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**LEXICOLOGY IN TABLES
AND
TASKS FOR SELF-CONTROL**

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Метою навчального посібника є ознайомлення студентів з основними поняттями та концепціями лексикології як ключового компонента теорії англійської мови. Посібник розроблено для студентів 2 та 3 курсів ОС «Бакалавр» спеціальності 035 «Філологія» за спеціалізацією 035.01 «Українська мова і література» ОПП «Українська мова і література та західноєвропейська мова», «Літературна творчість, українська мова і література та англійська мова»; за спеціалізацією 035.041 «Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно) - перша англійська» ОПП «Англійська філологія та переклад, дві західноєвропейські мови».

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ВСТУП

Навчальний посібник «Lexicology in Tables and Tasks for Self-control» призначений для студентів 2 та 3 курсів ОС «Бакалавр» ОПІ «Українська мова і література та західноєвропейська мова», «Літературна творчість, українська мова і література та англійська мова», «Англійська філологія та переклад, дві західноєвропейські мови», у яких лекції з лексикології є частиною теоретичного курсу з англійської мови згідно навчального плану.

Лексикологія англійської мови є теоретичною навчальною дисципліною, основна мета якої полягає у всебічному розгляді основних явищ, понять, визначень цієї дисципліни. Через відсутність семінарських або практичних занять на деяких ОПІ, автори вважали за потрібне додати до посібника практичний складник у вигляді вправ для самостійної роботи студентів, що передбачено навчальним планом.

Матеріали навчального посібника спрямовані не лише на надання студентам цілісного уявлення про словниковий склад англійської мови в синхронії та діяхронії, взаємодії з соціальними феноменами, але й ознайомлення студентів із головними методами і напрямками досліджень вокабуляру сучасної англійської мови. Посібник також містить дефініції основних понять лексикології, загальні характеристики та основні принципи класифікації словникового складу сучасної англійської мови. Окрім того, у навчальному посібнику розміщено матеріали у таблицях, які не увійшли до лекційного курсу через брак аудиторного часу.

BASIC THEORETICAL PROVISIONS

1. Lexicology and its Subject-Matter; its Types and Branches

The word lexicology is of the Greek origin. It consists of two morphemes: *lexis* (“word”) + *logos* (“science”, “the department of knowledge”). Thus, **lexicology** is the science of the word.

Definitions of lexicology:

- Lexicology is a branch of linguistics dealing with the study of the word and its form, behavior and functions. ... Lexicologists are interested in the generalizations and regularities characterizing the forms of words and their relations together. (https://fac.umc.edu.dz/fll/images/cours_trad_22/L3/Lexicology.pdf)
- Lexicology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the signification and application of words. (<https://www.merriam-webster.com>)
- Lexicology is the study of the overall structure and history of the vocabulary of a language. (<https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/>)
- Lexicology may be defined as the study of lexis, understood as the stock of words in a given language, i.e. its vocabulary or lexicon. This working definition shows that the notion of ‘word’ is central in the study of lexicology. (J. Howard, Words, meaning, and vocabulary : an introduction to modern English lexicology. 2000)

To summarize these definitions, **lexicology** is a part of linguistics, the study of vocabulary and word features. It studies the various semantic relations that exist in language and how words provide and support meaningful communication.

The **fundamental task of lexicology** is the study and systematic description of the origin, development, and current use of vocabulary.

Lexicology can be regarded from the point of view of its **areas** and **types**.

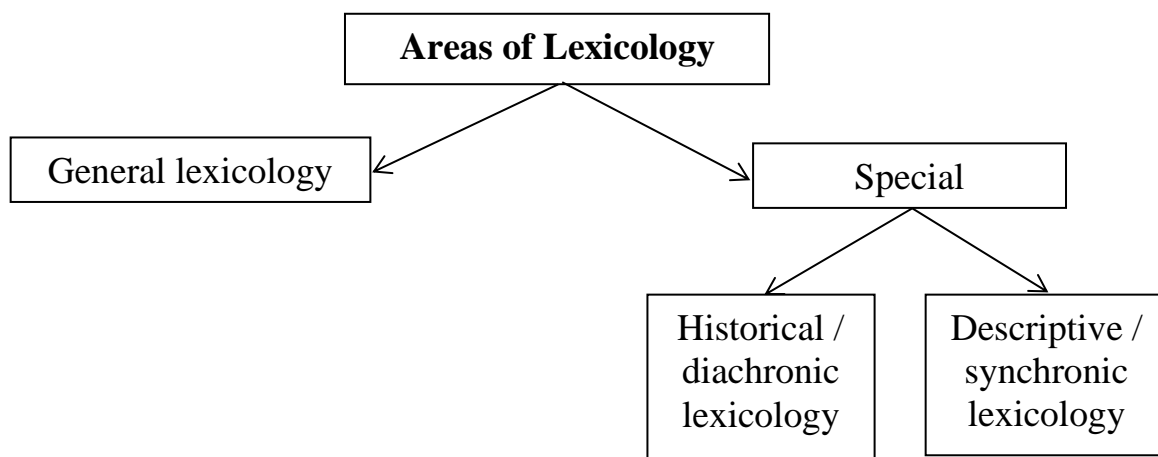
There are different **areas of lexicology**:

General lexicology is part of linguistics and studies the properties of vocabulary in general, regardless of the characteristics of a particular language.

Special lexicology is the lexicology of a specific language.

Historical lexicology studies the historical changes of words during the development of a language. The word *diachronic* is composed of two morphemes: *dia* (through) and *chronos* (time).

Descriptive lexicology is the study of the vocabulary of a particular language at a given stage of its development. The word *synchronic* consists of two morphemes: *syn* (together) and *chronos* (time).

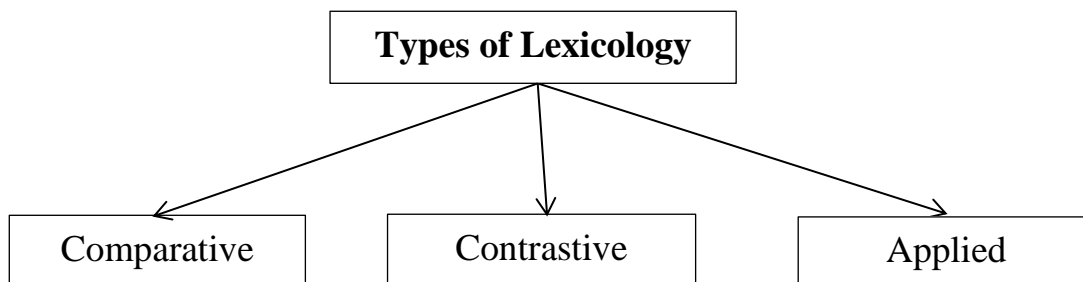


Types of lexicology:

Comparative lexicology studies closely related languages in terms of their similarities and differences.

Contrastive lexicology studies both related and unrelated languages to identify their differences and similarities.

Applied lexicology studies how knowledge of lexicographic issues can be applied to fields such as translation and lexicography.



2. Lexical Units

The basic unit forming the bulk of the vocabulary is the **word**. Other units are **morphemes**, that is parts of words, into which words may be analyzed, and **word combinations** or groups of words into which words may be coupled.

2.1. Words, Lexemes, Word-forms

Words are the key components in the process of communication. They serve a dual purpose: they represent the largest components of morphology while also being the smallest elements of syntax.



Definitions:

- Roughly, a **word** is defined as a free morph or a clitic or a root plus affixes or a compound plus affixes. (Martin Haspelmath, 2023)
- **The word** is a single unit of language that has meaning and can be spoken or written. (<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/>)
- **The word** is a minimal free form, which can occur in isolation and have meaning but which cannot be analysed into elements which can all occur alone and also have meaning. (Prof. Bloomfield, 1968)
- **The word** is the smallest unit of language that has a particular meaning and can be expressed by itself; the smallest discrete, meaningful unit of language. (<https://en.wiktionary.org/>)
- **A word** is a basic element of language that carries meaning, can be used on its own, and is uninterrupted. (<https://en.wikipedia.org/>)

So, generalizing these definitions, we say that **the word** is a speech sound, or series of them, serving to communicate meaning and consisting of at least one

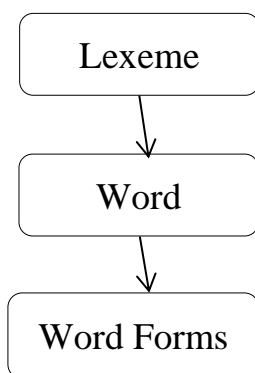
base morpheme with or without prefixes or suffixes; unit of language between the morpheme and the word-group.

A further challenge in the treatment of words lies in the term *word* itself, which can be utilized in various contexts:

1. It can denote the **word form**, representing the tangible unit or concrete manifestation, whether in the written form (orthographical) or the spoken or transcribed version (phonological).

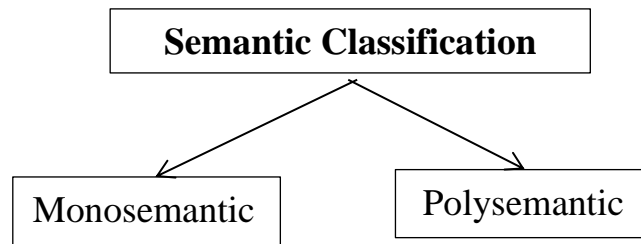
2. It could pertain to the **lexeme**, i.e. to an entry found in a dictionary or a **dictionary word**. A lexeme includes all inflected forms of a word. E.g. *walk* (lexeme) – *walk, walks, walked, walking* (word forms); *find* (lexeme) – *find, finds, found, finding* (word forms); *picture* (lexeme) – *picture, pictures, pictured, picturing, picturesque*; *do* (lexeme) – *do, does, did, doing, done* (word forms).

A **word** is a complete linguistic unit with meaning, while a **lexeme** is the base or root form of a word, excluding any grammatical variations. Lexemes represent the core meaning of words. **Word forms** are simply grammatical derivations of the same lexeme.



2.2. Classifications of Words

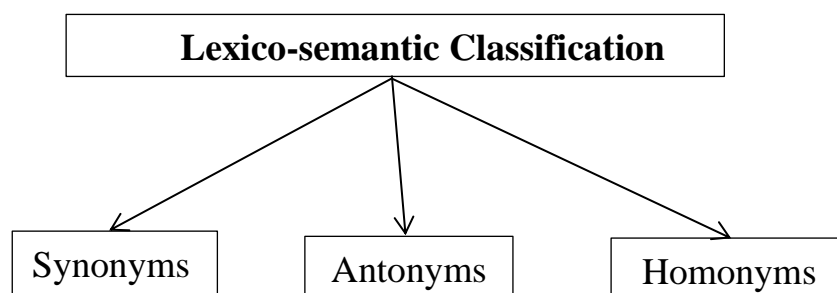
Words can be classified **semantically, lexico-semantically, etymologically, morphologically** and **into parts of speech**.



Monosemantic words are words with one meaning, they are mainly scientific terms (e.g. *hydrogen; molecule; flamingo*). Other examples are *city; novel; emphasis; direction, village*. Monosemantic words are comparatively few in number and the bulk of English words are polysemantic. Monosemantic words can be divided into groups according to their meaning. Some of the groups are:

1. proper names
2. geographical names
3. names of the months and the days of the week
4. numerals
5. scientific and technological terms
6. names of different kind (of streets, hotels, institutions etc)

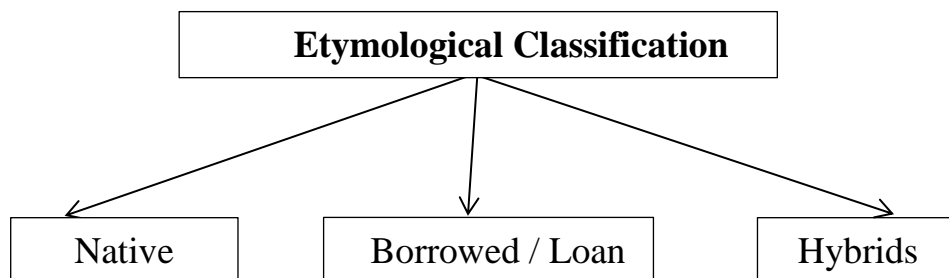
Polysemantic – words with more than one meaning (e.g. *get; bright; face; wood*).



Synonyms are words within the same language and part of speech that share one or more similar meanings, allowing them to be used interchangeably in certain contexts. E.g. *confusing: unclear, puzzling; achieve: attain, accomplish, realize, reach*.

Antonyms are words within the same language that share the same part of speech, match in style, are often used together, but convey opposing or contradictory meanings. E.g. *bitter – sweet; borrow – lend; bravery – cowardice*.

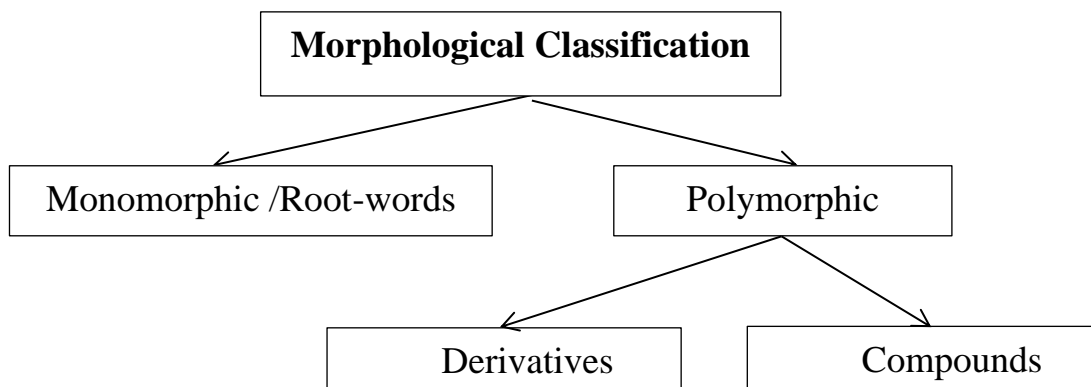
Homonyms are words within the same language that share the same pronunciation and spelling but carry distinct meanings. E.g. *rock – a) a genre of music; b) a stone; current – a) up to date; b) a flow of water*.



A **native** word refers to a lexeme that comes from the original English lexicon, as identified in the earliest surviving manuscripts from the Old English period. E.g. *shall, will, must, can, may, one, two, three, sister, son*.

A **loan** word, also known as a **borrowed** word or **borrowing**, refers to a lexeme adopted from a different language. E.g. *restaurant, zero, empire, (French); iceberg, lobby, rucksack (German); algebra, caliber, candy, carat (Arabic)*.

A **hybrid** is a word which consists of several elements of different origin. E.g. *biathlon – from the Latin ‘bis’ (twice) and the Greek ‘athlon’ (contest); television – from the Greek ‘tēle’ (far) and the Latin ‘visio’ (seeing)*.



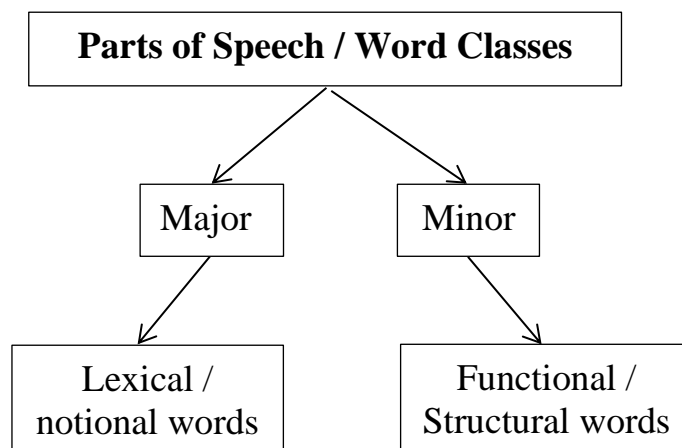
Monomorphic words are simple root words, such as *dry*, *grow*, *boss*, and *sell*.

Polymorphic words, on the other hand, consist of at least one root morpheme combined with one or more derivational affixes. They are subdivided into derivatives (e.g. *grammaticality*) and compound words (e.g. *horseracing*).

Classifying the words into **parts of speech (word classes)**, we first of all divide them into lexical (notional) words and functional (structural) words.

Lexical words form major word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They are the most common types of words that make up the important parts of a sentence. Functional words form minor word classes; they assist the lexical word classes in a sentence. They include auxiliaries, prepositions, particles, articles, conjunctions, and interjections.

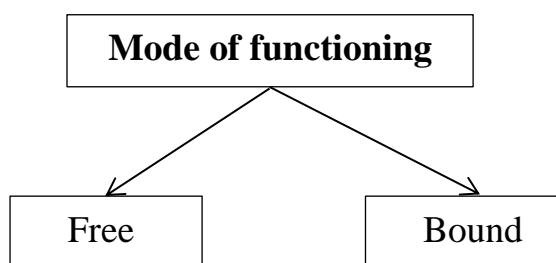
Numerals and pronouns can be regarded as separate classes of lexical words or, on the other hand, as subcategories of those notional words into which they can be analyzed in the broad sense (numeral as a noun *Seven is enough*; adjective *Most boring was the second book*; pronoun *Most interesting was the first one*; adverb *He wrote to her twice*; pronoun as a noun *They invited us to the party*; adjective *These books are hers*).



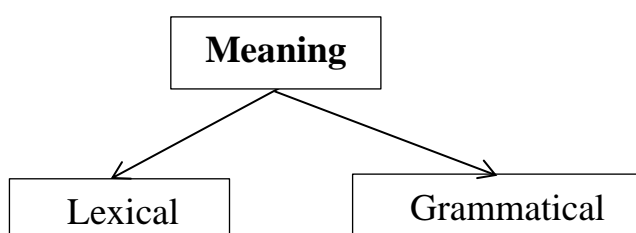
2.3. Morphemes and Their Classifications

The morpheme represents the smallest unit of meaning in language. It cannot be broken down into smaller meaningful components and serves as a fundamental part of words within speech. In speech they are represented by the allomorphs which are different forms of the same morpheme that are used in different contexts or positions, e.g. *please*, *pleasant*, *pleasure*; *books*, *games*, *patches*.

Morphemes can be divided according to **the mode of their functioning** and according to **their meaning**.



Free morphemes are considered to be root words / base words in linguistics. Base words that can stand alone (e.g. *boy*; *table*; *book*), while bound morphemes are not individual words in English.



Lexical and grammatical morphemes can be classified as either free or bound.

Free lexical morphemes serve as the roots of words, conveying their core lexical meaning and often aligning with the stems of simple words. In contrast, **free grammatical morphemes**, such as articles, conjunctions, and prepositions, e.g. *the*, *with*, *and*, function as grammatical markers.

Bound lexical morphemes include affixes like prefixes, e.g. *dis-*, suffixes, e.g. *-ish*, and blocked or unique root morphemes, e.g., *Fri-day*, *cran-berry*. On the other hand, **bound grammatical morphemes** refer to inflections or word endings, such as *-s* for plural nouns, *-ed* for past tense regular verbs, *-ing* for present participles, and *-er* to indicate the comparative form of adjectives.

2.4. Word Combinations

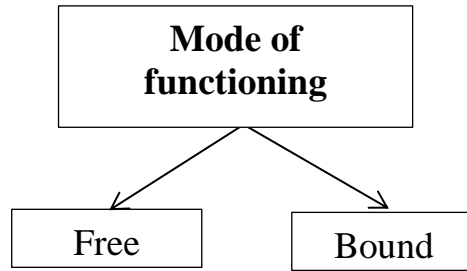
Word combination together with sentence is the main unity of syntax. It has two or more elements which are related syntactically, can take different forms in accordance with the peculiarities of syntactic combinations of its elements and does not have the communicative intention. E.g. *new books*, *a book of poems*, *to laugh heartily*, *red and green*.

3. Roots and Stems

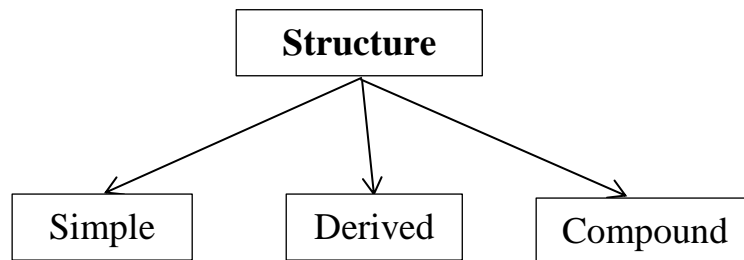
The **root** is the basic part of the word and a common part within a word-family which conveys its fundamental lexical meaning. E.g. *stand* – *withstand*; *book* – *bookish* – *booklet*; etc. The root cannot be changed. E.g, *walk* is a root, and stays the same in all the words of the word cluster: *walking*, *walked*, *walker*, *walkie-talkie*, *sidewalk*, *walk-light*, *walks* etc. You will never have a word related to walking where the *walk*-part gets changed, so it is a root.

The root and affixes make up the **stem** of the word, which carries not only the lexical meaning but the part-of-speech meaning as well. The **stem** is the root plus any derivational affixes. It serves as the form to which inflections are applied. The stem of the word stays consistent across its entire paradigm. E.g. *norm*: *normal*, *normality*, *abnormal*.

Stems can be divided according to **the mode of their functioning** and according to their **structure**.



English, **free stems** can occur in isolation (e.g., *form*; *play*) or with affixes (e.g., *formation*, *deform*), whereas **bound stems** (e.g., *vive*) must occur in combination with at least one affix (e.g., *revive*, *survive*, *vivacious*, and *vivid*).



A stem is considered **simple** if it consists solely of the root. E.g. *boy* – *boys* – *boy's*.

If the stem consists of the root morpheme and an affix or affixes, it is a **derived** stem. E.g. *seemly* – *seemlier* – *the seemliest*.

