into such classes: **simplexes (simple)**, **non-derived words and complexes (derivatives)**.

Simple words are words which derivationally cannot be segmented into ICs, e.g. **hand**, **come**, **blue**, etc.

Derivatives are words which are made up of two ICs, i.e. binary units, e.g. **friendly+ness**, **un+wisely**, **school+master+ish**, etc. All derivatives are marked by the fixed order of their ICs.

Stem is the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. Structurally the stems may be: a) **simple**, which consist of only one, semantically non-motivated constituent. It is phonetically and graphically identical with the root-morpheme and the word-form that habitually represents the word as a whole; b) **derived**, which are the results of the application of word-formation rules; c) **compound**, which are always binary, but unlike the derived stems both ICs of compound stems are stems themselves. The derivative structure and morphemic composition of each IC may be of different degree of complexity, for example, the compound stem of the noun **match-box** consists of two simple stems, the stem of the noun **letter-writer** — of one simple and one derived stem, and the stem **aircraft-carrier** — of a compound and derived stem.

Paradigm is a system of forms of one word it reveals the differences and relationships between them; in abstraction from concrete words it is treated as a pattern on which every word of one part of speech models its forms, thus serving to distinguish one part of speech from another. Cf. the noun paradigm — boy (), boy (-s), boy (-'s), boy (-s'), as distinct from that of the regular verb — to work (), work (-s), work (-ed), work (-ing), etc.

III. Word formation and its types and patterns

Word formation is the branch of Lexicology which studies the derivative structure of the words and the structural and semantic formulas and patterns after which the new words are created in a language.

Productive ways of forming words are such types of word-formation which are frequently used to create new words.

Those types of word-formation which cannot or seldom produce new words are commonly termed non-productive or unproductive.

Productivity of word-building ways is their ability of making new words (neologisms) which all who speak English find no difficulty in understanding.

Neologism is a word that is formed according to productive word formation pattern or borrowed from another language in recent times and felt as new. Terms 'occasionalism', 'nonce-word' and 'ad hoc word' are used to describe words made for special occasion and not necessarily entering the dictionary

Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. Affixation is subdivided into suffixation and prefixation.

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes.

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

In terms of productivity distinction is usually made between dead and living affixes. **Dead affixes** are described as those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words (as in health, admit, etc). **Living affixes** may be easily singled out from a word, e.g. the noun-forming suffixes **-ness, -dom, -hood, -age, -ance**, as in darkness, freedom, childhood, marriage, assistance, etc. or the adjective-forming suffixes **-en, -ous, -ive, -ful, -y** as in wooden, poisonous, active, hopeful, story, etc.

Compounding or word-composition is one of the productive types of word-formation in Modern English which creates new words by means of joining two derivational bases (stems). Compounds may be subordinative (second element is semantic nucleus) or coordinative (both components semantically relevant). **Reduplicative compounds** are based on onomatopoeic repetition: hush-hush, blah-blah.

Conversion is a highly productive way of word-formation by means of transferring one part of speech to another by changing its paradigm, but without altering its initial form (neither phonetic nor graphical changes within the paradigm), e.g. cf. my work—I work; (the) dog's bark—he dogs his girlfriend, etc.

Shortening is the process of word-formation by means of dropping some part of the words. It includes abbreviation and clipping.

(Letter) abbreviation is the process of replacement of longer phrases (names of well-known organisations, agencies and institutions, political parties, famous people, official offices) to the initial letters the whole group stands for. They are normally pronounced letter by letter, e.g. JFK = John Fitzgerald Kennedy; CBW = chemical and biological warfare, DOD = Department of Defence (of the USA), SST = supersonic transport, etc.

Acronyms are the vocabulary units spoken as words and made by means of abbreviation, e.g. NATO ['neitəʊ] = North Atlantic Treaty Organisation; laser ['leɪzə] = light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation; radar ['reɪdə] = radio detection and ranging; Interpol = international police.

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

Clippings are traditionally classified according to the part of the word that is clipped:

1) **Apocope** – when words have been shortened at the end, e.g. ad (from advertisement), lab (from laboratory), mike (from microphone), etc.

2) **Aphaeresis** – when words have been shortened at the beginning, e.g. car (from motor-car), phone (from telephone), copter (from helicopter), etc.

3) **Syncope** – when some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle, e.g. maths (from mathematics), pants (from pantaloons), specs (from spectacles), etc.

4) **Combined clipping** also occur – words that have been clipped both at the beginning and at the end, e.g. flu (from 'influenza'), tec (from 'detective'), fridge (from 'refrigerator').

Blending is the process of creating words by means of merging irregular fragments of several words together, e.g. medicare (from 'medical care'), politician (from 'pollute' and 'politician'), brunch (from 'breakfast' and 'lunch'), smog (from 'smoke' and 'fog'), etc.

Blending (or fusion, or portmanteau) is a specific type of shortenings, which implies "packing" of two meanings into one word. The process is also called telescoping because the words slide into one another like sections of a telescope.

Sound-interchange is a non-productive type of word formation when two words usually connected semantically and etymologically have different sounds (vowels or consonants or both) in their phonetic structure, like speak-speech, blood-bleed, food-feed, etc.

Stress-interchange is one of the ways of word-building, based on a shift of stress, e.g. 'object - to ob'ject; 'present - to pre'sent, etc.

Lexicalisation is the process of the vocabulary replenishment when the plural form of nouns (grammatical inflection) loses its grammatical meaning and becomes isolated from the paradigm, as e.g. arm+s = arms = 'weapons', custom+s = customs = 'institution controlling import duties'.

Adjectivisation is the process of the vocabulary replenishment by means of the process of transition of nouns and participles into adjectives.

Substantivisation (or lexical ellipsis) consists in dropping of the final nominal member of a frequently used attributive word-group, the remaining adjective takes on the meaning and all the syntactic functions of the noun and thus develops into a new word changing its class membership and becoming homonymous to the existing adjective: e.g. 'documentary (adj.)' - 'a documentary film' - 'a documentary (n.)'; 'final (adj.)' - 'a final examination' - 'a final (n.)'. Substantivisation is often accompanied by productive suffixation: e.g., 'one-wing (adj.)' - 'a one-wing plane' - 'a one-winger'; 'two-deck (adj.)' - 'two-deck bus or ship' - 'a two-decker'. Substantivisation may be accompanied by clipping and productive suffixation: e.g. flickers (coll.) from 'flicking pictures', 'a smoker' from 'smoking carriage', etc. Also, some adjectives can be substantivised, e.g. the poor, the black, a patient.

IV Semasiology and its basic notions.

Semasiology is a branch of Lexicology which studies the meaning and the semantic structure of lexical units, primarily of the word.

Seme is an elementary semantic feature, a minimal unit of meaning recoverable through componential analysis of the semantic structure of the word.

Sememe is a set of semes recognizable in the semantic structure of the given word.

Two main types of word meaning are the **grammatical and the lexical meanings** can be distinguished in words and word-forms.

The **grammatical meaning** is the formal meaning of the word and may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (asked, thought, walked, etc.) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (girl's, boy's, night's, etc.).

The **lexical meaning** of the word may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word and reflecting features and characteristics of objects and phenomena.

The **lexical meaning** is a complex phenomenon and may be analysed as including **denotational and connotational components**.

The **denotational meaning** is the component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible because the knowledge people have about things is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language.

The **connotational meaning** reflects the stylistic reference and the emotive and/or evaluative charge proper to the word.

Emotive charge is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as linguistic units and forms part of the connotational component of lexical meaning, cf. large, big, tremendous.

Stylistic reference is the belonging of any word to a particular functional style. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers, but not only.

Pragmatic meaning is a component of connotational meaning bound to the circumstances of the communication and reflecting the choice of the word depending on the conditions and participants of the intercourse.

Changes of lexical meaning occur in the course of the historical development of language.

Semantic structure is the arranged set of all the meanings of a word, represented by lexico-semantic variants.

There are two kinds of association involved in semantic changes, namely: a) **similarity of meanings**, and b) **contiguity of meanings**. **Similarity of meanings** or **metaphor** may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other, e.g. hand of a clock, warm voice, soft look.