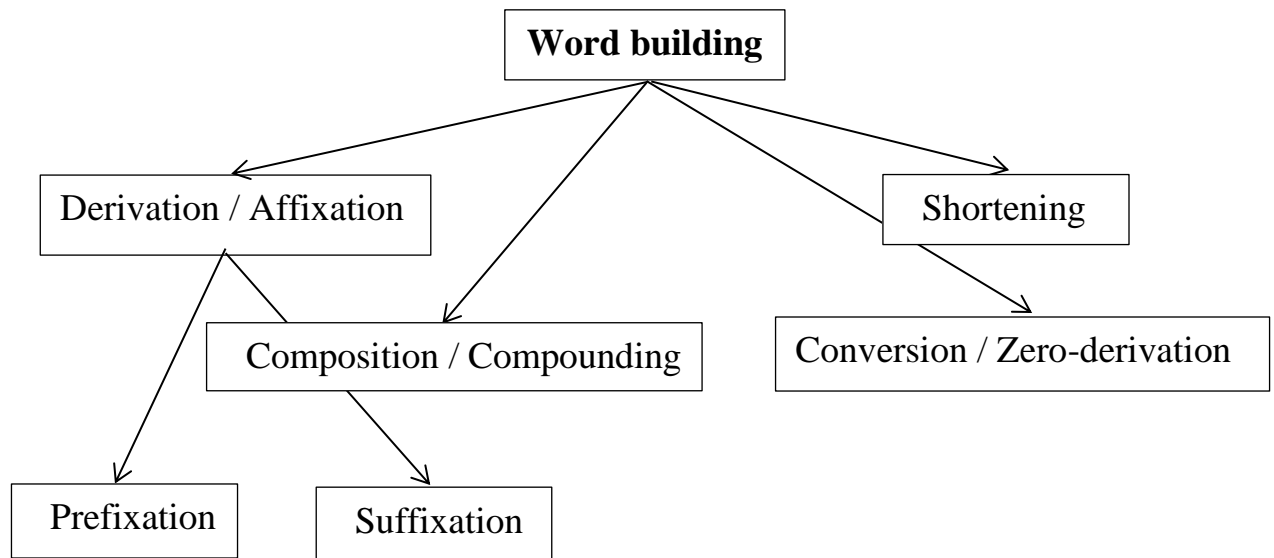
Compound stems consist of two or more individual stems. E.g. *baby-sitter*; *lamp-shade*.

4. Word Building

4.1. Main ways of word building

Word formation, also known as **word building**, is the process of generating new words using the resources already present in a language, following specific structural and semantic rules or patterns.

In modern English, there are four primary methods of word formation: **derivation, composition, conversion, shortening.**

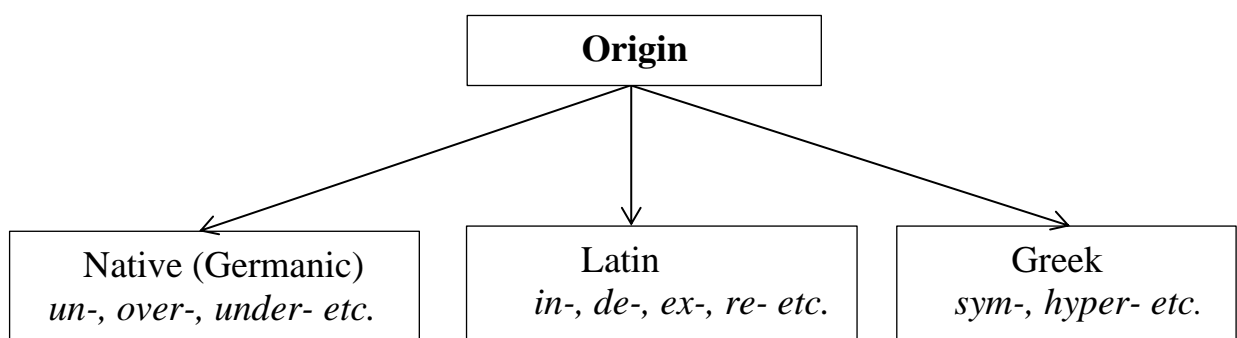


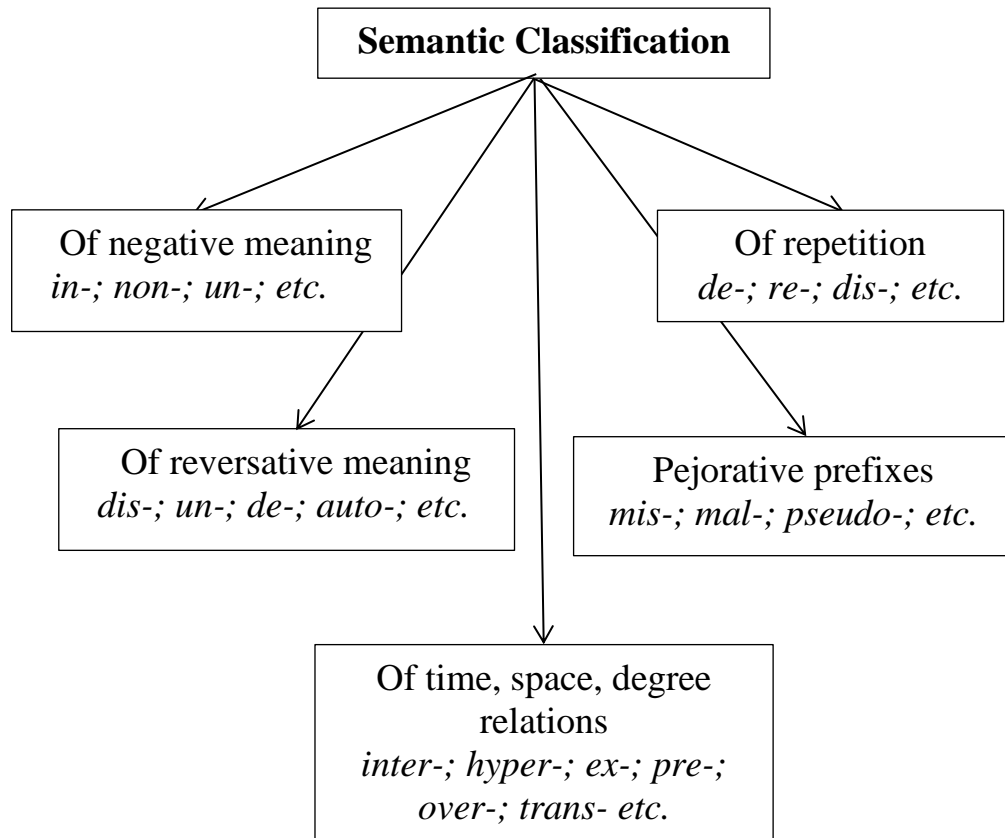
4.1.1. Derivation

Derivation is the process of forming a new word from an existing one. The new, derived word is related to the original word, but it has some new component of meaning to it, and often it belongs to a new class of words. Usually, we build new words by adding a prefix or a suffix, e.g. *un-product-ive*.

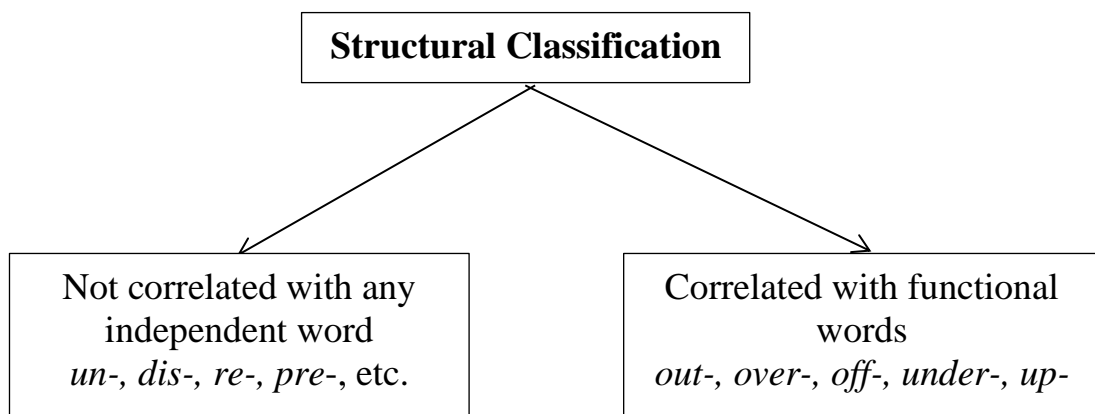
Prefixation refers to the process of forming new words by adding prefixes, such as *un-able* and *inter-change*.

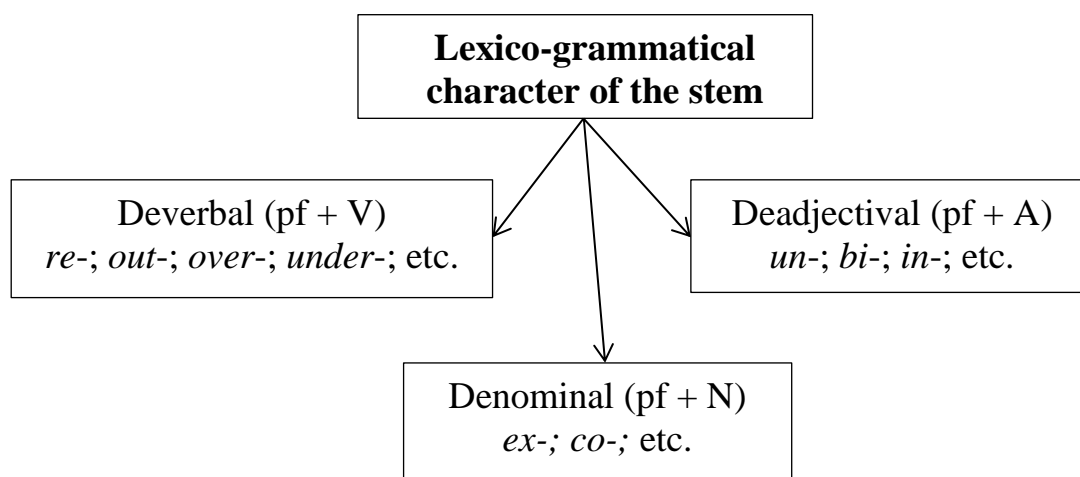
Prefixes can be categorized based on various principles: semantically according to their origin; structurally according to the type of lexico-grammatical character of the base they are added to; part-of-speech formation.



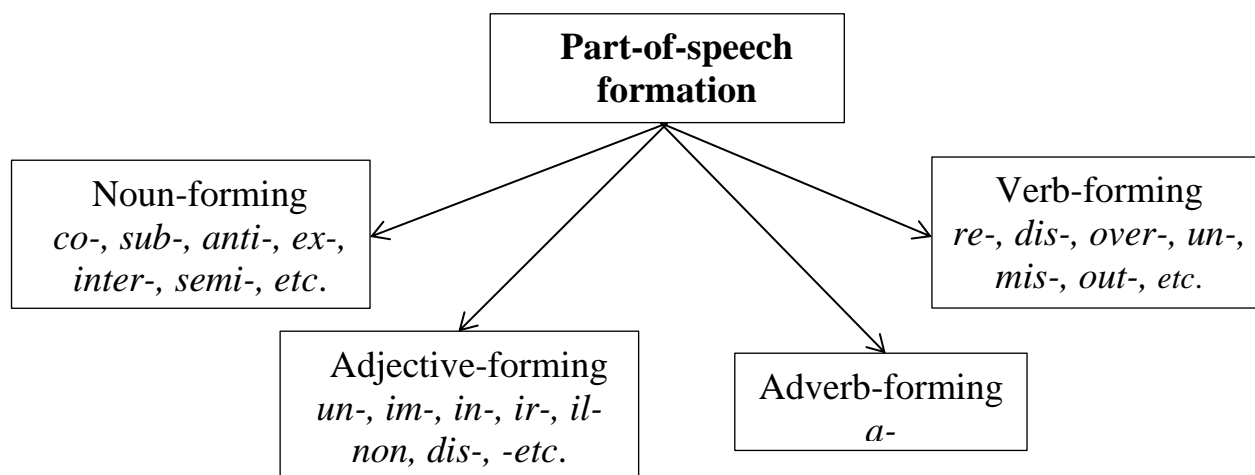


E.g.: *trans-atlantic* (space); *ultra-compact* (degree); *im-possible* (negative); *pre-war* (time); *auto-biography* (reversal); *re-write* (repetition); *mis-inform* (pejoration).





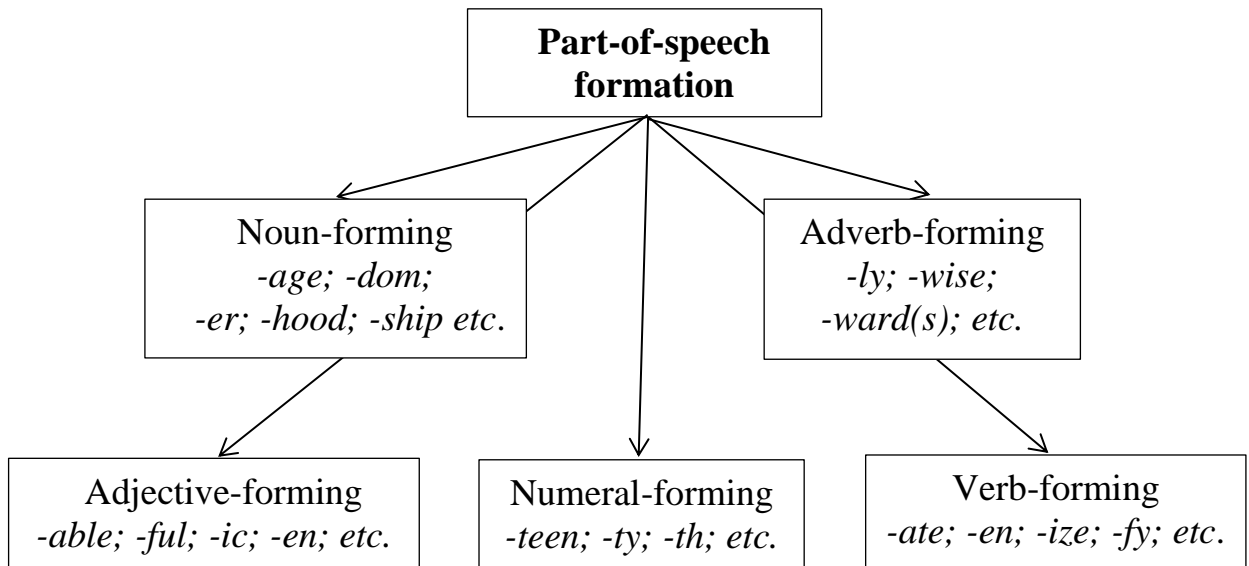
E.g.: *re-write*; *over-do*; *ex-president*; *coexistence*; *bi-lingual*; *in-correct*.



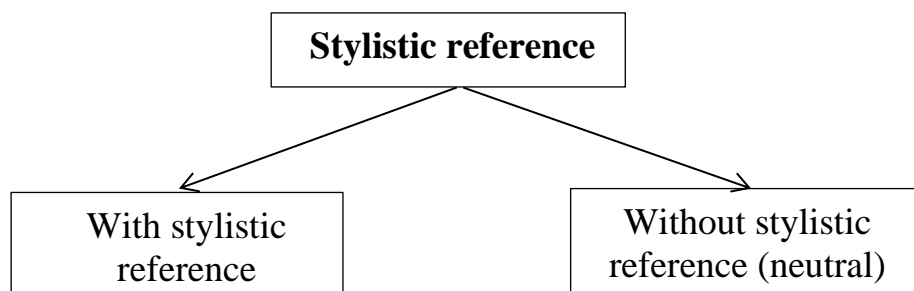
E.g.: *dis-appear*; *inter-act*; *re-structure*; *dis-loyal*; *bi-lingual*; *un-fortunate*; *co-owner*; *subdivision*; *ex-chairman*; *a-loud*; *a-head*; *a-new*.

Suffixation involves creating new words by adding suffixes., e.g. *bitterness*, *fifty*. Suffixes affixes that are placed at the end of a root word (or 'base') to change its meaning or grammatical function. The new word is most often a different word class from the original word. E.g. *beauty* (n) – *beautiful* (adj) – *beautifully* (adv) – *beautify* (v).

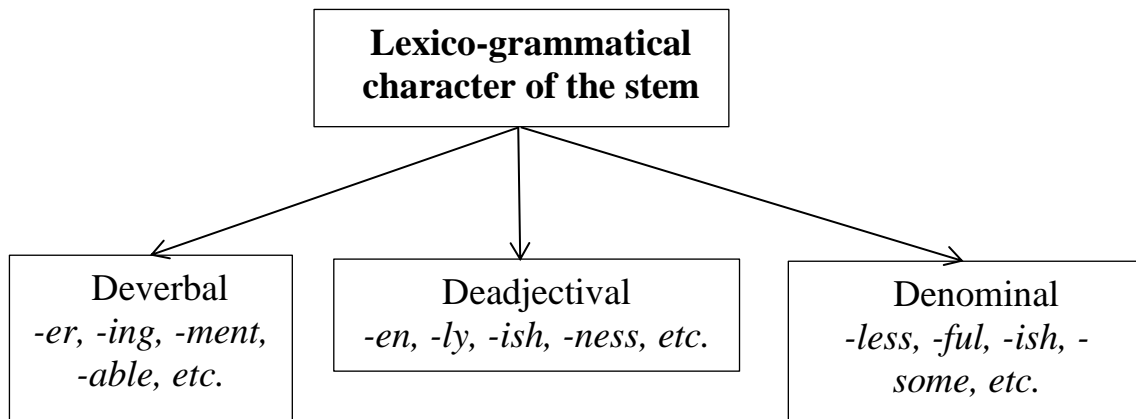
Suffixes can be classed according to different principles: **part-of-speech formation, lexico-grammatical character of the stem the suffix is added to, definite stylistic reference, origin, productivity.**



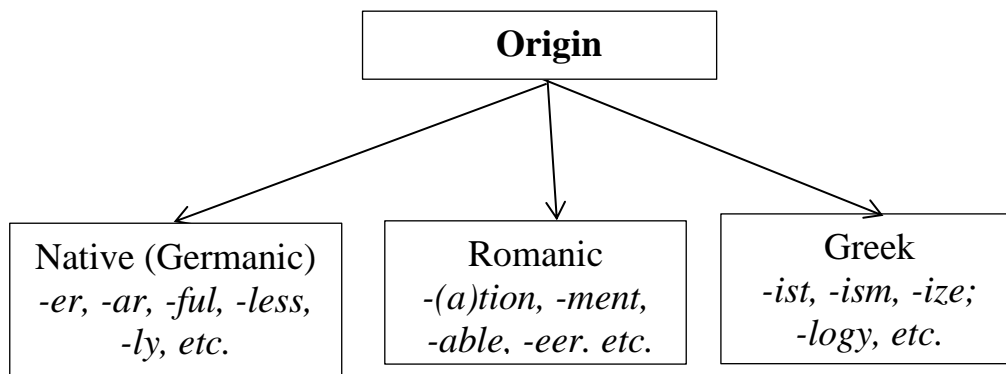
E.g.: *post-age, free-dom, driv-er, member-ship, help-ful, class-ic, brok-en, clari-fy, complic-ate, clock-wise, quick-ly, twentie-th, seven-teen.*



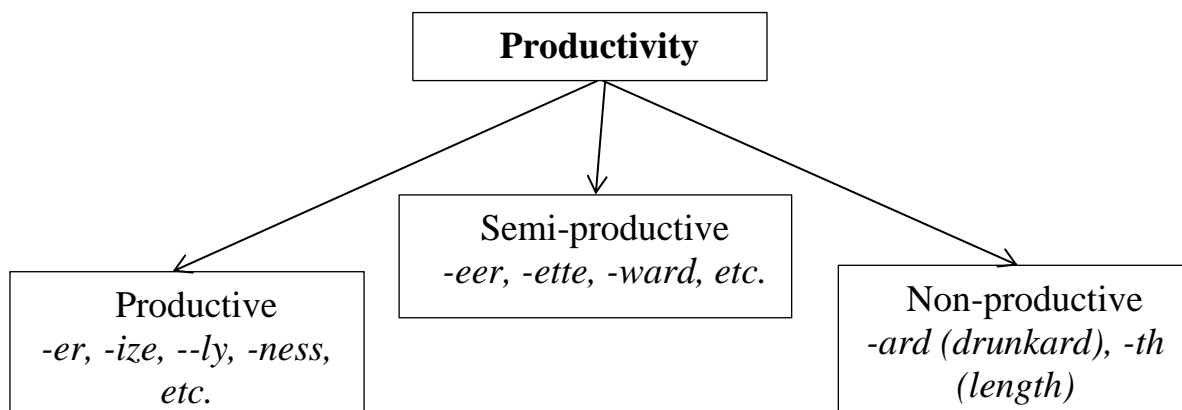
Neutral: *-er, -able, -ness, -ing, -ly* and many others; stylistically marked, those characteristics of formal, scientific style: *-oid, -(i)form, -aceous, -tron, -um (rhomboid, asteroid, chloroform, cyclotron, plutonium).*



E.g.: *speak-er*; *read-ing*; *agree-ment*; *child-ish*; *mouth-ful*; *trouble-some*; *bright-ness*; *black-en*.



E.g.: *schol-ar*; *learn-er*; *move-ment*; *demonstr-ation*; *feudal-ism*; *bio-logy*.

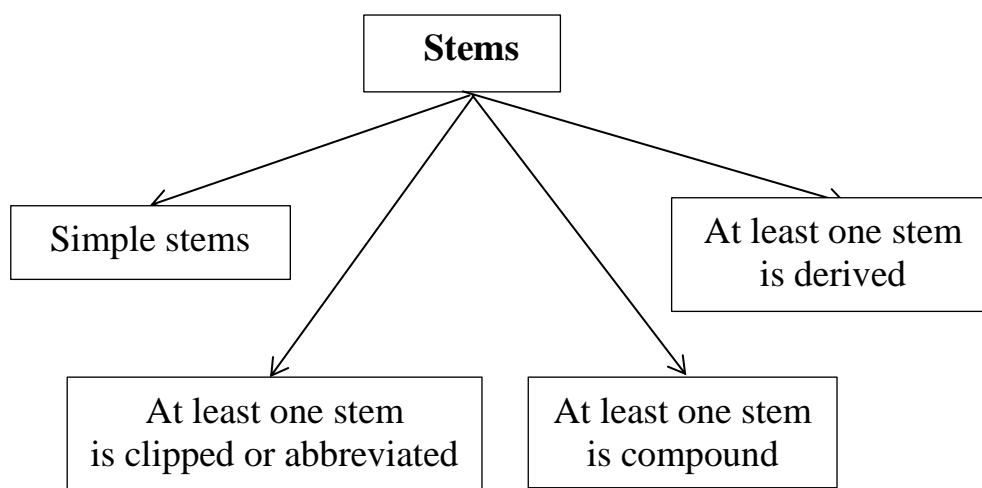


4.1.2. Compounding

Compound words are formed by combining at least two stems that can exist independently as free forms within a language., e.g. *a wheel-chair; knee-high; passers-by*. This way of word-building is called **compounding** or **composition**.

Compound words in English can be created through various methods: simply by adding two stems together, derivation, reduplication, reduplication combined with sound interchange, conversion from word-groups, back formation from compound nouns or word-groups, analogy.

The types of stems in compounds can be categorized as follows: **simple, derived, clipped or abbreviated, compound**.



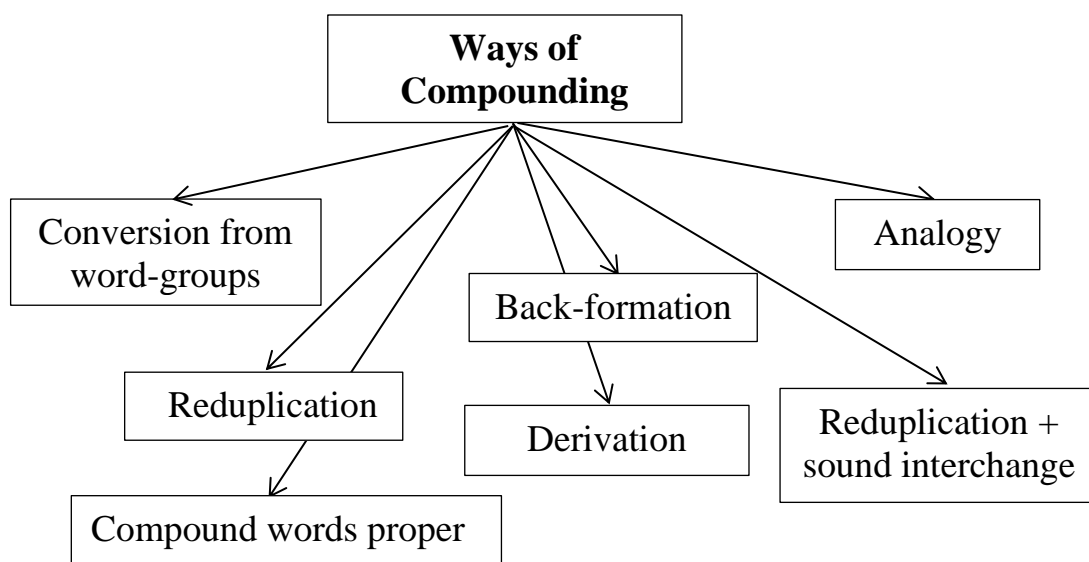
The predominant type of compounds words is built by a mere juxtaposition of stems without connecting elements, e.g. *film-star; lampshade; teacup*.

There are compounds in which at least one of the components is a shortened stem: *H-bag (handbag); Xmas (Christmas); eco-friendly; B-day; e-mail*.

One of the elements of a compound can be a compound word itself: *a wastepaper-basket; a dressmaker saloon; a ballroom dress*.

One of the constituents can be a derived stem, e.g. *lawmaker; living room*

Compound words are classified according to different principles: according to the structure of immediate constituents (stems); ways of compounding; parts of speech formed; the way the components are joined together; the relations between the components; the order of the components; meaning.



Compound words proper are created by combining the stems of words already existing in the language, either with or without the use of specific linking elements., e.g. *speedometer*; *door-step*.

Derivational compounds are created by combining the stems of words one of which is derived, e.g. *long-legged*.

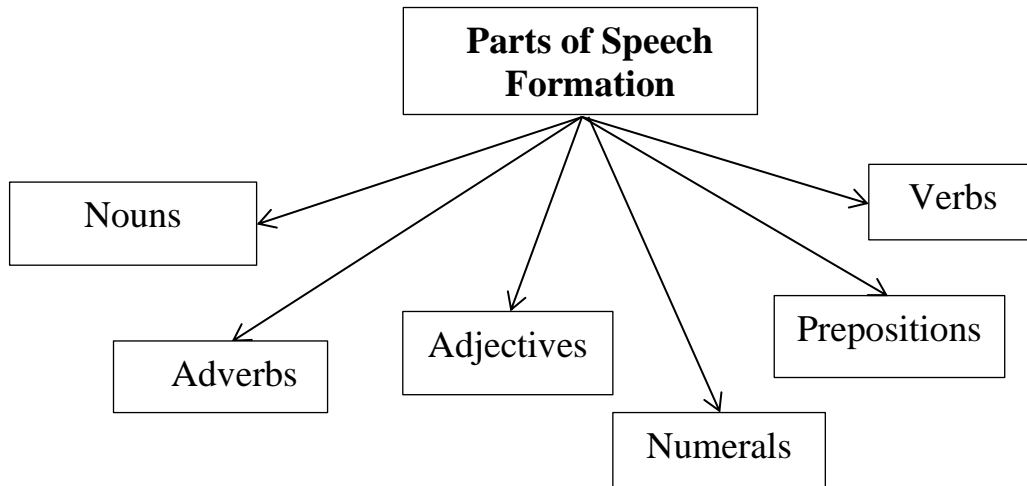
Reduplicative compounds are formed by repeating the same stem, e.g. *fifty-fifty*; *too-too*.

Reduplication combined with sound interchange results in joining the phonetically varied rhythmic forms, e.g. *rope-ripe*; *clip-clap*; *topsy-turvy*.

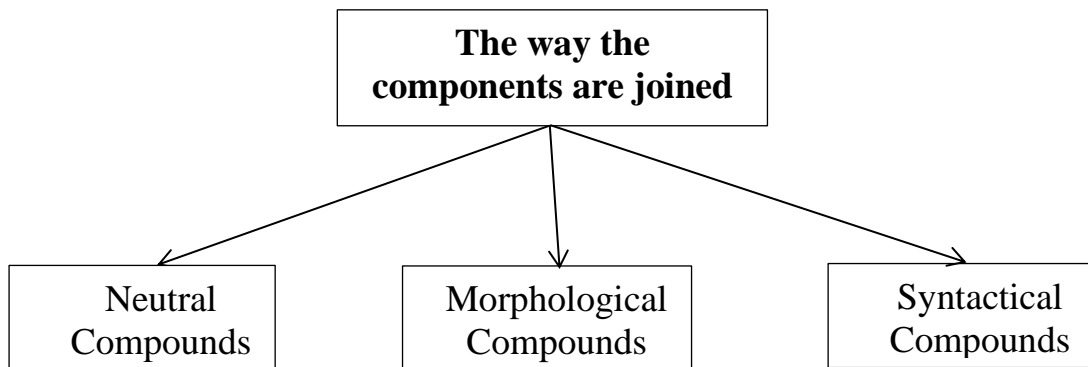
Conversion from word-groups, e.g. *an accident that causes work to stop – a break-down*; *confident and resourceful – can-do*.

Back-formation from compound nouns involves creating a new word by removing apparent affixes from an existing compound noun, often simplifying the original structure, e.g. *fingerprint (n) – fingerprint (v)*.

Analogy is the process of forming new words by the already existing patterns, e.g. *lie-in*, *phone-in* (on the analogy with *sit-in*); *brawn-drain* (on the analogy with *brain-drain*), etc.



E.g.: *baby-moon*; *globe-trotter*; *headfirst*; *power-happy*; *fifty-five*; *into*; *within*; *baby-sit*.

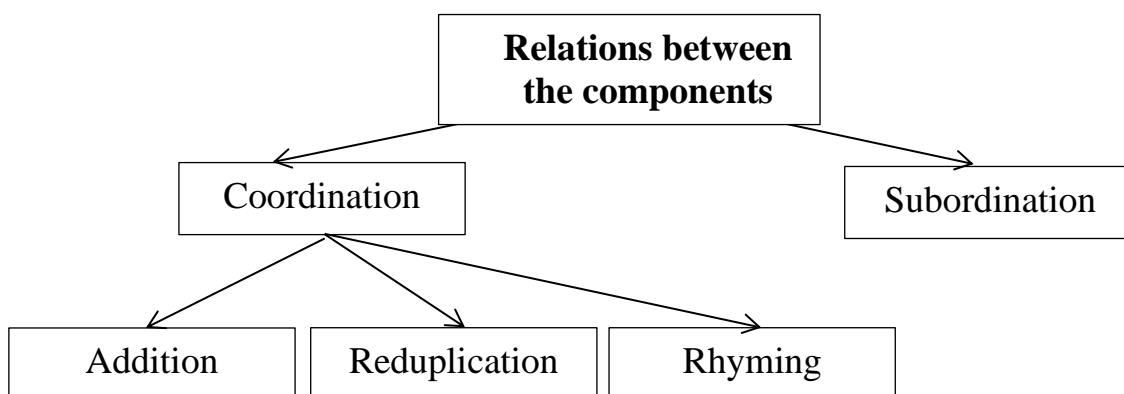


Neutral compounds are formed by combining two stems without the use of a joining morpheme. Examples include: *a ball-point*, *to window-shop*.

Morphological compounds, on the other hand, involve components connected by a linking element such as the vowels *o* or *i* or the consonant *s*, as seen in words like *astrospace*, *handicraft*, and *sportsman*. There are also compounds where the linking elements are represented by prepositions or

conjunctions. Examples include: *down-and-out*; *matter-of-fact*; *son-in-law*; *pepper-and-salt*; *wall-to-wall*.

Finally, **syntactical compounds** are those in which the components are connected using form-word stems. e.g. *here-and-now*, *free-for-all*, *do-or-die*.

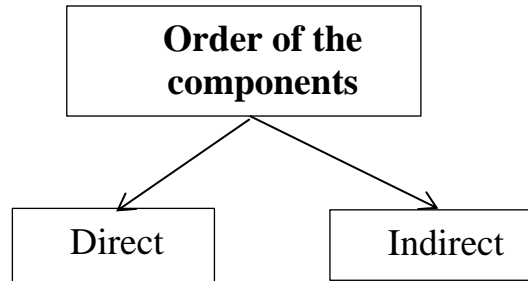


Coordinative compounds are words in which both components retain their semantic independence. These typically include compounds that represent a person or object fulfilling dual roles, such as *secretary-stenographer*, *woman-doctor*, or *Oxbridge*. These are categorized as **additive compounds**. This group further includes compounds formed through **reduplication**, such as *fifty-fifty* and *no-no*, as well as those created using **rhythmic stems**, where reduplication is combined with sound variation, for example, *criss-cross* and *walkie-talkie*.

On the other hand, **subordinative compounds** are characterized by having one component which serves as the semantic and structural core, while the other acts as a subordinate element. The nature of this subordinative relationship can vary widely. They can be:

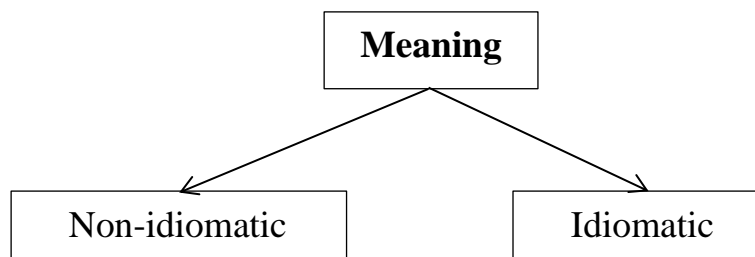
- comparative, e.g. *honey-sweet*, *eggshell-thin*
- limiting, e.g. *breast-high*, *knee-deep*
- emphatic, e.g. *dog-cheap*
- objective, e.g. *gold-rich*
- cause relations, e.g. *love-sick*
- space relations, e.g. *top-heavy*

- time relations, e.g. *spring-fresh*
- subjective, e.g. *foot-sore, etc.*



In **direct** compounds the sequence of the stems is similar to the arrangement and organization of the corresponding words within phrases., e.g. *bluebell, slow-coach, day-time, to know nothing*.

Indirect compounds are formed from word combinations by changing the word order, e.g. *door-handle* (the handle of the door), *peace movement* (movement for peace), *oil-rich* (rich in oil).

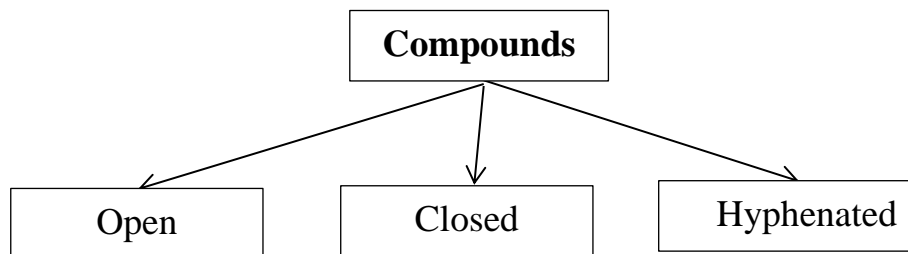


When the overall meaning of a compound word cannot be inferred from the individual meanings of its components, and it figuratively expresses one whole notion, it is an **idiomatic compound word**, e.g. *a blue-colour* (a worker), *a butterball* (a plump child), *a hot dog* (a sandwich).

When the meaning of the compound word can be perceived from the meaning of its elements, it's a **non-idiomatic compound**, e.g. *a lampshade, father-in-law, a bottle-opener*.

There are three types of compound words in grammar, determined by how the words are separated.

- Open compound words: spaces between the words
- Closed compound words: no spaces between the words
- Hyphenated compound words: hyphens between the words



Open compound words consist of separate words with spaces between them, which can sometimes make them harder to recognize. However, despite their appearance, open compound words function as a single unit. They always appear together in the same order and carry a distinct meaning as a whole. E.g.: *a swimming pool, a blood test, a dancing hall, high school, an ice cream.*

In **closed compound words** there are no spaces between the words, making them appear and function as single, unified terms. E.g.: *an airport, to babysit, a bathroom, background, a smartphone.*

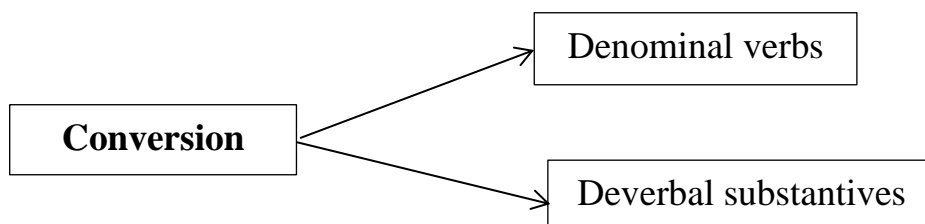
Hyphenated compound words have hyphens between the words. E.g.: *editor-in-chief, mother-in-law, empty-handed, up-to-date.*

4.1.3. Conversion

Conversion or **zero-derivation** refers to the creation of new words that belong to a different part of speech and exhibit distinct distribution patterns, all without the addition of any derivational elements. This process results in the original word and the newly derived word sharing the same basic form, making them homonymous. For example, *water* as a noun and *water* as a verb.

In English, there are clearly established cases of conversion, such as formation of verbs from nouns (known as denominal verbs) and, less commonly, from other parts of speech; and, similarly, nouns can be formed from verbs

(deverbal substantives), with rarer instances involving derivation from other parts of speech.



In Modern English, conversion serves as a primary method for forming verbs. This process involves creating verbs from nouns belonging to various semantic groups, resulting in a range of meanings:

a) Verbs acquire instrumental meaning when formed from nouns representing parts of the human body, such as *to eye*, *to finger*, *to elbow*, or *to shoulder*.

Similarly, they gain instrumental significance when derived from nouns associated with tools, machines, instruments, or weapons, like *to hammer*, *to machine-gun*, *to rifle*, or *to nail*.

b) Some verbs reflect actions characteristic of the living beings denoted by the originating noun, for instance, *to crowd*, *to wolf*, or *to ape*.

c) Verbs can express acquisition, addition, or removal when converted from nouns that represent objects. Examples include *to fish*, *to dust*, *to peel*, or *to paper*.

d) Conversion also enables verbs to describe actions taking place in locations defined by the corresponding noun, such as *to park*, *to garage*, *to bottle*, *to corner*, or *to pocket*.

e) Lastly, verbs can signify actions occurring during specific times referenced by the original noun, such as *to winter* or *to weekend*.

Verbs can also be formed from adjectives, typically indicating a change of state. For example, *to tame* (to become or make tame), *to clean*, or *to slim*.

Similarly, nouns can be derived from verbs through conversion. These converted nouns may represent the following:

- a) An instance of an action, such as *a jump* or *a move*
- b) A process or state, such as *sleep* or *walk*
- c) The agent performing the action described by the verb, such as *a help*, *a flirt*, or *a scold*
- d) The object or result of the action, such as *a burn*, *a find*, or *a purchase*
- e) The place associated with the action, such as *a drive*, *a stop*, or *a walk*.

There exist different opinions as for the creation of adjectives from nouns through conversion. Such word combinations as *a stone wall*, *a price rise*, *a wage freeze*, *a steel helmet*, *a sand castle* etc. are quite numerous in Modern English. These cases got the name of the ‘**stone wall**’ complexes. Some linguists consider the initial elements of such complexes as adjectives derived from corresponding noun stems through conversion. Their arguments include the following:

1. *Stone* conveys a specific quality of the noun *wall*.
2. *Stone* precedes the word it modifies, resembling the placement of adjectives functioning as attributes in English.
3. In certain cases, the first component appears in the comparative or superlative form, such as *the bottomest end of the scale*.
4. The first component can be modified by an adverb, which is characteristic of adjectives, as seen in phrases like *a purely family gathering*.
5. The first component can share the same syntactical position with a proper adjective to describe the same noun, for example, *a lonely bare stone house*.

On the other hand, some argue that these components function as nouns in an attributive role. This perspective is supported by the fact that in Modern English, almost any part of speech – along with word groups and even entire sentences – can serve as attributes. Examples include constructions like *the then president* (an adverb), *out-of-the-way villages* (a word group), and *a devil-may-care speed* (a sentence).

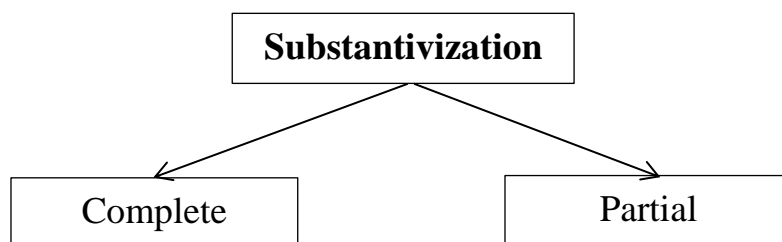
The semantic relationships between the components of structures like *stone wall* vary and warrant further exploration. They can express:

1. time relations, e.g. *evening paper*
2. space relations, e.g. *top floor*
3. relations between the object and the material of which it is made, e.g. *steel helmet*
4. cause relations, e.g. *war orphan*
5. relations between a part and the whole, e.g. *a crew member*
6. relations between the object and an action, e.g. *arms production*
7. relations between the agent and an action e.g. *government threat, price rise*
8. relations between the object and its designation, e.g. *reception hall*
9. the first component denotes the head, organizer of the characterized object, e.g. *Clinton government, Forsythe family*
10. the first component denotes the field of activity of the second component, e.g. *language teacher, psychiatry doctor*
11. comparative relations, e.g. *moon face*
12. qualitative relations, e.g. *winter apples*.

The issue of **substantivization** or **nominalization** of adjectives is not a simple one. Some linguists argue that this cannot be classified as a form of conversion, as the substantivization of adjectives involves significantly different linguistic changes. S. Höfler describes two fundamentally different ways of substantivization of adjectives: “The first possibility is a derivational one, i.e. the adjective is substantivized by a word-formation process that typically consists of an overt morphological or morphonological operation such as suffixation, accent shift, introduction of new ablaut grades, or a combination thereof, e.g. *smart – smarty; green – greenness*. The second process, on the other hand, is a gradual one: an adjective can be substantivized through the ellipsis of a head noun that this adjective was originally paired with.” (S Höfler, 2020)

We will stop at the second case in more detail. Substantivization occurs as a result of ellipsis or syntactical shortening, where a word combination containing a semantically strong attribute drops its semantically weaker noun (e.g., *man*, *person*). For instance, *a grown-up person* becomes simply *a grown-up*.

Substantivization can be complete and partial.



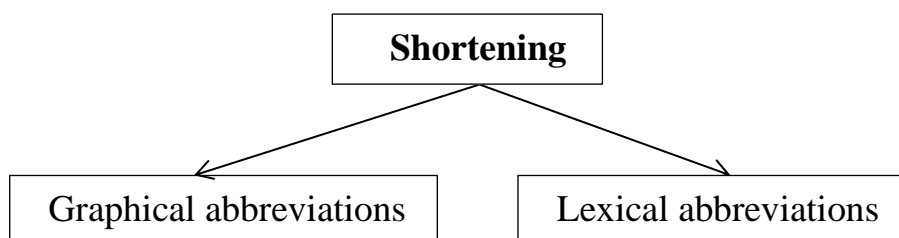
Complete substantivization takes place when a word fully adopts the entire grammatical paradigm of a noun, such as in the example: *a private - the private - privates - the privates - the privates*’.

Partial substantivization, on the other hand, happens when a word acquires only certain features of a noun's paradigm, as seen in expressions like *the rich*.

4.1.4. Shortening

Shortening Shortening involves the removal of a portion of the original word or word group. While derivation and compounding add affixes or free stems, shortening focuses on subtraction.

There are two primary types: graphical and lexical.



Graphical abbreviations refer to the condensation of words or word groups in written communication to save space and effort, while their full forms are typically used in speech. This process may involve omitting letters or modifying certain parts.

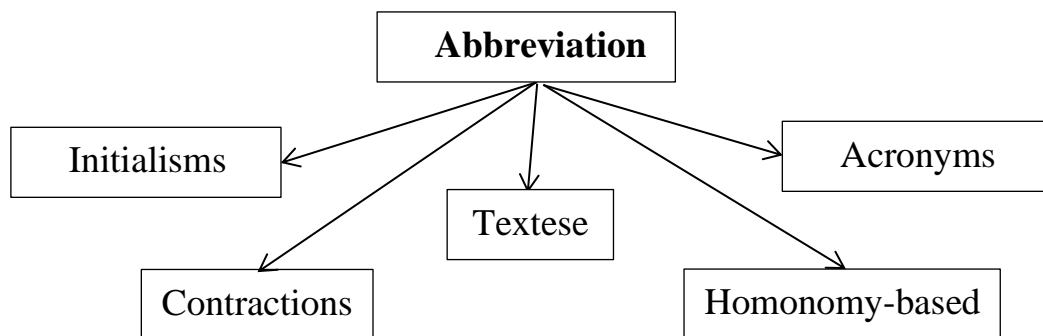
The earliest set of graphical abbreviations in English comes from Latin origins. However, these abbreviations are not pronounced as Latin words but are instead replaced by their English counterparts. For instance: *e.g.* (exempli gratia) means *for example*, *a.m.* (ante meridiem) means *in the morning*, *No* (numero) refers to *number*, *p.a.* (per annum) translates to *a year*, *d* (dinarius) signifies *penny*, and *i.e.* (id est) means *that is*.