Contiguity of meanings or **metonymy** may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it, e.g. hand of a master (пабочный), the audience (spectators, students, etc.), to eat the late of a soup.

Restriction of meaning is the process of change of meaning when a word which before represented broader meaning, now has more restricted one, e.g. hound (OE. hund) which used to denote 'a dog of any breed' now denotes only 'a dog used in the chase'; fowl (OE. fuzol, fuzel) which in old English denoted 'any bird', in Modern English denotes 'a domestic hen or cock'.

Specialisation of meaning is the process of change of meaning when the word with the new meaning comes to be used in the specialised vocabulary of some limited group. For example, we can observe restriction and specialisation of meaning in the case of the verb to glide (OE. glidan) which had the meaning 'to move gently and smoothly' and has now acquired a restricted and specialised meaning 'to fly with no engine' (cf. a glider).

Extension of meaning is the process of change of meaning when the word is applied to a wider variety of referents, e.g. 'target' which originally meant 'a small round shield' (a diminutive of targe, cf. ON. targa) but now means 'anything that is fired at' and also figuratively 'any result aimed at'.

Generalisation of meaning is the process of change of meaning when the word with the extended meaning passes from the specialised vocabulary into common use, e.g. 'camp' originally was used only as a military term and meant 'the place where troops are lodged in tents' (cf. L. campus — 'exercising ground for the army') extended and generalised its meaning and now denotes 'temporary quarters' (of travellers, nomads, etc.).

Pejorative development of the meaning is the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge, e.g. 'boor' originally denoted 'a villager, a peasant' and then acquired a derogatory, contemptuous meaning 'a clumsy or ill-bred fellow'.

Ameliorative development of the meaning is the improvement of the connotational component of meaning, e.g. 'minister' originally denoted 'a servant, an attendant', but now — 'a civil servant of higher rank, a person administering a department of state'.

Polysemy is the linguistic phenomenon when a word has more than one meaning, resulting in semantic structure consisting of a number of lexico-semantic variants.

Lexico-semantic variant of the word is every meaning of a polysemantic word with reference to what it denotes in the extralinguistic world (referential meaning) and with respect to the other meanings with which it is contrasted in the semantic structure (differential meaning).

Homonyms are words identical in sound-form or spelling but different in meaning.

Cases of full **homonymy** are generally observed in words belonging to the same part of speech, where we observe the coincidences in their paradigms, e.g. 'a seal1 (n.)' and 'a seal2 (n.)'.

Partial homonymy is usually to be found in word-forms of different parts of speech, e.g. 'a seall (n.)' and 'to seal (v.)'

Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different both in their sound-form and meaning, e.g. bow (n) [bou] — 'a piece of wood curved by a string and used for shooting arrows' and bow (n) [bau] — 'the bending of the head or body'; tear (n) [tia] — 'a drop of water that comes from the eye' and tear (v) [tea] — 'to pull apart by force'.

Homophones are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and in meaning, e.g. sea (n) and see (v); son (n) and sun (n).

Perfect homonyms are words identical both in spelling and in sound-form but different in meaning, e.g. case1 (n) — 'something that has happened' and case2 (n) — 'a box, a container'.

Hyponymy is a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, e.g. vehicle includes car, bus, taxi and so on; oak implies tree; horse entails animal; table entails furniture. The more general term is called the **hyperonym** or the classifier, the more specific term is called the **hyponym** of the more general term.

Synonymy is the semantic phenomenon of closeness in the meanings and the same part-of-speech reference of two or more lexical units.

Synonyms are words different in sound-form but similar in their denotational meaning or meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts. Synonyms are classified as **stylistic, contextual, occasional, etc.**

Synonymic dominant is the most frequently used neutral word within a synonymic group (as look in the row look, watch, gaze, stare, glance).

Antonyms are two words belonging to the same part of speech and their denotational meanings express contrary or contradictory notions (opposite meanings).

Contradictories are antonyms that represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like 'dead' and 'alive', 'single' and 'married', 'perfect' and 'imperfect', etc. We can easily distinguish this group of antonyms from the other groups by means of using 'not' before one of the member of the pair to make them semantically equivalent to each other, e.g. cf. not dead = alive, not single = married.

Contraries are antonyms which admit such possibilities. This may be observed in 'cold — hot', because we have 'cool' and 'warm' as intermediate members.

Obsolete words are words which drop out of the language due to disappearance of the objects of phenomena they denote, e.g. 'yeoman' — 'a man holding and cultivating a small landed estate; a freeholder'.

Archaisms are words felt as out-dated and replaced by newer forms and lexemes.

Antroponyms - proper names of people: Ann, Mary, John Smith, the Browns.

Toponymes - proper names of places, e.g. countries, cities, rivers, seas, etc: England, New York, the Volga, the Atlantic ocean, the Elbrus.

V. Set expressions, phraseological units and their classification

Set expressions, et-phrases, word-equivalents and phraseological units are functionally and semantically inseparable word groups, e.g. at least, point of view, by means of, to take place.

Lexical motivation is the relationship within the components of a word-group when the meaning of the whole group can be easily deduced from the meanings of its components.

Idiomatlicity is the lack of motivation within the components of word-groups when the meaning of the whole cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components.

Motivation is an interrelationship between the form (or structure) of the lexical unit and its meaning. According to the degree of motivation, we distinguish:

Fully motivated word-groups — word-groups where the combined lexical meaning is deducible from the meaning of their components, e.g. red flower, heavy weight, take lessons.

Partially motivated word-groups — where the meaning of at least one component helps to distinguish the meaning of the whole, e.g. to shrug one's shoulders, to fall in love.

Non-motivated word-groups — where the meaning of the whole cannot be guessed (drawn) from the meanings of their components, e.g. red tape — 'official bureaucratic methods', heavy father — 'serious or solemn part in a theatrical play', and take place — 'occur'.

A **phraseological unit** is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning and structural and functional inseparability. They can not be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units, characterized by stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation.

Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated phraseological units, such as red tape — 'bureaucratic methods'; heavy father — 'serious or solemn part in a theatrical play'; kick the bucket — 'die'; and the like. The meaning of the components has no connections whatsoever, at least synchronically, with the meaning of the whole group.

Idiom is a set expression which is fully non-motivated as its meaning can not be deduced from the meanings of the words which are its structural components.

Idiomatlicity, or lack of motivation, is complete or partial inconsistency with the form or structure of a lexical unit and its meaning.

Phraseological unities are partially non-motivated as their meaning can usually be perceived through the metaphorical meaning of the whole phraseological unit. For example, to show one's teeth, to wash one's dirty linen in public.

Phraseological collocations are motivated word-groups with a certain degree of stability possessing a certain degree of semantic inseparability. In phraseological collocations variability of member-words is strictly limited. For instance, 'bear a grudge' may be changed into 'bear malice', but not into 'bear a fancy' or 'liking'. We can say 'take a liking' (fancy) but not 'take hatred' (disgust).

VI Etymology and its notions and terms

Native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock (Anglo-Saxon) as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the old English period.

Borrowed word is a word taken from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of English.

Borrowing is the process of adopting words (or word-building affixes) from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself, e.g. -able, -ment, -ity, coup d'état, vis-à-vis.

The English proper element — words that don't have similar representatives in other Indo-European or Germanic languages. E.g. bird, boy, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always.

Assimilation of borrowings is a partial or complete adaptation to the phonetic(al), grammatical, semantic, morphological and graphical systems of the receiving language. The degree of assimilation depends on the importance, frequency and length of use of borrowings.

Translation-loans (or loan-translations) are words and expressions formed after the patterns characteristic of the receiving language, but under the influence of the foreign words and expressions. E. g. mother tongue < L. lingua maternal; it goes without saying < Fr. Cela va sans dire; wall newspaper < Russ. стенгазета.

Semantic borrowing is the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language (pioneer-member of the teenagers' organization in USSR).

Source of borrowing is the language from which this or that particular word was taken into English.

Origin of the word is the language where the borrowed word was born.