In addition to these, the language also features graphical abbreviations of native English origin, which can be categorized into various semantic groups:

- a) days of the week, e.g. *Mon - Monday, Tue – Tuesday, etc.*
- b) names of months, e.g. *Apr - April, Aug – August, etc.*
- d) names of states in USA, e.g. *Ala - Alabama, Alas – Alaska, etc.*
- e) names of address, e.g. *Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr., etc.*
- f) military ranks, e.g. *capt. -captain, col. - colonel, sgt – sergeant, etc.*
- g) scientific degrees, e.g. *B.A. - Bachelor of Arts, D.M. - Doctor of Medicine, etc.*
- h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. *sec. - second, in. -inch, mg. – milligram, etc.*

Lexical abbreviations are commonly utilized in both spoken and written language. Typically, they originate in written communication and gradually make their way into spoken interactions. These abbreviations are formed by combining the initial sounds or syllables of the elements within a phrase or compound word.

They can be categorized into several distinct types: **initialisms, acronyms, textese, homonymy-based acronyms, contractions.**



Initialisms are abbreviations that are made by combining the first letters of multiple words, and are pronounced alphabetically, i.e. one letter at a time: e.g. *the BBC* - /'bi:'bi:'si:/, *FBI*; *GMO*; *DVD*; *BTW* (*by the way*); etc.

Acronyms are abbreviations that are pronounced as ordinary words: *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) - /'neɪtəʊ/; *AIDS* (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome); *OPEC* (Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries); *radar* (radio detecting and ranging); etc.

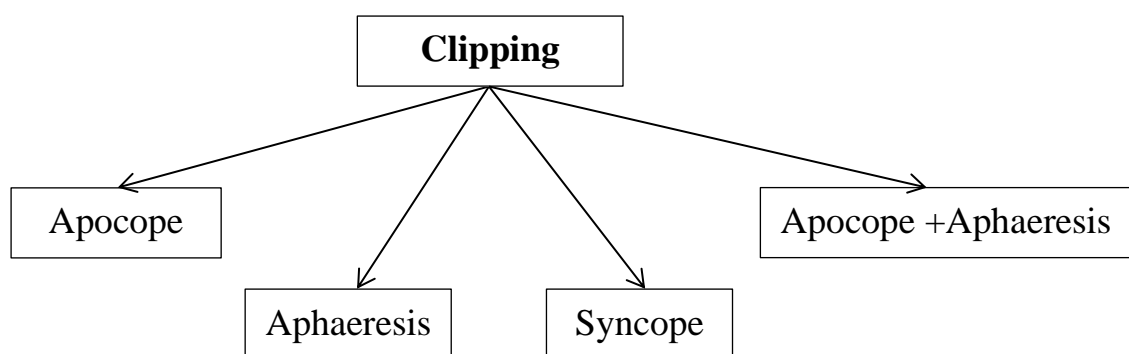
There are cases when only the first component of a two-member word group is shortened, the last one undergoes no change, e.g. *e-mail* – *electronic mail*; *V-day* – *Victory Day*.

Textese (online slang) is a modern form of communication that uses individual letters, numbers, and symbols to reduce typing time. Textese was born out of a need to speed up typing time on computers, mobile phones, and similar devices. The idea is to use minimal characters to represent words so you can send a message faster, such as typing *U* instead of *you*. Textese draws on the other types of abbreviations, sometimes using initialism (*irl* for *in real life*), sometimes using contractions (*bc* for *because*), and sometimes inventing entirely new words by combining letters and numbers based on sounds (*gr8* for *great*). E.g.: *lol* (*laugh out loud*); *btw* (*by the way*); *imo* (*in my opinion*); *idk* (*I don't know*); *NGU* (*never give up*), *DIY* (*do it yourself*); *PTO* (*please turn over*), *BBL* (*be back later*), *ASAP* (*as soon as possible*).

Homonymy-based acronyms are based on the use of identical sounds of words and letters, e.g. I. O. U (I owe you), CU (see you), HAND (Have a nice day).

Contractions are one of the most common types of abbreviations. They can be found both among graphical and lexical abbreviations. They can be made from one word or by combining *two words* and omitting one or more letters, instead of entire syllables as in clipping. E.g.: *I'll* (*I will*); *can't* (*cannot*); *you're* (*you are*); *st* (*street*); *Mon* (*Monday*).

Clipping refers to the process of shortening a word by removing a portion of it. Traditionally clippings are classified according to which part of the word is clipped.



The apocope or back clipping is the case when words are shortened at the end, e.g. *ad* – *advertisement*; *memo* – *memorandum*, etc.

The aphaeresis or fore-clipping is the case when words are shortened at the beginning, e.g. *car* – *motorcar*; *gator* – *alligator*, etc.

The syncope or middle clipping is the case when words are shortened in the middle, e.g. *specs* – *spectacles*, etc.

When the words are clipped both at the beginning and at the end we speak about **apocope + aphaeresis**, e.g. *tec* – *detective*; *fridge* – *refrigerator*, etc.

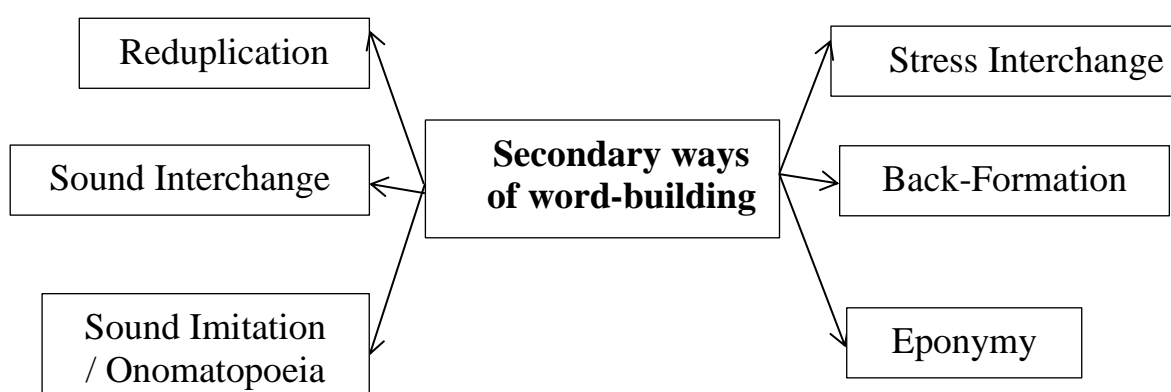
Sometimes, shortening a word can influence its spelling. For example, the letter *c* may be replaced with *k* before certain vowels to maintain proper pronunciation, as seen in *mike* (microphone) or *Coke* (Coca-Cola). The same

principle applies in other cases, such as *fax* (facsimile), *teck* (technical college), or *trank* (tranquilizer). In these instances, the final consonants in the abbreviated forms are often substituted with letters more typical of native English words, ensuring they remain familiar and easy to recognize.

Blending, on the other hand, involves combining clipped words to create a new form. This process requires shortening the end of the first word (apocope) and the beginning of the second word (apheresis). Shared letters or sounds between the two components often serve as the connection point. The result is a compound-shortened term, known as a **blend**, **fusion**, or **portmanteau word**, e.g. *smog* = *smoke and fog*; *docusoap* = *documentary soap*; *dramedy* = *drama and comedy*; *internet* = *interconnected network etc.*

4.2. Secondary ways of word-building

There are also secondary ways of word-building: **sound interchange**, **stress interchange**, **sound imitation**, **back-formation**, **reduplication**, and **eponymy**.



Sound interchange refers to a method of word formation where certain sounds are altered to create a new word. While this process is largely unproductive in modern English, it played a significant role in Old English and still occurs in

other Indo-European languages. Sound interchange is generally categorized into two types:

- vowel interchange and
- consonant interchange.

Vowel interchange examples include pairs like *full - fill, food - feed, and blood - bleed*. Through these changes in vowels, different parts of speech can be distinguished.

Consonant interchange can be seen in examples such as *advice - advise, speak - speech, break - breach, defence - defend, and offence - offend*.

In some cases, both vowel and consonant interchange may occur simultaneously, e.g. *bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe, etc.*

Stress interchange is commonly observed in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin. Typically, nouns place the stress on the first syllable, while verbs shift the stress to the last syllable. For instance: *to con`flict* vs. *`conflict*, *to ex`port* vs. *`export*, *to ex`tract* vs. *`extract*, and *to ac`cent* vs. *`accent*. This phenomenon often leads to vowel variation within these words since vowels are articulated differently depending on whether the syllable is stressed or unstressed.

Sound imitation, or **onomatopoeia**, is a method of word formation where words are created by mimicking various sounds. Words formed this way can be categorized into several semantic groups:

a) sounds made by humans, such as *to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle, etc.*

b) sounds made by animals, birds, or insects, like *to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter, etc.*

c) sounds originating from nature or objects, including *to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, and to tinkle.*

Back-formation is a method of word formation where the final morpheme is removed to create a new word. This process is essentially the reverse of

suffixation, which involves extending a word. For this reason, it is referred to as back-formation. Initially, it emerged in borrowed words that were shortened to align with the conventions of the English language. E.g. *to beg* – from *beggar*; *to accreditate* – from *accreditation*, *to bach* – from *bachelor*, *to collocate* – from *collocation*, *to compute* – from *computer*, *to televise* – from *television*, *to intervene* – from *intervention* etc.

Eponymy is a process of creating new words by using proper names as common nouns, e.g. *biro* [ball-point pen] (after Laszlo Biro, its Hungarian inventor); *wellingtons* (after the Duke of Wellington); *braille* [name of a raised writing system used by blind people] (from the name of its French inventor, Louis Braille); *watt* [unit of power] (from the 18th century Scottish inventor, James Watt); *saxophone* [musical instrument] (after its inventor, the Belgian, Adolphe Sax); *mentor* [loyal and wise adviser] (from Mentor, a friend to Odysseus), etc.

Reduplication is a word-formation process in which two phonetically similar or identical morphemes or pseudo-morphemes are combined. Reduplication can be considered to be a special kind of *compounding*, with the difference that the individual components of reduplicatives are often meaningless and emotionally / stylistically coloured. According to the morphemes used, reduplicatives may be divided into

a) rhyming (e.g. *hocus-pocus*, *walkie-talkie*, *hurry-scurry*, etc.) and

b) non-rhyming (e.g. *tip-top*, *chit-chat*, *zigzag*, etc.).

and

a) full (the two morphemes are identical in every aspect), e.g. *chopchop*, *goody-goody*, *no-no*, *poo-poo*, *bye-bye*, etc. and

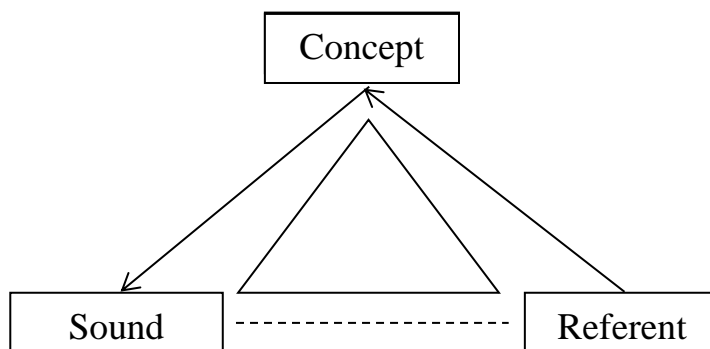
b) partial (the two morphemes are not identical), e.g. *sing-song*, *tittle-tattle*, *hoity-toity*, etc.

5. Word Meaning

Semasiology is a branch of lexicology dedicated to studying meaning. There are two main schools of thought, each offering distinct approaches to the issue of word meaning: *the referential approach* and *the functional approach*.

The referential approach primarily relies on its foundational referential concept. This perspective is characterized by distinguishing three interconnected components of meaning: **the sound form of the linguistic sign, the concept** it represents, and **the referent**. The referent refers to the real-world object or phenomenon to which the linguistic sign is connected.

Semiotic triangle:



We are able to use words in speech only when this triangle is formed in our mind.

One of the lines is dotted because there is no direct link between the word and its referent.

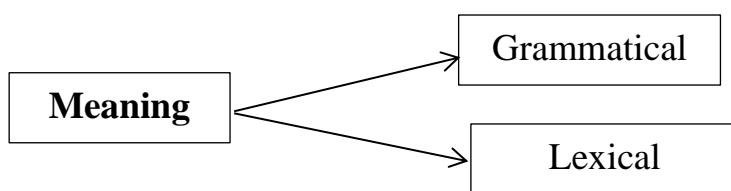
From this perspective, meaning is understood as a relationship between a word's sound form, the underlying concept, and the object it represents. While meaning is not identical to any single element of this triangle, it remains closely linked to all of them.

The functional approach to meaning emphasizes analyzing words within context. In contemporary methods of lexicological study, words are examined based on how they operate within phrases or sentences. The meaning of a linguistic

unit is understood exclusively through its relationship with other linguistic units, highlighting that meaning is essentially **the function a word performs in speech**.

5.1. Types of Word Meaning

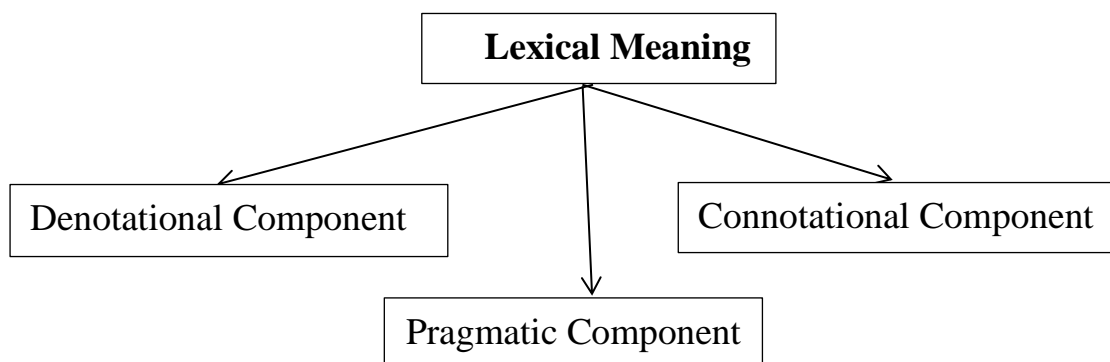
Word meaning is not uniform; rather, it consists of multiple components. These components are typically categorized into different types of meaning, with the two primary types being **grammatical meaning** and **lexical meaning**.



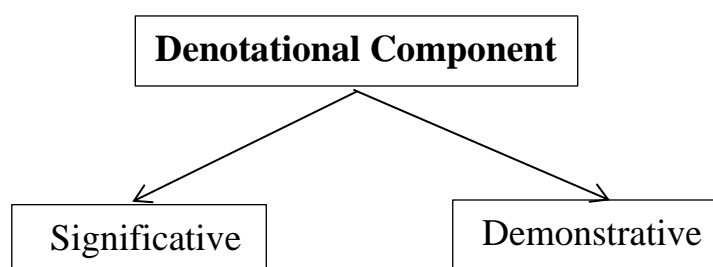
Grammatical meaning is the element of meaning that recurs consistently across identical sets of individual forms in various words, e.g. *girls, winters, tables* – the grammatical meaning of plurality; *speaks, reads, writes* – the grammatical meaning of the present tense; third person singular, active voice.

Lexical meaning is the component of meaning recurrent in all forms and distributions of a given linguistic unit, e.g. *go, goes, going, went* possess the same semantic component representing the act of movement.

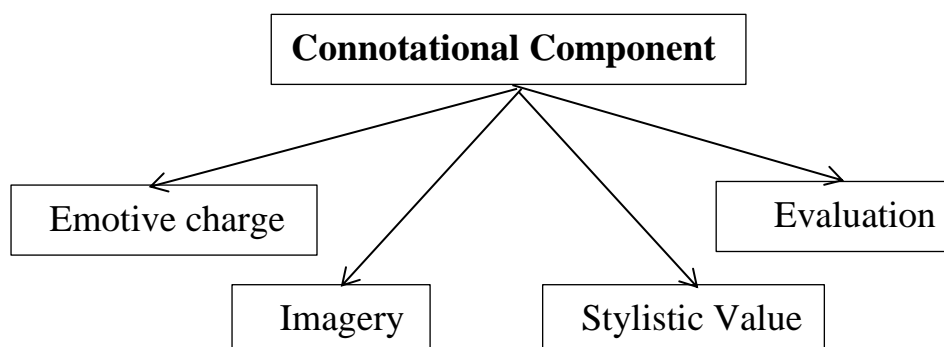
Lexical meaning, in its turn, consists of the following components: **denotational, connotational** and **pragmatic**.



The word “denotational” is formed from the word ‘denote’ – to state as a name for something. **Denotational meaning** is a kind of meaning when a word serves as a name for an object of extralinguistic reality. It is the core, basic meaning of a word that can be found in a dictionary. There are two types of it. The word is used in its **significant meaning** when it serves a name for a class of objects and denotes a general idea of an object. E.g. *East or West home is best.* The word is used in its **demonstrative meaning** when it serves to name individual elements of reality. E.g. *She hoped to make their home a nice place.*



Connotational component is the part of lexical meaning which carries additional information about the speaker’s attitude to the subject, to what he speaks about, and this brings expressive colour to the speech. Connotational component includes additional meanings, emotions, or associations that a word may carry beyond its literal definition. These additional meanings can be cultural, emotional, or situational. Thus, the connotational components include the following parts: **emotive charge, imagery, evaluation, and register.**



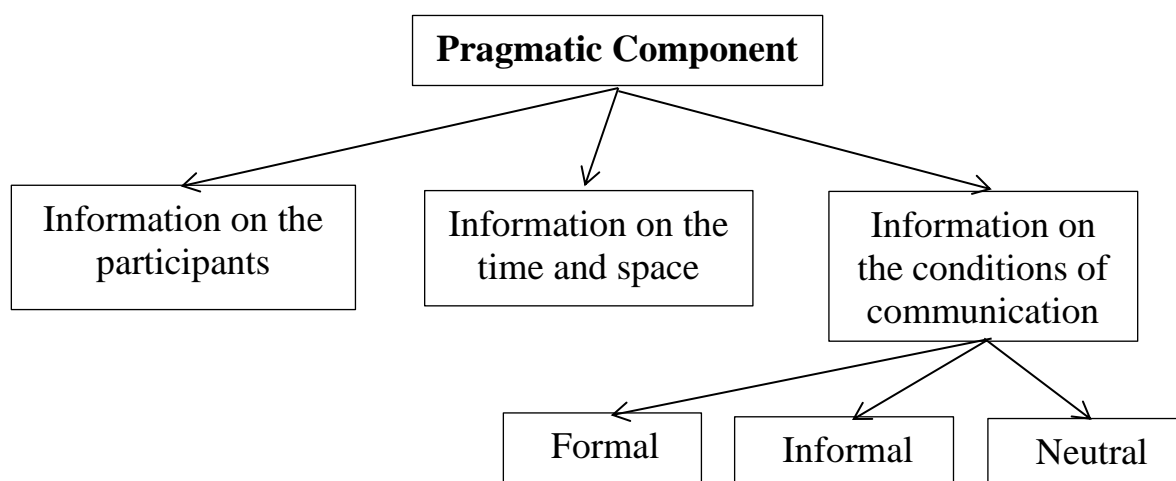
Emotive charge is an objective semantic feature inherent to words as linguistic units. For example, the word *father* is neutral, while *daddy* carries an emotional undertone. This differs from *emotive implication*, which is largely subjective, as it heavily relies on the personal experiences of the speaker.

Imagery presupposes the image which we have in our mind when we use the word in its figurative meaning.

Evaluation can be positive and negative, e.g. *a clique – a crowd – a group*.

Register refers to the level of formality or informality associated with a word. Words can belong to formal, informal, colloquial, or technical registers, and this affects their usage and meaning.

Pragmatic component conveys the information on the situation of communication. It depends on some sociolinguistic parameters such as the communicative situation, the possible use of the lexical unit, and the pragmatic need of communication participants to achieve their goals. It includes several elements.



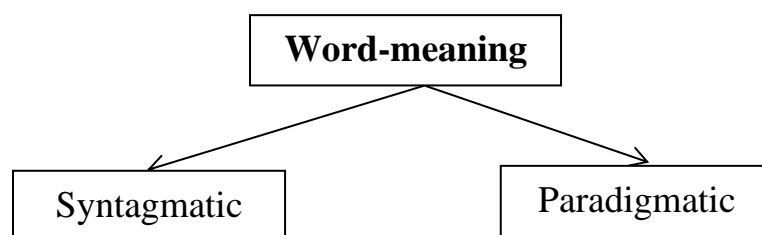
Information on the participants of communication reflects the relationship between the speaker and the hearer and their choice of the language units, e.g. *policeman – cop; invalid – physically/mentally challenged*.

Information on the time and space of communication, e.g. obsolete/archaic words: *to see* – *to behold*; *enemy* – *foe*, or using such words as *Good morning!* *Have a nice evening!*

Information on the conditions of communication can range from extremely formal to extremely informal. E.g. formal – *anticipate*, *aid*; informal – *stuff*, *to butt in*.

5.2. Interlinguistic Relations and Word Meaning

Word meaning can be viewed from the angle of interlinguistic relations between words. Here we differentiate between **syntagmatic** and **paradigmatic meanings**. Syntagms and paradigms explain with how signs relate to each other.



According to the definition from Dictionary.com, **paradigmatic relation** is a relationship among linguistic elements that can substitute for each other in a given context; while **syntagmatic relation** is a relationship among linguistic elements that occur sequentially in the chain of speech or writing. E.g.: *A red car is parked outside*. Here, *red* and *car* form a syntagmatic unit (adjective + noun).