Etymological doublets are words originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning (shade-shadow, cask-cask, etc.).

Etymological hybrids are words created from both native and borrowed elements, like 'short-age' — English adjective 'short' and French suffix '-age'.

VII Stylistic differentiation of the English vocabulary and Variants of English

Variants of English are regional varieties having normalized literary vocabulary and used as the language of mass media, education and communication.

Dialects are local varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities, they are set off (more or less sharply) from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

Americanism - a word or a word combination peculiar to the English language spoken in the USA. E.g. cookie, elevator, truck, apartment, etc.

Slang words are those which are often regarded as a violation of the norms of Standard English, e.g. 'governor' for 'father', 'missus' for 'wife', 'a gag' for 'a joke', 'doty' for 'insane'. They are made in different social circles and often enter the general vocabulary making it more colourful and expressive, though sometimes cynical and harsh.

Professionalisms are words used in narrow groups bound by the same occupation, such as lab for 'laboratory', hypo for 'hypodermic syringe', a buster for 'a bomb', etc.

Jargonisms are words marked by their use within a particular social group and bearing a secret and cryptic character, e.g. 'a sucker' — 'a person who is easily deceived'.

Vulgarisms, i.e. coarse words that are not generally used in public, e.g. bloody, hell, damn, shut up, etc.

VIII. Lexicography as a science of dictionary compiling

Dictionary is a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and origin. They are divided into encyclopaedic (thing-books) and linguistic (word-books).

Dictionaries may be **unilingual** (explanatory), **bilingual** (translation) and **multilingual** (comparative).

Dictionaries may be general (describing the whole vocabulary) and special (specialised) describing a subsystem of the vocabulary (pronunciation, idioms, synonyms, proverbs, professional terms, etc.).

Glossary is an alphabetical list of terms or words found in or relating to a specific subject, text, or dialect, with explanations; a brief dictionary

The most important problems in dictionary compiling are as follows: 1) selection of lexical units; 2) their arrangement; 3) setting of the entries; 4) selection and arrangement of word -meanings; 5) definition of meanings; 6) illustrative material, etc.

IX. Some methods of lexicological research

Diachronic approach to the vocabulary study is based on the analysis of the changes a word undergoes from the moment of its appearance throughout its historical development.

Synchronic approach is based on the analysis of lexical units at a given period of time, usually coinciding with the period of the research.

Immediate constituents (IC) method is used to identify two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unity. The ICs of 'bluish' are 'blue-' and '-ish'.

Ultimate constituents method is applied to the analysis of the morphological structure of the word to identify the number and character of the morphemes in its structure. The UCs of the word 'carefully' are 'care', '-ful' and '-ly', while its ICs are 'careful' and '-ly'.

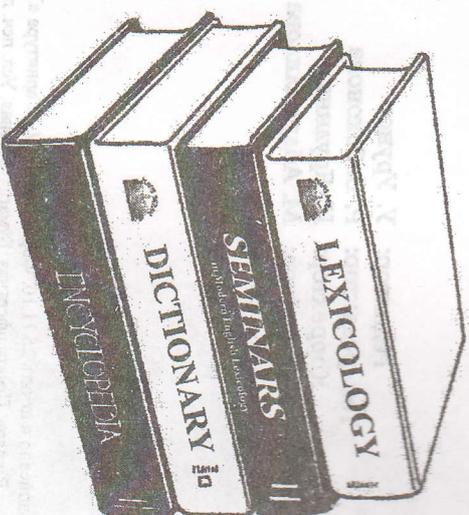
Statistical methods are used to provide quantitative data for justification of the research results to ensure that they are statistically reliable.

Componential analysis is applied to the study of the semantic structure of the word, resulting in distinguishing such semantic components as sememes, senses and their types.

Contextual analysis concentrates on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary to find out in which of its individual meanings the given word is used.

Contrastive (comparative) analysis is used to reveal the similarities and differences in linguistic features of two or more languages.

Transformational analysis is changing of a sentence, phrase or pattern according to a prescribed model and following certain rules in order that to discover differences in usage and meaning.



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