On the other hand, in the example, *The car is parked outside*, *car* has a paradigmatic relationship with words like *truck*, *bus*, or *bicycle*. These words belong to the same semantic category (vehicles) and could potentially substitute for *car* depending on the context, but would create a different syntagmatic unit.

Other adjectives like *blue* or *green* can be substituted within this syntagmatic relationship.

Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations are opposed to each other. Paradigmatic relation describes a substitution relationship between words of the same word class. The substitution occurs on **the vertical axis**. Syntagmatic relation illustrates the linear relationship / position between the words in a sentence. The syntagmatic relation occurs on **the horizontal axis**.

Paradigmatic relation:

E.g.: *A plump girl hurt the knee.*

- A girl could hurt: the elbow, the ankle, the back, the knee etc.
- *Elbow, ankle, back, knee* are members of a paradigm of the body parts that a plump girl could hurt.
- All the items in the paradigm share some kind of syntactical function (in this example: the direct object of the sentence).
- Some words from the sentence can also be substituted vertically: A thin (antonym) girlie (synonym) hurt her body (hyponymy).

Syntagmatic relation:

E.g.: *That young man invited me out.*

- The combination of *that young man + invited me out* forms a syntagmatic relationship.
- If the word position is changed, it also changes the meaning of the sentence, e.g. *I invited that young man out.*

Syntagmatic relations ensure sentences are grammatically correct, while paradigmatic relations allow for creativity and variation in expressing ideas. They work together to create meaningful and well-structured communication.

5.3. Lexical Field and Semantic Field

There are two other concepts that deal with meaning and relationships among words: **a semantic field** and **a lexical field**.

A **semantic field** refers to a set of words or expressions that share a common meaning or are related to a particular concept or theme. It encompasses the relationships and meanings of words in a broader context.

A **lexical field** is a collection of words that are related in meaning and belong to the same category or domain. It focuses more on the specific vocabulary used within a particular context. Compare:

✓ Semantic Field: *Education*

Words: *learning, teaching, knowledge, curriculum, assessment, test, whiteboard*

Description: These words are connected through the theme of education and the processes associated with it.

✓ Lexical Field: *School Supplies*

Words: *pencil, notebook, eraser, ruler, backpack*

Description: This field consists of items typically found in a school setting.

✓ Semantic Field: *Technology*

Words: *software, hardware, digital, internet, innovation, cutting-edge, robot*

Description: These terms are interconnected through the theme of technology and its components.

✓ Lexical Field: *Computer Parts*

Words: *motherboard, CPU, RAM, hard drive, graphics card*

Description: This field includes specific components of a computer.

6. Change of Meaning

The causes of **semantic changes** can generally be categorized into two main groups.

Extra-linguistic causes encompass a range of factors tied to shifts in the life of a speech community, including transformations in economic and social structures, as well as changes in lifestyle, etc.

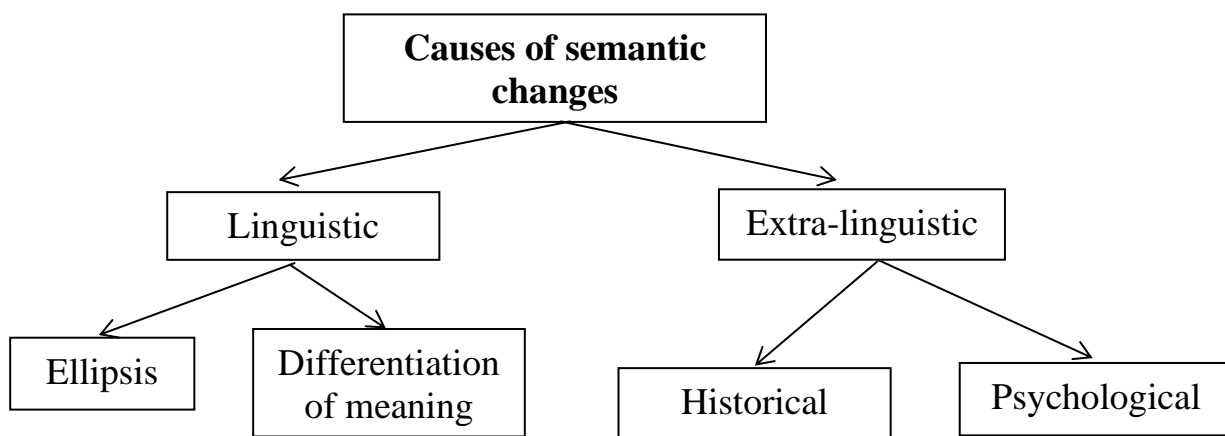
1) **historical** – changes in the way of life;

2) **psychological** – taboos of different kind. E.g. *bathroom* is a euphemism for *toilet*.

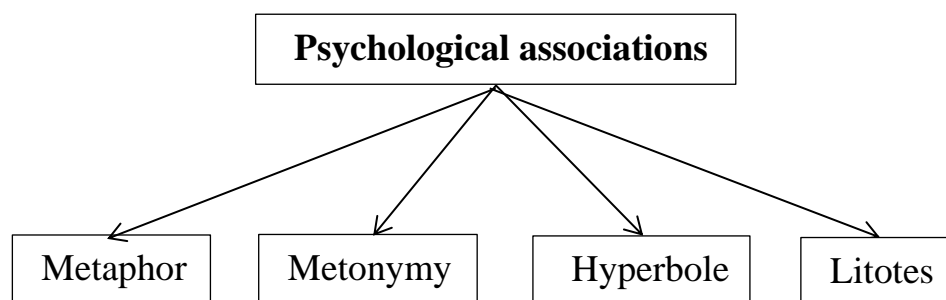
Linguistic causes refer to factors that operate within the language system itself. They are:

1. **Ellipsis** occurs when, in a phrase consisting of two words, one is omitted, and its meaning is absorbed or transferred to the remaining word. For example, in Old English (OE), the word *starve* originally meant *to die* and was typically used in conjunction with the word *hunger*. By the 16th century, the verb *starve* evolved to carry the specific meaning of *to die from hunger* on its own.

2. **Differentiation of meaning** is another linguistic factor. Take the word *land* in Old English, for instance. It originally carried two meanings: *the solid part of the earth's surface* and *the territory of a nation*. Over time, these meanings became more distinct. Later the word *country* was borrowed from French and the word *land* lost the second meaning due to the competition of synonyms.



Semantic changes can be classified on the basis of psychological associations:



Metaphor is a semantic process which implies hidden comparison between two unlike entities. It is based on the similarity of features of the two objects. E.g. *This man is a pig.*

By structure, metaphor consists of a tenor and a vehicle. *This man* is a tenor (the object), *a pig* is a vehicle (the image introduced).

Metaphors can draw upon various forms of similarity:

- 1) metaphors based on the similarity of shape, e.g. *the head of cabbage.*
- 2) metaphors based on the similarity of function, e.g. *umbrellas of trees.*
- 3) metaphors based on the similarity of position, e.g. *the foot of the mountain.*
- d) metaphors based on the similarity of colour, e.g. *orange hair, hazel eyes, chestnut hair, etc.*
- e) metaphors based on the similarity of human and animal qualities, animal metaphor or zoosemy, e.g. *a chicken – a lovely child; a pig – an ill-mannered person; a lion – a brave person, etc.*

Metaphors often arise from various forms of similarity. For example, *the leg of a table* resembles a human leg in terms of its shape, position, and function.

Many common metaphors draw inspiration from human body parts, such as *the eye of a needle, the arms and mouth of a river, or the head of an army.*

Another distinctive type of metaphor occurs when proper names evolve into common nouns. These are typically associated with particular traits or behaviors, such as *philistine* for a materially-minded person, *vandals* for destructive individuals, or *Don Juan* for someone known to be a prolific lover.

These examples demonstrate how metaphors can be rooted in different types of similarity and association.

There are metaphors in a language that are called **dead metaphors**. We use them too often. They no longer call up the image of the object in our mind. E.g. *the back of the chair*.

Metonymy is the semantic process the essence of which is the substitution of the name of one object by the other which occurs in near proximity with the first one. It is when an object or idea is designated not by its name but with the closest thing related to it. E.g.: *the crown* for *the monarchy*; *He drinks two cups every morning*.

Types of metonymy:

- 1) container for contained, e.g. *cups, plates, etc.*
- 2) producer for produced, e.g. *Ford (car); roentgen; watt, etc.*
- 3) the material from which an object is made can sometimes become the name of the object itself. For example, *glass, boards, iron*, and similar terms.
- 4) the name of a place can also transform into the name of the people associated with it or an object found there, e.g. *the House - members of Parliament, Fleet Street - bourgeois press, the White House - the Administration of the USA, etc.*
- 5) the name of a person can sometimes evolve into a common noun. For example, *boycott* originally referred to an Irish family whose neighbors disliked them so much that they refused to interact with them. Similarly, *sandwich* was derived from Lord Sandwich, a gambler who preferred not to interrupt his card games, opting instead to have his meal served between two slices of bread to keep his hands clean.
- 6) likewise, certain geographical names can transition into common nouns through metonymy. Examples include *Holland* (associated with linen fabrics), *Brussels* (a type of carpet), *China* (porcelain), and *Astrachan* (a type of sheep fur).
- 7) synecdoche – a part is used instead of a whole or vice versa, e.g. *New faces at the meeting; stars and stripes for the US flag*

8) bahuvrihi is the type of metonymy when a person or an object is named after a striking feature which they possess. The formula of bahuvrihi is 'adjective +noun', e.g. *Синя борода, Червона шапочка, a sweet heart, a sweet tooth, lazy bones, redskin (= Native American), kindhearted, evil-minded etc.* In fact, it is a compound noun or adjective consisting of two constituents, the first of which is adjectival and describes the person or object denoted by the second, which is nominal: the compound as a whole denotes or describes a person or object having what is denoted by the second element.

Hyperbole is a figure of speech where the speaker conveys meaning through deliberate **exaggeration**, e.g. *to hate doing something, not to see somebody for ages, one thousand pardons, floods of tears, for millions of reasons, etc.*

Hyperbole is frequently employed in the creation of phraseological expressions, e.g. *to make a mountain out of a molehill, to split hairs, etc.* More examples:

He had the strength of ten men.

She was as big as a house.

That dog was heavier than a cow!

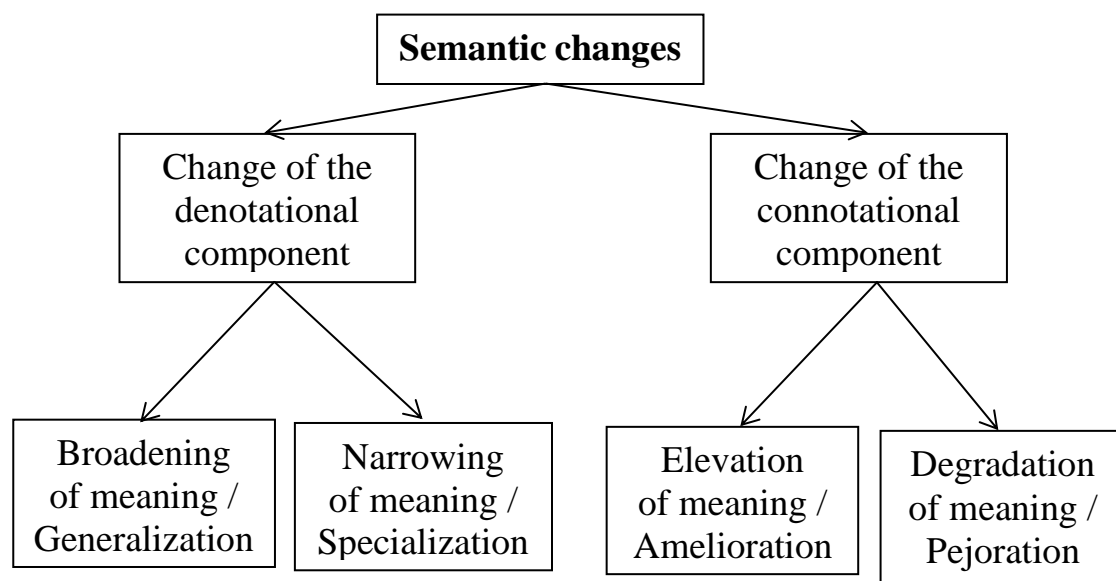
He would give the world to see her.

Litotes or **understatement** is expressing the affirmative by the negative of its contrary, e.g. *not bad for good; no coward for brave, ocean for pond etc.* More examples:

Being tortured with fire must have been somewhat uncomfortable.

There are a few Starbucks in America.

Semantic changes may be classified according to the changes of the logical notions expressed by the meaning of words:



Broadening of meaning or **generalization** is extension of semantic capacity of a word, the range of its applicability. E.g. *bureau*: the first meaning was *thick green cloth for covering tables*; then *a table covered with this cloth*; then *any writing table with or without this cloth*; then *an office with writing tables*; then *any office*. The term *cool* originally gained popularity among jazz musicians, where it described a particular style of music known as *cool jazz*. Over time, its usage expanded to other contexts.

Narrowing of meaning or **specialization** is the opposite process, e.g. *girl* in OE – *a child of either sex*; now – *a female child* or *a young woman*.

A shift in meaning often occurs due to the processes of generalization and specialization over time. A word may expand its scope of meaning, only to later narrow and exclude its original definition. For instance, the word *gay* has experienced a dramatic and unusually rapid evolution. Not too long ago, it was commonly associated with being *lively* or *happy*. However, it later came to refer to homosexuality, so that a phrase like *a gay film* is now understood with this newer meaning. Another example is the word *meat*, which has undergone semantic narrowing over the years. Originally, it referred to any type of food. Over time, its meaning became more specific, and it is now used exclusively to denote animal flesh.

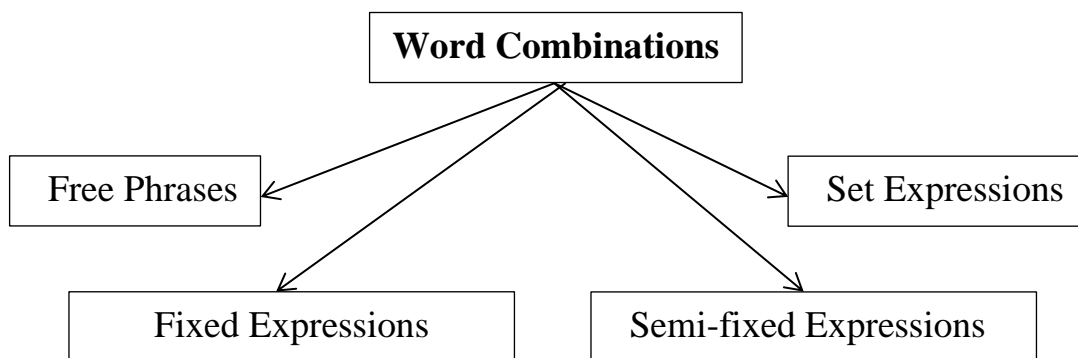
Elevation of meaning or **amelioration** is the improvement of the connotational component, i.e. the meaning becomes better, more positive or favorable, e.g. *queen* in OE meant *a woman*, now it means *a female monarch*; *knight* meant *a young servant*, now – *a person bearing this rank in recognition of personal services, achievements, etc.*

Degradation of meaning or **pejoration** is the worsening of the connotational component, i.e. the meaning becomes worse, e.g. *boor* used to mean *a peasant*, and now it has come to mean *a rude, awkward, ill-mannered person*; *clown* once meant *a peasant, a farmer*, now – *a clumsy ignorant man or the one who entertains, etc.*

Semantic change can result in complete shift of meaning to the opposite. The word *nice* is perhaps one of the most recognized examples of semantic change. In the 1300s, it originally described a person as being *foolish* or *silly*. However, by the 1800s, the process of amelioration had shifted its meaning, and the word came to signify someone who is *kind* and *thoughtful*. Similarly, the word *attitude* initially referred to a person's *pose* or *posture*. Over time, its meaning evolved to describe *someone's way of thinking*. From there, it began to be employed in colloquial contexts, and through pejoration, it became associated with behavior perceived as *rude* or *unkind*. For instance, a phrase like *He has a bad attitude* might be shortened to *He has an attitude*, reflecting how the word has developed a more negative connotation.

7. Word Combinations

Word combinations can be divided into three groups according to the possibility of changing or substituting at least one element in them.



A **free phrase** allows the substitution of any of its elements without affecting the meaning of the remaining element or elements. E.g. *cut bread; cut cheese; eat bread, etc.*

Both **fixed** and **semi-fixed expressions** are groups of words that have literal meanings. With **fixed expressions**, the word order and pattern usually do not change, e.g. *out of a sudden, as a matter of fact, on the other hand*.

In **semi-fixed expressions**, the word order stays the same, but some parts can be changed to portray a slightly different meaning but a number of substitutes is limited by the semantic properties of words that allow them to be used as substitutes. E.g. *to go + prep + a noun (to go to school; to go to courts, etc.)*.

There are different terms that are used almost synonymically: set expressions, idioms, phraseological units, word-groups, others. What makes the problem complex is that distinction between free word groups and phraseological units remains ambiguous, as the boundary between them is not clearly defined. What are often referred to as free word groups are, in reality, only relatively free. while phraseological units are but comparatively stable and inseparable. Many set expressions originated as free phrases and only gradually became stereotyped. Both **set expressions / idioms / phraseological units** and **fixed expressions** consist of groups of words used together to express a certain idea/concept. **Idioms** usually have figurative meanings, so they should not be taken literally. However, **fixed expressions** usually have literal meanings, so they express things in a standard way and are easier to understand. **Set expressions, idioms, or**

phraseological units are word groups composed of two or more words that function as a cohesive unit with a specific, often non-literal meaning, such as *for love or money*, *red-letter day*, or *sleep like a log*. These combinations are fixed, and no substitution of their elements is possible. Various terms highlight the key issues debated in phraseology. The term **set phrase** emphasizes the stability of both the lexical components and the grammatical structure within these word groups. On the other hand, the term **idiom** focuses on their idiomatic nature, characterized by a lack of direct motivation or predictable meaning based on the individual words.

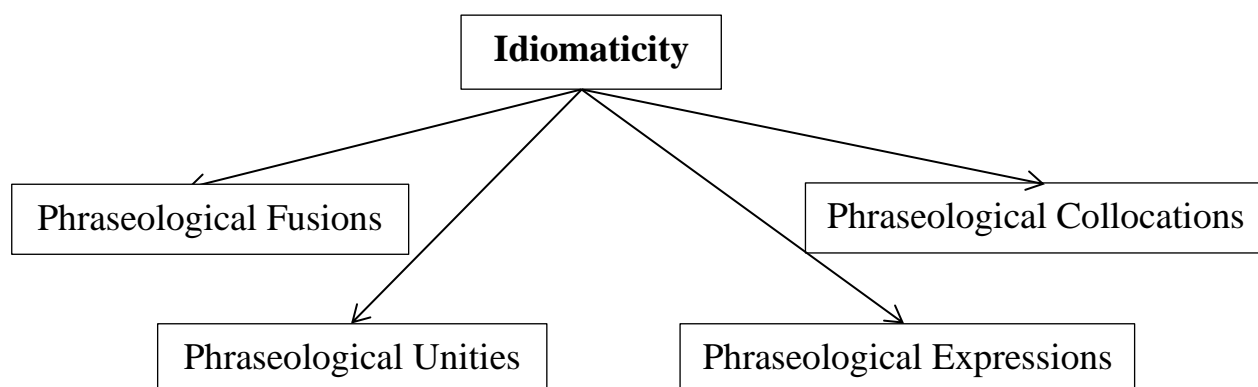
D. Crystal defined the idiom as “a term used in Grammar and Lexicology to refer to a sequence of words which is semantically and often syntactically restricted so that they function as a single unit.” (Crystal, 2003)

Another definition is given by A. Veisbergs: “A phraseological unit (PU) / phraseologism as a relatively stable combination of words with a completely or partially figurative meaning. ” (Veisbergs, 2013)

According to this definition he defines three main features of a PU:

- 1) it consists of at least two components (separability);
- 2) it is (relatively) stable;
- 3) at least one component is used figuratively.

There are different principles of classification of idioms: **the level of motivation / idiomaticity; part-of-speech formation.**

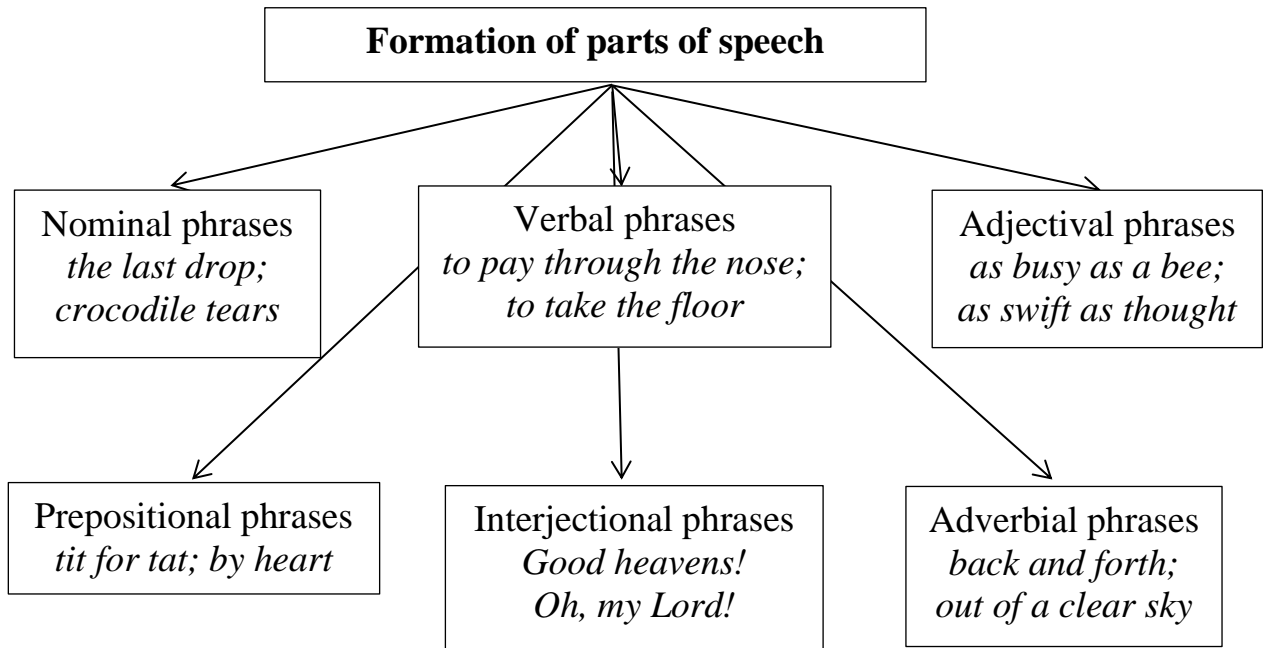


Phraseological fusions are entirely non-motivated word groups in which the meanings of individual components bear no relation to the overall meaning of the entire unit. These fusions signify the highest level of semantic integration, where the individual components' meanings are fully subsumed by the collective meaning of the whole, enriched by its expressive and emotional nuances. E.g. *kick the bucket – to die; to cry for the moon – to demand unreal; under the rose – quietly.*

Phraseological unities are considered partially non-motivated because their meaning can often be understood through the metaphorical sense of the entire expression. The meaning of the key word within the unity is not overly distant from its usual meanings. Instead, it develops as a result of the generalized figurative meaning derived from a free word combination. E.g. *to wash one's dirty linen in public*: the combined lexical meaning of the component words leads us to understand the literal meaning – *to discuss or make public one's quarrels*. More examples: *to come to one's sense – to change one's mind; show one's teeth – take a threatening tone or show an intention to injure.*

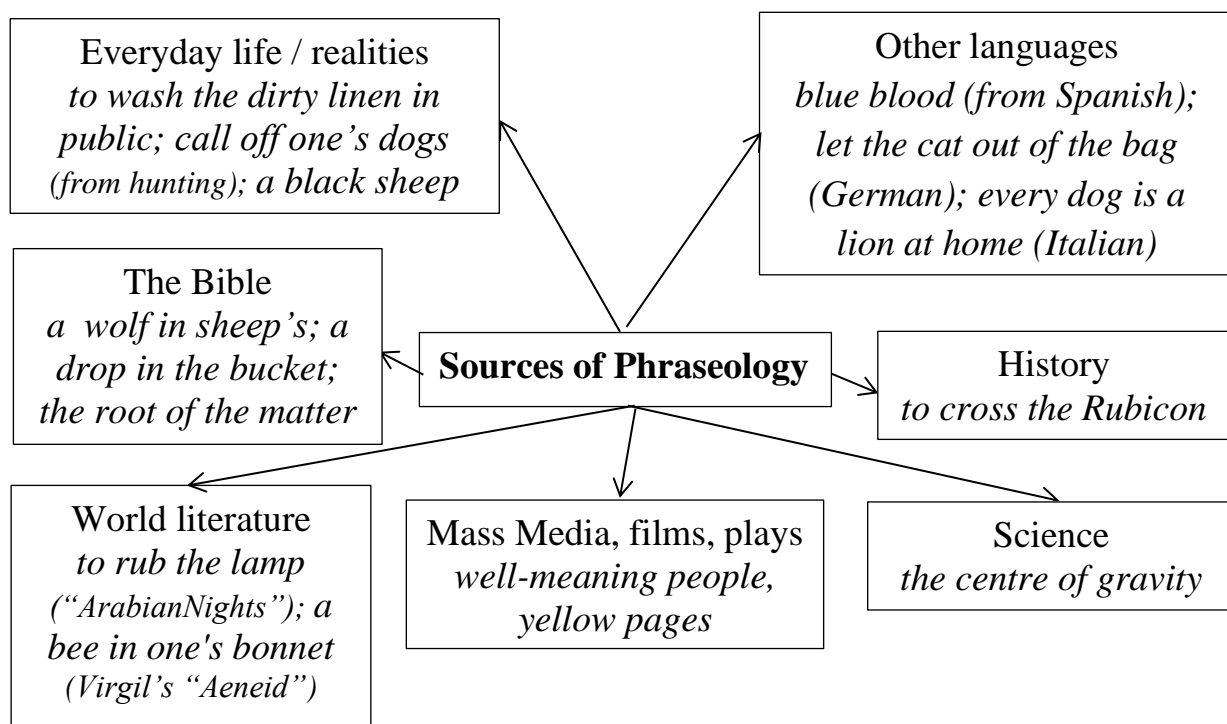
Phraseological collocations are not only driven by logic but also consist of one element used in its literal sense, while the other carries a figurative meaning, e.g. *take a fancy – to like; bear a grudge – be insulted or offended; to make an attempt – to try; to offer an apology – to beg pardon; to fall into a rage – to get angry.*

Phraseological expressions are stable constructions in both form and usage, semantically divisible into components that consist of words with independent meanings. Such expressions include proverbs, sayings, and aphorisms attributed to renowned politicians, writers, scientists, and artists. They are succinct statements that convey universal truths or wisdom commonly recognized by all. E.g. *Marriages are made in heaven; Still waters run deep; A friend in need is a friend indeed.*



The phraseological structure of a language serves as a reflection through which its linguistic and cultural community identifies its national essence—encompassing customs, traditions, historical milestones, and notable figures. In modern English, the origins of phraseological units are remarkably varied. Among the most significant sources are borrowings from **the Bible, literary masterpieces**, influences **from other languages**, and elements rooted in **real-world experiences**, and also **science, mass media, films** etc.

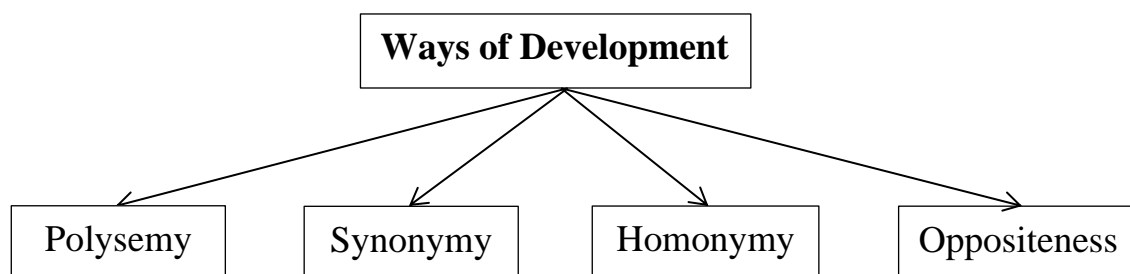
Iryna Svirepchuk points out phraseological units borrowed from American English as a separate source of borrowing, though she mentions that “phraseological units borrowed from the American English of the USA, unlike borrowings from foreign languages, are untranslatable, as they come to life within the framework of a single literary language (1st International Scientific and Practical Conference «Science and Education in Progress», 2022).



8. English Vocabulary as a System

The evolution of lexical meanings in any language is shaped by the intricate web of connections and relationships between words and various other linguistic elements.

There are four primary pathways through which lexical meanings develop:



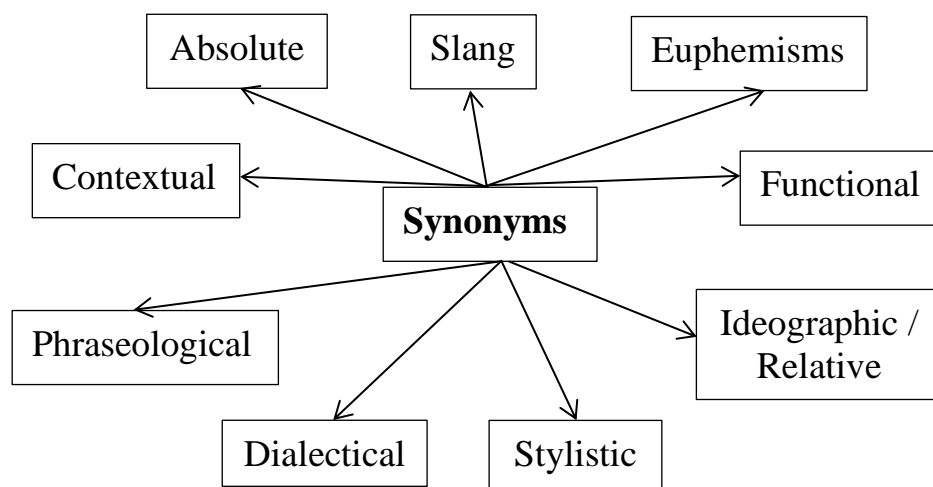
8.1. Synonymy

Synonymy is the relationship that exists between words with closely related meanings. The word comes from the Greek meaning *same name*. **Synonyms** are words within the same language and part of speech that share one or more identical or almost identical denotative meanings. They can often be used interchangeably in certain contexts without significantly changing the primary meaning. However, they may differ in their structure, pronunciation, nuances, connotations, stylistic applications, and idiomatic usage.

Other definitions:

- **Synonym** is one of two or more words or expressions of the same language that have the same or nearly the same meaning in some or all senses. (<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/synonym>)
- **Synonyms** are different words that have the same or similar meanings. They come in every part of speech, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions. (<https://www.grammarly.com/blog/grammar/synonyms/>)
- **Synonyms** have the same denotation but different connotations.

Synonyms break up into the following groups:



Absolute synonyms share identical meanings, carry the same connotations, and align within the same stylistic category, e.g. *moan = groan; homeland = motherland*.

Contextual synonyms are similar in meaning but only in a particular context, e.g. *to buy – to get: I'll go to the shop and get some bread*.

Phraseological synonyms share the same meanings and stylistic features but differ in how they connect with other words within a sentence, e.g. *to be late for a lecture* but *to miss the train*, *to visit museums* but *to attend lectures*.

Dialectical synonyms have identical meaning but are found in different variants of the language, e.g. *sweet - candy (BrE and AmE); autumn – fall; lift - elevator*.

Stylistic synonyms are words with similar meanings but are associated with different linguistic styles. They vary depending on the context, formality, or intent of communication, allowing for nuanced expression across diverse settings, e.g. *examination – exam; late – dead; to happen – to befall*. Other examples: (positive colouring): *What on earth is this?* – (negative colouring): *What the hell is this?* (positive): *to breathe one's last, to go to glory, to pass away* – (negative): *to kick the bucket, to hop over the perch; to turn up one's toes*.

Ideographic / Relative synonyms are different in shades of meaning. They bear the same idea but not identical in their referential content, e.g. *look – appearance – complexion – countenance; to happen – to occur / to chance* (the meaning of unexpectancy); *at last – at length* (the meaning of graduality); *to arrive at a conclusion / to draw a conclusion – to jump at a conclusion / to leap at a conclusion* (the meaning of hasteness).

Functional synonyms have identical meaning but different formation, e.g. *to look – to have a look; to work – to take a work*.

Slang synonyms, e.g. *head – attic – upper store*.

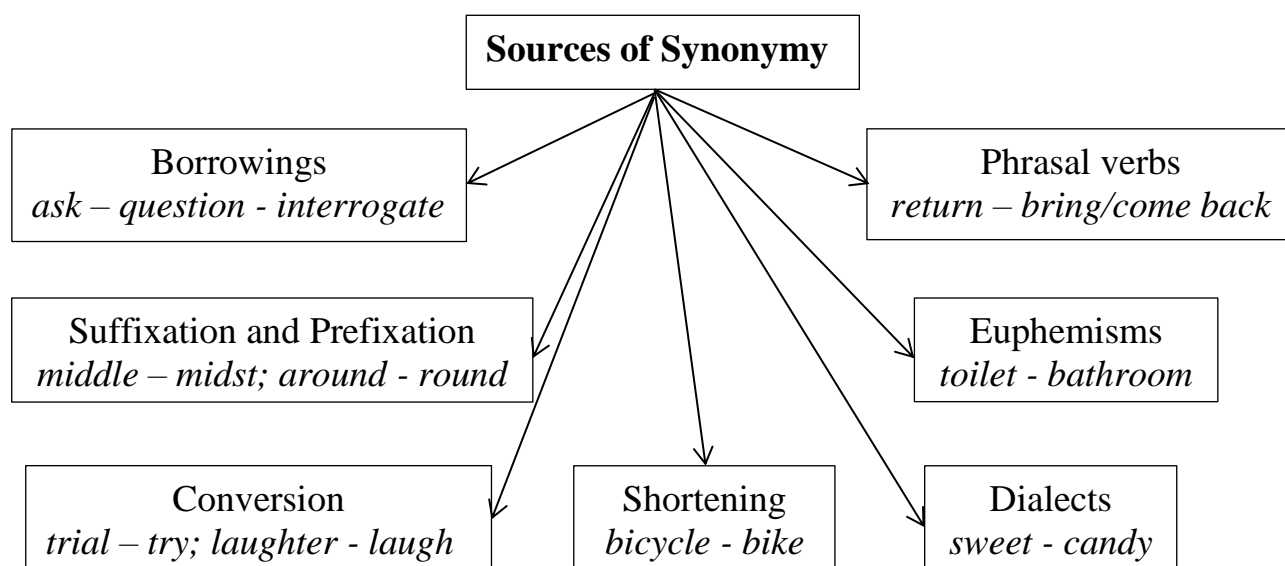
Euphemisms are terms that, through a shift in meaning, take on a less offensive tone and serve as substitutes for words that are harsh, obscene, or

indelicate, etc. E.g. *pregnant – in the family way; die – to join the majority, be gone, be no more, etc.*

There are also **synonymic phrases** that can be of two types:

a) similar in lexical elements but different in grammatical structure, e.g. *throw dust in somebody's eyes – throw dust in the eyes of somebody; meet somebody's ear – meet the ear of somebody*; and

b) similar in grammatical structure but different in lexical elements, e.g. *grate upon the ear – jar upon the ear; get one's hand in – have one's hand in – keep one's hand in*.



Synonymy should not be confused with other types of similarity between words, such as **lexical variants** and **paronyms**.

Lexical variants are free morphological, phonological or spelling variations in the language of an individual speaker. They differ from synonyms as they are defined by their similarity in pronunciation or spelling, as well as the alignment in both meaning and usage. E.g. *directly /di'rektli/ – /dai'rektli/; again /ə'gen/ – /ə'gein/; whiskey – whisky, etc.*

Paronyms are words that have different lexical meanings, but share similarities in pronunciation or spelling. E.g. *affect – effect; incident – accident; consequent – consequential, alternately – alternatively etc.*

Each group of synonyms includes a central element known as **the synonymic dominant** or **dominant synonym**. This term serves as the most general representation of the group, encompassing the specific characteristics shared by all other members. It conveys the core concept common to all synonyms in the group in a broad and universal manner, without adding details about aspects such as mode, intensity, or duration etc. E.g. in a group of synonyms *hope, expectation, anticipation* the synonymic dominant is *having something in mind which is likely to happen*. More examples: *to surprise – to astonish – to amaze – to astound; to tremble – to shiver – to shudder – to shake*.

The synonymic dominant should not be confused with a **generic term**, a **hypernym**, or a **superordinate**. A **hypernym** refers to the overarching concept, in contrast to the specific names of its subcategories, known as **hyponyms**. E.g. *parent – mother, father; animal – lion, dog, mouse, etc.*

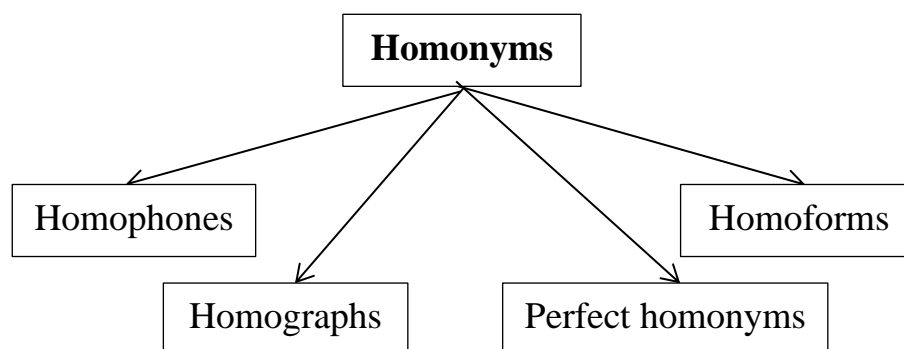
So, a **hypernym** (or a **superordinate term** / a **generic term**) is a word that represents a broad category or a general concept. It's like the big umbrella term that covers a group of related things. E.g., *fruit* is a hypernym where it encompasses various types of fruit, such as *apples, bananas, oranges, grapes, peaches* and *melons*.

A **hyponym** (or a **subordinate**), on the other hand, is a word that falls under a hypernym. It's a specific example or type within that broader category. In our previous example, *apples, bananas, oranges, grapes, peaches* and *melons* are hyponyms of the hypernym *fruit*.

8.2. Homonymy

The word *homonym* comes from the Greek meaning "having the same name", so **homonyms** are words that share the same sound, spelling, or both but have different meanings.

They can be categorized based on their spelling and pronunciation: **homophones, homographs, homoforms** and **perfect homonyms**.



Homophones are words that sound the same but have different spellings and meanings. E.g. *bear – bare; night – knight*.

Homographs are words that share the same spelling but differ in pronunciation, form, and meaning. E.g. *lead /lid/ - lead /led/; wind /wind/ - wind /waind/*.

Perfect homonyms are words that share the same pronunciation and spelling but have different meanings. E.g. *spring (весна) – spring (пружина) – spring (джерело) – spring (стрибати)*.

Homoforms are words that share the same spelling and pronunciation yet differ in their grammatical meanings. E.g. *empty (adj) – empty (v); work (n) – work (v)*.

Homonyms contrast with **paronyms**:

➤ **Paronyms**: words with similar sounds (because of their kindred origin) but different in usage and meanings. E.g.

- *loose* – (adjective) unattached, not joined

- *lose* – (verb) to not win

A loose wheel caused the driver to lose the race.

- *assure* – (verb) to give confidence to
- *ensure* – (verb) to guarantee
- *insure* – (verb) to provide for compensation if some specified risk occurs

I assure you that the company will ensure to insure your most valuable possessions.

➤ Homonyms: words that is spelled or pronounced in the same way but has a different meaning. E.g.

- *principal* – (noun) head of a school or organization; (adjective) primary, most important
- *principle* – (adjective) basic assumption, moral rule, rule or law of nature

The principal alphabetic principal places A before B.

Paronyms can fall into two groups:

- a) with common root but different derivational affixes: *affect* – *effect*; *alternately* – *alternatively*; *preposition* – *proposition*; *popular* – *populous*; *upmost* – *utmost*, etc.
- b) with different roots: *collision* – *collusion*; *compliment* – *complement*; *continuous* – *contiguous*; *excise* – *exercise*; etc.

Homonyms contrast with **polysemantic words**:

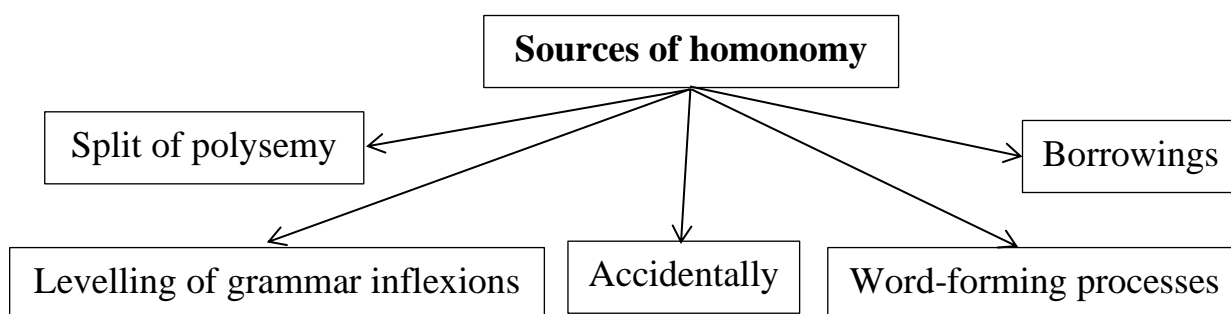
➤ Polysemy: one word with different but related meanings. E.g.

- *get* – (verb) bring; fetch (*I'll get the drinks*), become (*She got scared*), understand (*I've got it*) etc.

➤ Homonymy: different words with different unrelated meanings. E.g.

- *your* – denotes possession of something belonging to you
- *you're* – contraction of “you are”

You're your own worst enemy.



Split of polysemy is the result of divergent sense development. E.g. *pupil* (учень) – *pupil* (зіниця).

Levelling of grammar inflexions is the process when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. *care* from *caru* and *care* from *carian*.

Word-forming processes:

- suffixation. E.g. *reader* - a person who reads and a book for reading.
- shortening. E.g. *biology* and *biography* – *bio*.
- conversion E.g. *empty* – to empty; *water* – to water.

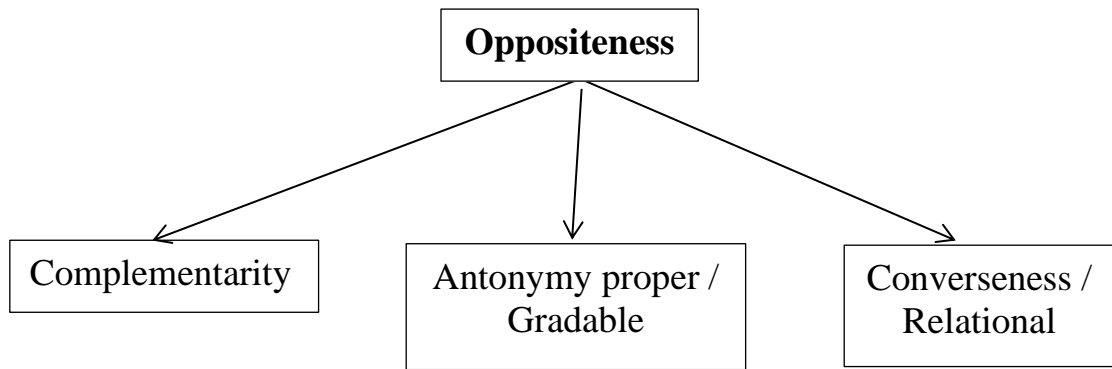
Homonyms can naturally emerge in a language when two words evolve independently but end up sharing the same form. E.g. *race* (гонка, from *French*) – *race* (паса, from *Norwegian*).

Borrowings. Two borrowings may overlap, e.g. *base* from the French *base* (Latin *basis*) and *base* (low) from the Latin *bas* (Italian *basso*).

8.3. Oppositeness

Opposite words are lexemes that belong to the same part of speech, share a similar style, and have almost identical usage in terms of distribution, yet convey opposing or contradictory meanings.

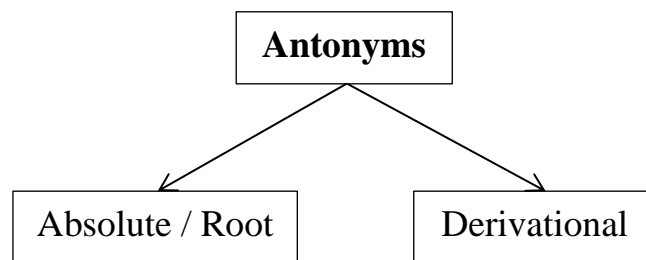
There are various types of opposites in the English language:



Antonyms proper or **gradable antonyms** express contrary notions which are mutually opposed, yet they are gradable. For instance, *old* and *young* represent the most extreme points on the spectrum *old – middle-aged – young*.

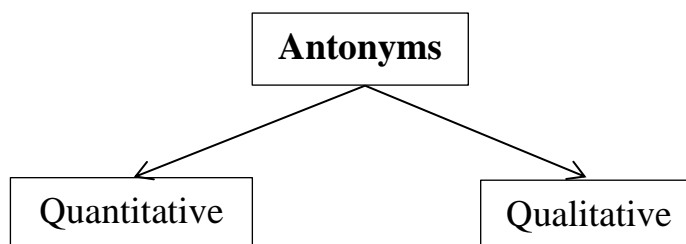
Antonyms proper can be categorized into the following groups:

➤ **on a morphological approach**



Absolute or **root** antonyms originate from entirely different roots. In contrast, **derivational** antonyms share the same root but differ in their affixes.. E.g. absolute: *good – bad*; derivational: *to understand – to misunderstand*.

➤ **on a quantitatively-qualitative approach**



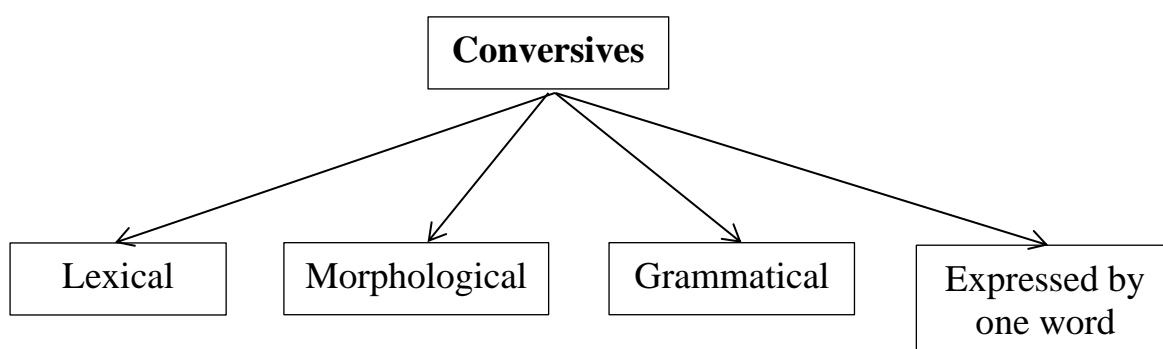
In case of **quantitative** antonymy two words are characterized by one feature but different quantity of it. E.g. *light – heavy* (the feature is *weight*); *tall – short* (the feature is *height*).

In case of **qualitative** antonymy we have different features, different qualities. E.g. *good – bad*; *to love – to hate*.

Converseness is a type of semantic opposition which is based on describing one and the same situation from different angles, from the point of view of different participants of the situation and their roles. They show a dependent relationship between opposite words. A word from the pair can't exist without the other. E.g. *husband – wife*; *front – back*; and *doctor – patient*; *to buy – to sell*; *to give – to take*; *left – right*.

Sometimes conversives are called **mirror-image relationship**.

Classification of conversives:



Lexical conversives are formed from different roots. E.g. *to buy – to sell*.

Morphological conversives are formed from the same root. E.g. *interesting – interested*; *worrying – worried*.

Grammatical conversives are based on the opposition between active and passive forms. E.g. *to write – to be written*.

Conversives in which the oppositeness of meaning is realized within the semantics of **one and the same word**. E.g. *to burn* (*підпалювати та зоріти*); *to smell*; *to taste*.

Complementarity is the type of semantic opposition where denying one concept automatically affirms the other, and the reverse holds true as well. These opposite words express contradictory notions, they don't have middle notions, e.g. *alive – dead*; *single – married*.

It is the type of oppositeness which is based on “**yes/no**”-**decision**. E.g. *male – female*; *boy – girl*; *married – single*.; *stay – leave*.

Complementaries are **not gradeable**.

Gradable antonyms do not contradict each other, but complementaries always do. E.g. *A small elephant is a large animal.* (possible) / *A male elephant is a female animal.* (not possible)

8.4. Polysemy

Polysemy refers to the presence of multiple meanings within a single word. It is a phenomenon that occurs exclusively in language, not in spoken communication. A word characterized by having several interrelated meanings is known as polysemantic. Some studies suggest that over 40% of English words possess more than one meaning. Polysemy is contrasted to monosemy, on the one hand, and homonymy, on the other.

Monosemy refers to a direct, one-to-one relationship between a word and its meaning. Most monosemantic words are found in specialized vocabulary dealing with scientific topics.

Polysemy vs Homonymy:

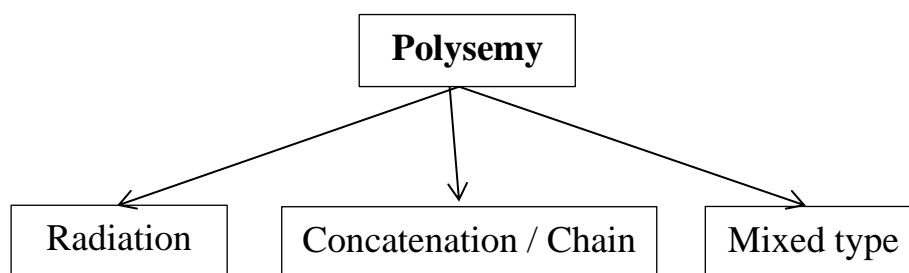
➤ A polysemic word will have a range of synonyms, each aligning with one of its distinct meanings. Moreover, it will also have a set of antonyms. It is

tempting to say that where the antonym is the same, there is polysemy, and the differences of antonyms will refer to homonymy (Palmer, 1995: 107)

➤ In polysemy, words are semantically related and sense variations typically originate from metaphoric usage; in homonymy, words are different in meanings which are not generally related (Ravin and Leacock, 2000: 2).

➤ In case of polysemy, words are registered in a dictionary as single entry and their multiple meanings are normally numbered serially with examples of usage in different contexts. Homonyms have separate entries in regular dictionary (Allan, 2001: 42-43)

There are three ways of a polysemantic development of a word:



Radiation occurs when the primary meaning serves as the core, while secondary meanings radiate outward like rays. Each secondary meaning can be linked back to the primary meaning. For example, in the word *face*, the primary meaning refers to *the front part of the human head*. Related to this core meaning—the concept of the front part—various secondary meanings have evolved, such as *the front of a watch*, *the facade of a building*, or *the front side of a playing card*. Additionally, stemming directly from the primary meaning of *face* itself, secondary meanings like *facial expression* and *outward appearance* emerged.

Concatenation or **chain polysemy** occurs when the secondary meanings of a word emerge sequentially, resembling a chain. This progression often makes it challenging to trace certain meanings back to the original one. For example, with the word *crust*, the primary meaning of *the hard outer part of bread* evolved into the secondary meaning of *the hard exterior of anything, such as a pie or a cake*.

Later, it developed into the meaning of *a hard layer over soft snow*, followed by the sense of *a sullen, gloomy person*, and eventually the meaning of *impudence*. In such cases, the homonyms appear in the language. This phenomenon is referred to as the split of polysemy.

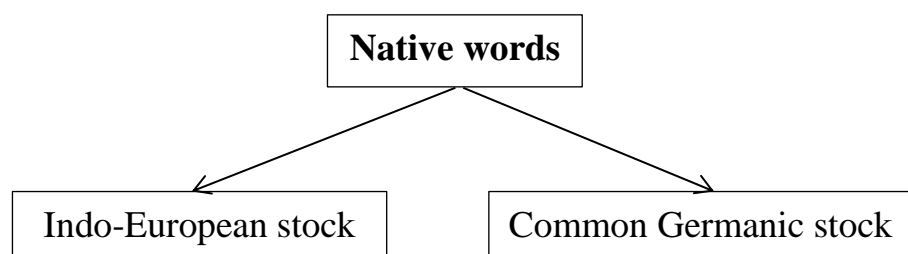
Typically, the semantic evolution of a word involves a combination of both pathways of development. So, **mixed** type is the most common one. E.g. *to dress*: the first center – *to cover the body*. Meanings formed from this center: *We don't dress for dinner nowadays*; *The princess is dressed by the best designers*; *to dress the ballet*; *to dress the wound*. The second center – *to get smb ready for smth*. Meanings formed from this center: *to dress smb's hair* (зачісувати); *to dress a chicken* (випатрати); *to dress a horse* (почистити); *to dress a salad* (додати спецій); *to dress soldiers* (проводити огляд військ); *to dress leather* (обробляти шкіру); *to dress a stone* (ограновувати).

9. Native Vocabulary and Borrowings

9.1. Native Words

A **native word** refers to a lexeme that is part of the original English vocabulary, traceable back to the earliest manuscripts from the Old English period.

These native words can be categorized into two major groups, with the oldest layer consisting of words of **Indo-European origin**.



Words of the Indo-European origin include nouns, belonging to different semantic groups: terms of kinship (*father, mother, son, daughter*); objects and

phenomena of nature (*sun, moon, star, water, tree, stone, wind*); names of animals and birds (*cat, crow, wolf*); parts of human body (*arm, ear, eye, heart*); *etc*; adjectives, denoting physical properties (*hard, quick, slow, red*); and most of the numerals.

Words of the **Common Germanic origin** constitute a significantly larger portion of the native vocabulary. Here belong the nouns of different semantic groups (*summer, winter, bridge, house, shop, coal, iron, cloth, ice, ground, hope, life, rest*); the verbs (*burn, buy, hear, keep, make, meet*); adjectives (*broad, dead, deaf*); adverbs; pronouns.

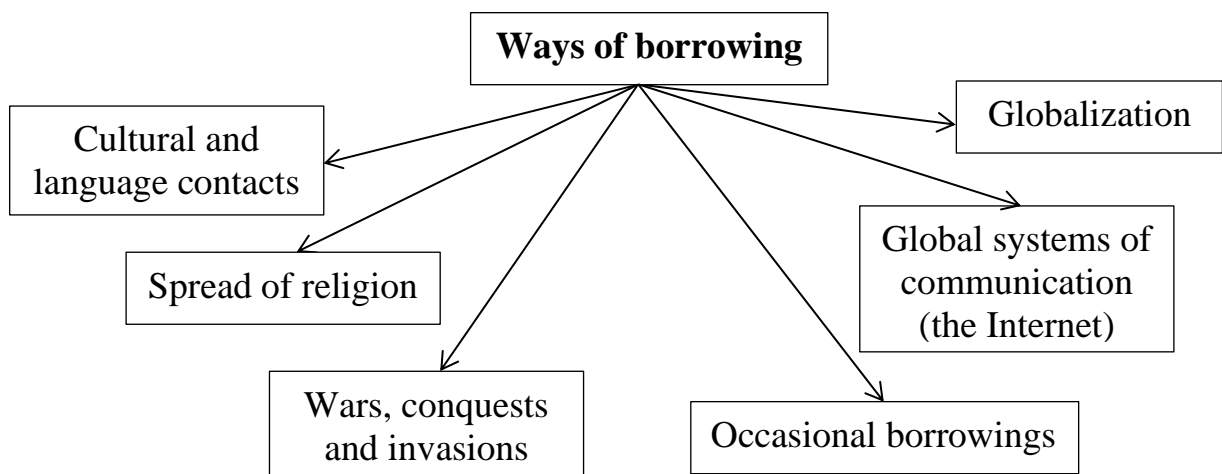
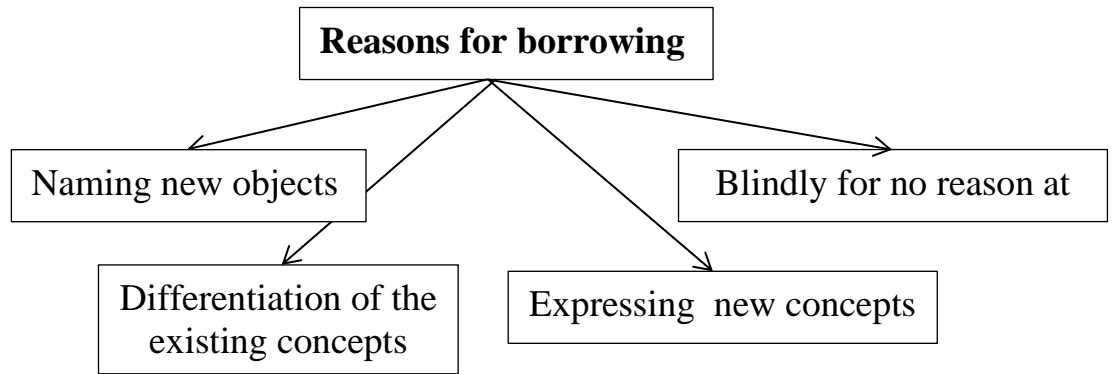
9.2. Borrowings

A **loanword**, also known as a **borrowed word** or **borrowing**, refers to a lexeme adopted from another language and altered in its phonetic structure, spelling, grammatical form, or meaning to align with the conventions of the English language. As lexicographer Kory Stamper explains, “English has been borrowing words from other languages since its infancy.” (2018) As many as 350 other languages are represented and their linguistic contributions actually make up about 80% of English!

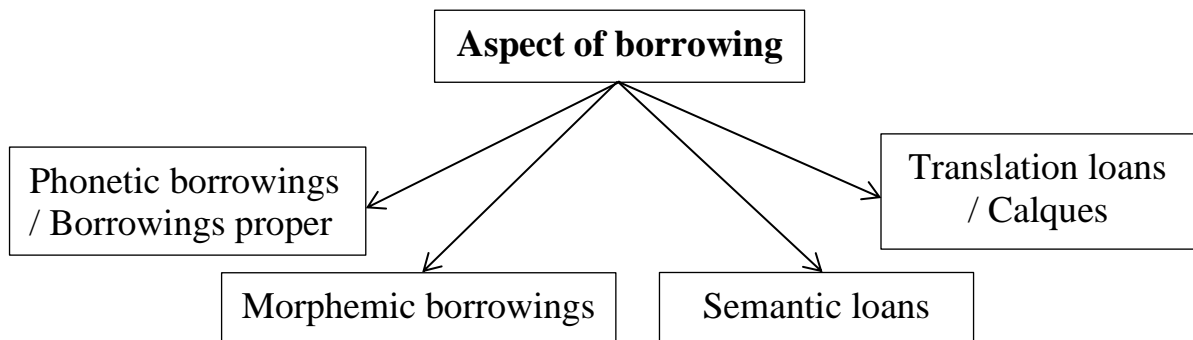
It is important to differentiate between the concepts of **source of borrowing** and **origin of borrowing**.

The **source of borrowing** refers to the language from which a loanword was adopted into English, while the **origin of borrowing** pertains to the language from which the word can be traced back.

E.g. *paper* – *papier* (Fr) – *papyrus* (Lat) – *papyrus* (Gr). The source of borrowing in this case is French, and the origin of borrowing is Greek.



Loan words can be categorized based on various criteria.: according to **the borrowed aspect**; according to **the degree of assimilation**; according to **the language from which the words were borrowed**.



Phonetic borrowings, or **true borrowings**, or **borrowings proper** refer to words taken from another language and adapted to varying degrees. These words are adopted along with their spelling, pronunciation, and meaning. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Often, loanwords are borrowed from geographically and culturally distant languages and this process is the consequence of some form of language contact, whether it be through conquest, trade, migration, or interactions between speakers of different languages. When a loanword is first borrowed, it can be subject to adaptation in terms of pronunciation, spelling and meaning. In a borrowed word, each sound is replaced by the equivalent sound from the borrowing language. Occasionally, the spelling may be altered as well. The word's structure can also undergo modifications. The placement of stress is frequently affected by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. Additionally, the word's paradigm and, in some instances, its meaning may also change. Such words as: *labour, travel, table, chair, people* are phonetic borrowings from French; *bank, soprano, duet* are phonetic borrowings from Italian, etc.

Translation loans, also known as **calques**, involve translating foreign words or expressions literally, either word-for-word or morpheme-for-morpheme. This process entails taking a word or phrase from one language and translating it into another, where the entire translated term is integrated into the second language without using its individual components separately. In these instances, the concept is borrowed from a foreign language but is articulated using native lexical units, e.g. *take the bull by the horns* (from Latin: *tollesque taurum cornu*); *living space* (from German: *Lebensraum*); *masterpiece* (from German: *Meisterwerk*); *superman* (from German: *Übermensch*); *with a grain of salt* (from Latin: *cum grano salis*); *that goes without saying* (from French: *cela va sans dire*); etc. Certain translation loans from Latin began to emerge in English during the Old English period, e.g. *Sunday* (*solis dies*).

English words can also be borrowed to other languages through translation loans. An example can be the English loan translation *attorney general* to the Chinese 司法部長 (pronounced as *si fa bu zhang*), which literally means *justice department leader*.

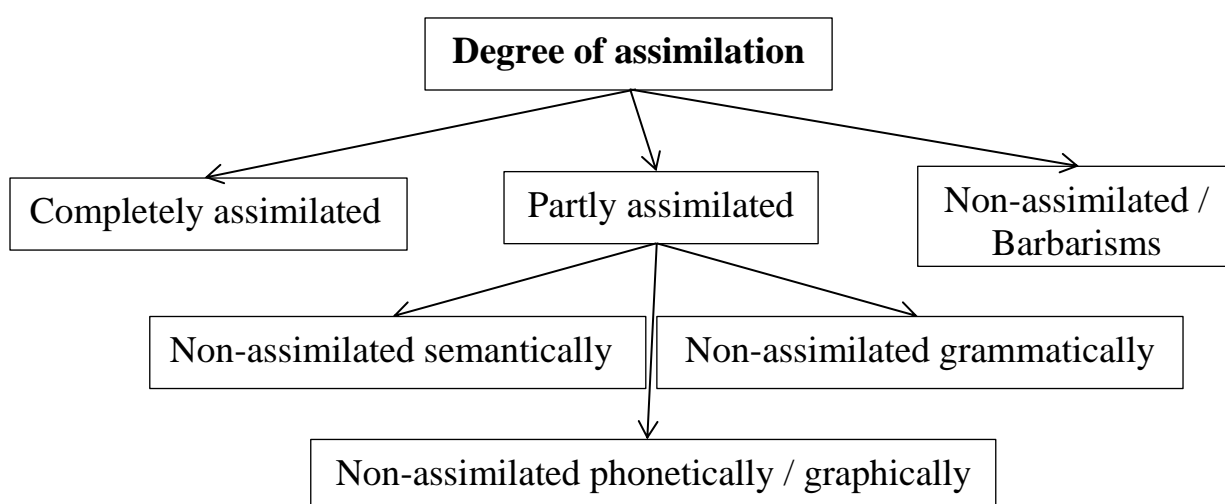
Semantic borrowings refer to instances where a new meaning is adopted for an existing unit in a language. This process involves borrowing semantic meanings from another language and typically occurs between two related languages that share common vocabulary. In this case, the word in the recipient language already exists, and the change is that **its meaning is extended** to include another additional meaning. E.g.: the English verb *to realize* has two meanings: *to make something happen* and *to become aware of something*; in the German language the word *realisieren* originally meant *to make something real* and German borrowed the other meaning, so today it has the two meanings like in the English language.

Semantic borrowing occurs when an English word is adopted by another language, takes on a new meaning there, and then that new meaning is reintroduced into English. For example, the word *brigade* was borrowed into Russian, where it evolved to mean a working collective, *бригада*. This new meaning was then borrowed back into English as a Russian loanword. The same process applies to the English word *pioneer*.

Morphemic borrowings refer to the adoption of affixes, which involves the transfer of grammatical morphemes—such as inflections, derivations, and function words—from one language to another due to language contact. This process allows the morphemic structure of borrowed terms to become recognizable to speakers of the borrowing language. As a result, English contains numerous Romance affixes within its word-building system, leading to a significant number of hybrid words where the morphemes originate from different languages, e.g. *goddess*, *beautiful*, *etc.*

The **assimilation process** of borrowed words involves several changes, including alterations in sound, spelling, morphological structure, grammatical features, meaning, and usage. The extent to which borrowed words are assimilated is influenced by several factors:

- a) The language group from which the word is borrowed. Words taken from a language within the same group as the borrowing language tend to be assimilated more easily.
- b) The method of borrowing: whether the word is acquired orally or in written form. Oral borrowings are typically assimilated more rapidly.
- c) The frequency of usage of the borrowed word within the language. The more frequently a word is used, the faster it becomes assimilated.
- d) The duration of the word's presence in the language. The longer a word remains in use, the more fully it is assimilated.



Fully assimilated borrowings are not perceived as foreign terms within the language. For instance, the French word *sport* and the native word *start* are examples of this. Fully assimilated verbs function as regular verbs, such as *correct* becoming *corrected*. Similarly, fully assimilated nouns form their plurals using the s-inflexion, as seen in *gate* becoming *gates*. In the case of completely assimilated

French words, the stress shifts from the final syllable to the last but one syllable. E.g.: *husband* (Scand.), *face, table, capital, service* (Fr.).

Partly assimilated borrowings can be categorized into main groups:

a) **Semantically non-assimilated** borrowings, which refer to objects and concepts unique to the culture of the source language, such as *sari, sombrero, taiga*, and *toreador*.

b) **Grammatically non-assimilated** borrowings, where nouns taken from Latin and Greek maintain their original plural forms, e.g. *bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum - data, genius – genii, analysis - analyses etc.*

c) **Phonetically or graphically non-assimilated** borrowings.

Certain French borrowings have maintained their stress on the final syllable, e.g. *police, cartoon*. Certain French loanwords preserve unique sound combinations, e.g. *camouflage, bourgeois, memoir, boulevard*.

In Greek borrowings *y* can be spelled in the middle of the word e.g. *symbol, synonym*; *ph* denotes the sound /f/, e.g. *phoneme, morpheme*; *ch* denotes the sound /k/ *chemistry, chaos*; *ps* denotes the sound /s/ *psychology*.

Latin borrowings maintain their polysyllabic form, typically feature double consonants, and the final consonant of the prefix is usually assimilated with the initial consonant of the root, e.g. *accompany, affirmative*.

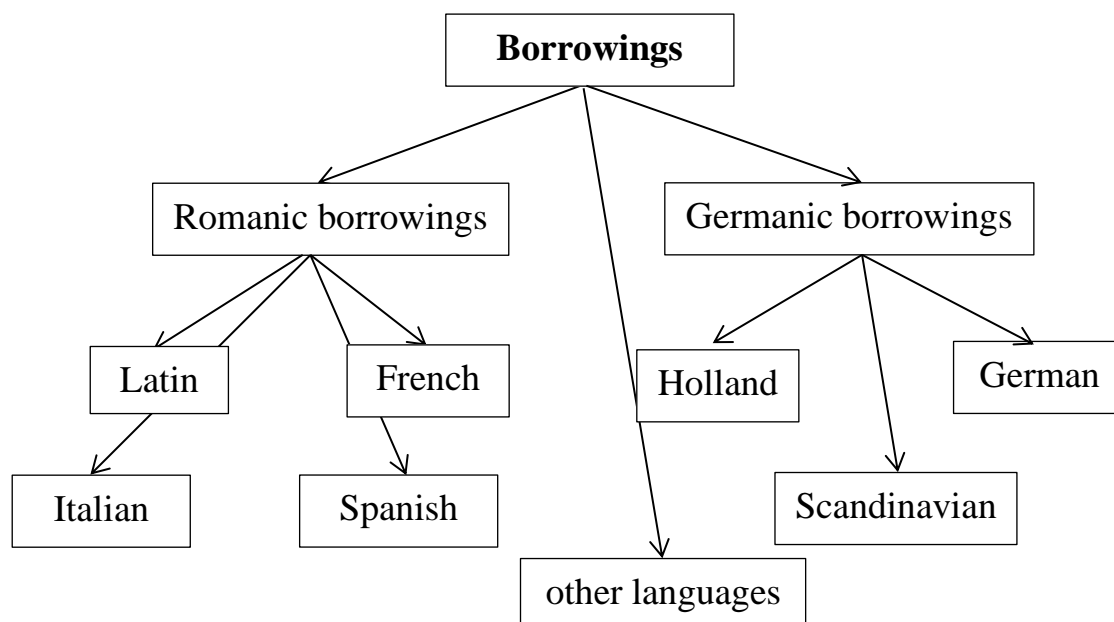
French words that entered the English language after 1650 maintain their original spelling; for instance, the consonants *p, t, and s* are not pronounced at the end of the word, e.g. *buffet, coup, debris*, Specifically French combination of letters *eau* can be found in the borrowings *beau* /bəʊ/, *chateau* /'ʃætəʊ/, *trousseau* /'tru:səʊ/. Some of digraphs maintain their French pronunciation: *ch* is pronounced as /ʃ/, e.g. *chic, parachute*; *qu* is pronounced as /k/ e.g. *bouquet*; *ou* is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. *rouge*.

Contemporary German loanwords exhibit certain unique characteristics in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e.g. *Autobahn, Lebensraum*; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e.g. *a*

is pronounced as /æ/, e.g. *Dictat* /'dik.tæt/; *u* is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. *Kuchen* /'ku:hən/; *au* is pronounced as /aʊ/, eg. *Hausfrau* /'haʊs fʁaʊ/; *ei* is pronounced as /ai/ *Reich* /raɪk/; some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e.g. *s* before a vowel is pronounced as /z/, e.g. *Sitzkrieg*; *v* is pronounced as /f/, e.g. *Volkswagen*; *w* is pronounced as /v/; *ch* is pronounced as /h/, e.g. *Kuchen*.

Non-assimilated borrowings or **barbarisms** are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. *addio* (Italian), *tete-a-tete* (French), *dolce vita* (Italian), *duende* (Spanish), *a home, a femme* (French), *gonzo* (Italian), *Alma mater* (Latin) etc.

It is often claimed that only a small number of words in the English language are truly original, with the majority being borrowed from other languages. Significant contributions have come from Latin, Greek, and French, particularly as a result of the Norman invasion in 1066. Borrowed words can be classified based on their source languages into the following groups:



E.g., *machine, garage, beauty* (French); *kimono, sudoku, tycoon* (Japanese); *ketchup, tea, feng-shui* (Chinese); *coffee, lemon, banana* (Arabic); *vanilla, cigar, platinum* (Spanish); *pasta; spaghetti, gallery* (Italian); *hamburger, kindergarten,*

rucksack (German); *vine, cheese, school, church, character, anthropology, biology, de facto* (Latin / Greek); *fellow, husband, skin, slang, window, fog* (Scandinavian)

9.3. Etymological Doublets

Occasionally, a word is borrowed from the same language on two separate occasions. This leads to the creation of two distinct words that have different spellings and meanings, yet they both trace their origins back to a single word. These types of words are referred to as **etymological doublets** or **twins**. Some examples are: the word *diamond* is a **doublet** of *adamant*, the two words having come ultimately from the same Greek source, *adamantos*; *abbreviate* and *abridge* (from Latin, *abbreviare*, “to shorten”); *capture, catch, chase* (from Latin, *capere*, “to hold, seize”); *guard* and *ward* (from *Germanic* word meaning “to defend”); *cartoon* and *carton* are doublets, having Italian *cartone*, meaning “pasteboard,” as a common source, etc.

There are also etymological doublets that were borrowed from the same language at different points in history, such as from the French word *gentil* – *люб’язний, шляхетний* etymological doublets are: *gentle* – *м’який, ввічливий* and *genteel* - *шляхетний*. From the French word *gallant* etymological doublets are: *'gallant* - *хоробрий* and *ga'llant* - *галантний, лицарський*.

Etymological doublets can occasionally arise from the borrowing of different grammatical forms of the same word. For instance, the comparative form of the Latin word *super*, which is *superior*, was adopted into English, carrying the meaning of *being high in quality or rank*. The *superlative degree* (Latin *supremus*) was adopted into English as *supreme* with the meaning *outstanding, prominent*. So *superior* and *supreme* are etymological doublets.

Doublets can result from various changes within English itself. E.g.:

✓ loss of the initial syllable: *abet* – *bet*; *defence* – *fence*; *Egyptian* – *gypsy*; *especially* – *specially*; *estate* – *state*; *example* – *sample*; *history*; *story*.

✓ change/loss of vowel: *an* – *one*; *borne* – *born*; *shade* – *shed*; *snob* – *snub*; *through* – *thorough*.

✓ change of consonant: *cud* – *quid*; *kill* – *quell*; *scrub* – *shrub*; *stitch* – *stick*.

✓ change of stress: *gentle* – *genteel*; *divers* – *diverse*.

✓ revival of an older form: *fancy* – *fantasy*; *Frank* – *French*; *later* – *latter*.

✓ creation of a clipped form: *omnibus* – *bus*; *cabriolet* – *cab*; *cadet* – *cad*; *caravan* – *van*.

Occasionally we have three words, or a **triplet**, from the same source, as in *hostel* (from Old French), *hospital* (from Latin), and *hotel* (from modern French), all derived from the Latin *hospitale*; *captain*, *chief*, *chef* - all three derive historically from *cap*, a Latin word element meaning ‘head’; *estate* – *state* – *status* (Latin), etc.

9.4. International Words and False Friends

Words that share the same origin and appear in multiple languages due to simultaneous or successive borrowings from a common source are referred to as **international words**.

These words hold significant importance in various terminological systems, particularly within the fields of science, industry, and art. E.g. *allegro*; *aria*; *concert*; *opera*; *algorithm*; *antibiotic*; *gene*; *quant*; *anaconda*; *orang-outang*, etc.

International terms should not be confused with what are known as **false friends**. **False friends** are word pairings in two different languages that appear to have a similar phonetic form, but in reality, have entirely different meanings, origins, and spelling. Such words deceive you into thinking they are proper

translations of words from your native language. More technically they are known as **bilingual homophones**.

False friends can appear in different ways.

a) When a word suddenly gets different meanings in two languages, although they have the same origin and appear alike, it is because language is a living organism and under constant change.

b) However, a false friend can also arise even if the words do not have the same origin or are loaned from the same language. This is the case when pronunciation and spelling changes over time, making the words look alike.

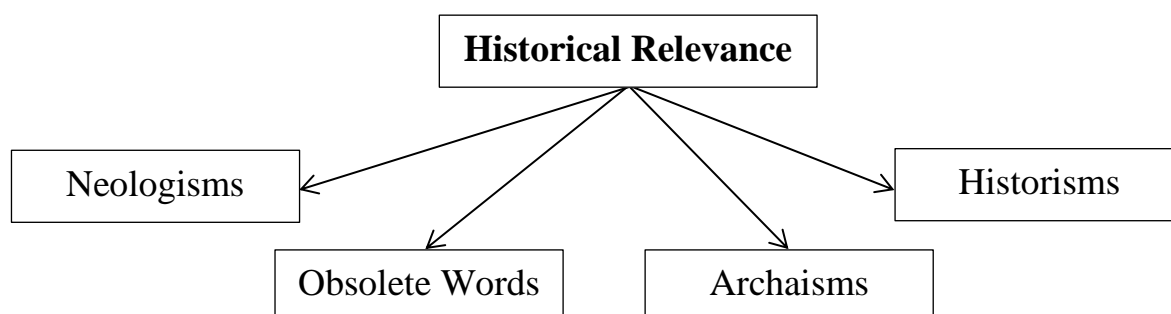
E.g.:

- *actuellement* (Fr. – *at the moment*) vs. *actually* (Eng. – *in reality*)
- *librairie* (Fr. – *a book shop*) vs. *library* (Eng. – *a place where books are borrowed*)
- *sensible* (Fr. – *sensitive or emotional*) vs. *sensible* (Eng. – *prudent or reasonable*)

More examples: *velvet* – *оксамит*; *magazine* – *журнал*; *data* – *дані, інформація*; *intelligent* – *розумний*; *accurate* – *точний*; *examine* – *досліджувати, обстежувати*.

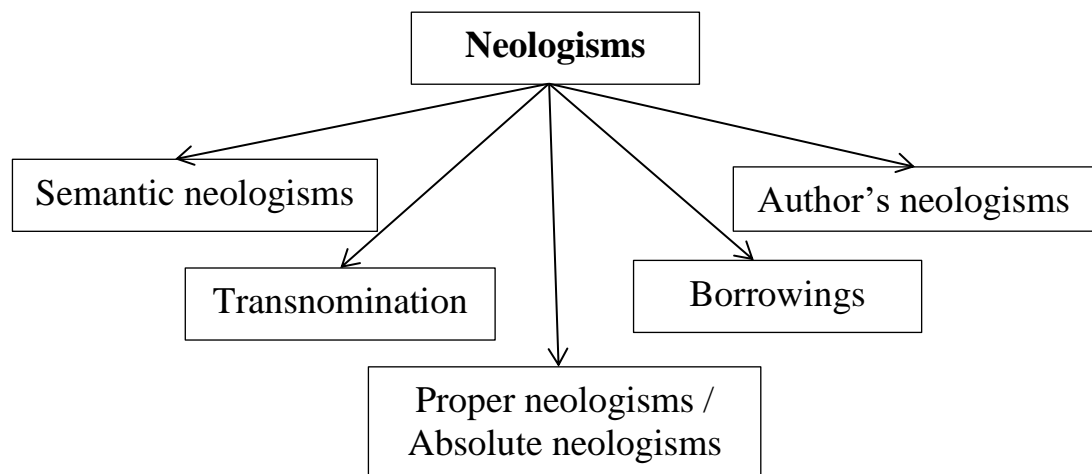
10. Changeability of the English Word-Stock

English words can be examined through the lens of their historical significance. In this context, they can be categorized into several groups.



New concepts continually emerge, necessitating the creation of new terms to describe them. These terms are developed for various new items, regardless of their significance. Therefore, a **neologism** refers to a newly invented word or phrase, a fresh meaning assigned to an existing word, or a term borrowed from another language. E. g. *workaholic*; *automation*; *radar*; *brain-drain*; *nuclear war*, *etc.*

Neologisms can appear in the following ways:



When a lexical unit in a language undergoes a change in meaning to refer to a new object or phenomenon, we encounter **semantic neologisms**. For instance, the word *umbrella* has evolved to signify meanings such as *aviation cover*, *political cover*, and *a hyperonym*.

Additionally, a new lexical unit may emerge to represent an object or phenomenon that already has an existing term. This process is known as **transnomination**. For example, the term *slum* was initially replaced by *ghetto*, and later by the phrase *inner town*.

Furthermore, a new lexical unit can be introduced to signify a completely new object or phenomenon. In this scenario, we have **proper neologisms**, **absolute neologisms** or **non-motivated neologisms**, which are numerous instances of new terminology. E.g. *nylon*, *metrosexual*, *zipper*, *noob*, *etc.*

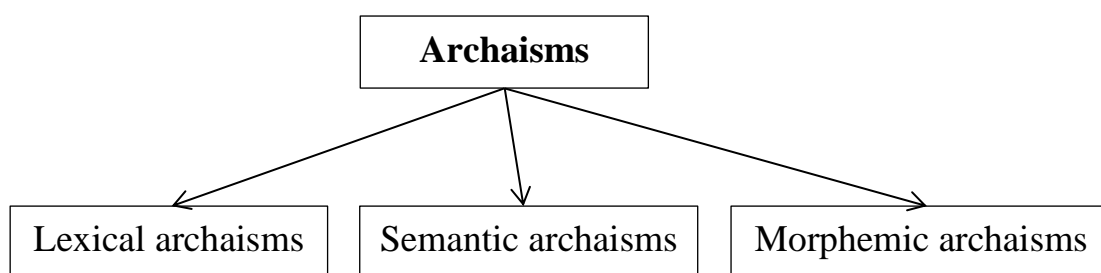
Words from other languages or variants of English can be **borrowed** to name new things. E.g. *superman* (German); *gimmick* (the American literary slang).

Author's neologisms are words created by authors and scientists. E.g. *lilliput* (by J. Swift); *Banana Republic* (by O. Henry), *freelance* (by W. Scott), *feminist* (by A. Dumas), *twitter* (by G. Chaucer), *Oxbridge* (by W. Thackeray).

Obsolete words are words that dropped out from the language, e.g. *corrade* - to gather together from various sources; *kench* - to laugh loudly; *jollux* - a fat person; *yemeles* - careless, heedless, negligent, etc.

Archaisms are words that were once widely used but have since been supplanted by synonyms. While these terms still exist in the language, they are often employed as stylistic elements to convey a sense of formality or gravity.

Archaisms are subdivided into the following groups:



Many of these terms are **lexical archaisms**, serving as stylistic synonyms for words that have replaced them in neutral language. Examples include: *steed* (for horse), *slay* (for kill), *behold* (for see), *perchance* (for perhaps), and *woe* (for sorrow).

Occasionally, a lexical archaism takes on a new life by acquiring a different meaning, while its original meaning becomes a **semantic archaism**. For instance, *fair* in the sense of *beautiful* is a semantic archaism, whereas in the context of *blond*, it fits within the neutral style.

In some cases, the root of a word remains intact while the affix changes, leading to the old affix being classified as a **morphemic archaism**, e.g. in

beauteous - *-ous* was substituted by *-ful*; in *bepaint* *be-* was dropped; in *darksome* *-some* was dropped; etc.

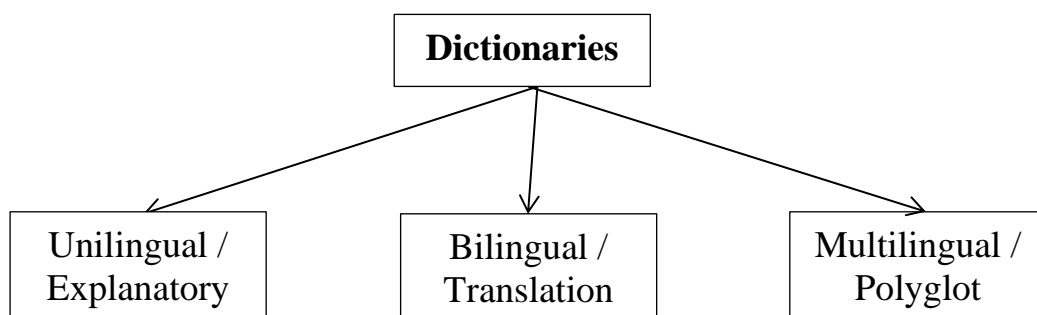
When the reasons for a word's disappearance are external to language—such as when the item it refers to is no longer in use—the word transforms into a **historism**. Historisms are abundant, particularly as names for social relations, institutions, and material culture from the past., e.g. *calash*; *diligemce*; *sword*; *feudalism*, etc.

Both archaisms and historisms are words that survive only in special contexts.

11. Lexicography

Lexicography is the art that encompasses both the theory and practice of creating dictionaries.

According to the language(s) used dictionaries fall into two groups:

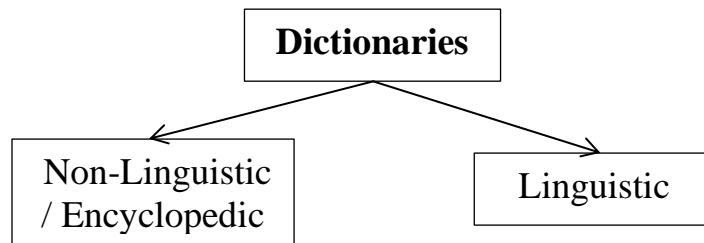


Unilingual or **explanatory dictionaries** contain words and their definitions in the same language.

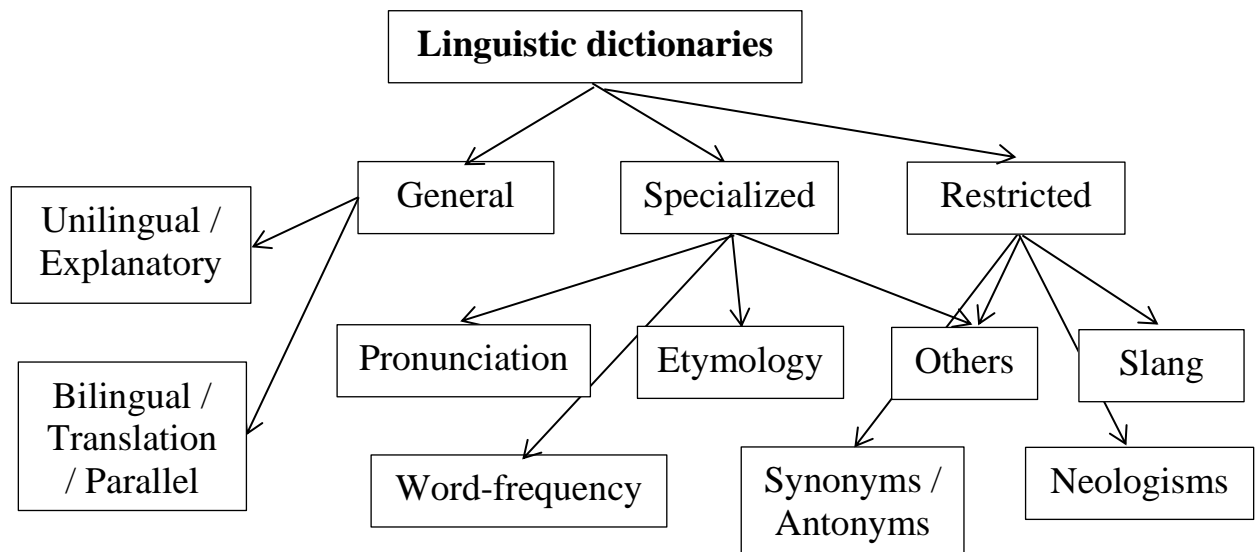
Bilingual or **translation dictionaries** provide explanations of words by offering their equivalents in a different language.

Multilingual or **polyglot dictionaries** are less common and are designed to compare synonyms and terminology across multiple languages.

All dictionaries can be classified in the following way:



Linguistic dictionaries can be subdivided further on.



Non-linguistic or **encyclopedic dictionaries** focus on facts and concepts rather than words. They provide descriptions of various objects, phenomena, and individuals, along with relevant information about them. Encyclopedic dictionaries are **thing**-books dealing with concepts (objects and phenomena, their origin and development, etc.)

E.g. *influenza* – causes, symptoms, treatments and remedies, etc.

Linguistic dictionaries provide descriptions of vocabulary units, including their meanings, origins, and usage. Typically, words are arranged in alphabetical order. So, linguistic dictionaries are **word**-books dealing with vocabulary units (semantic structure, usage, etc.)

E.g. *influenza* – spelling, pronunciation, morphological characteristics, derivatives, synonyms, etc.

General dictionaries can be categorized into two main **types: explanatory dictionaries** and **translation dictionaries**.

Explanatory dictionaries provide entries that include spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, and phraseology. They are monolingual dictionaries. Here also belong **Learner's dictionaries**. They started to emerge in the latter half of the 20th century, with *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary* by A.S. Hornby being the most well-known. This unilingual dictionary is designed for advanced foreign learners and language instructors, providing information on the grammatical and lexical valency of words.

Other examples: *Collins English Dictionary*; *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, etc.

Translation dictionaries provide words along with their corresponding equivalents in another language. E.g.: *Modern English-Ukrainian Dictionary*

Restricted dictionaries Restricted dictionaries contain only a specific portion of the vocabulary. There are such dictionaries as of **synonyms, antonyms, collocations, neologisms, slang, phraseological units, foreign words, terminology**, etc.

Dictionaries of synonyms or / and antonyms are widely used, among them is *A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions* by R. Soule. Another famous one is *Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms*. These are unilingual dictionaries. Also, wide-known is online *Synonyms Antonyms Dictionary*. Such dictionaries are commonly known as thesauruses. We use a general explanatory dictionary to look up the meaning of a particular word, what part of speech it is, its morphological characteristics etc. A **thesaurus** is a reference book that provides several similar alternative words (synonyms) and related concepts, as well as contrasting words (antonyms). A thesaurus is also a useful resource when you know the meaning of the word but not the word itself.

Phraseological dictionaries provide descriptions of idioms, colloquial expressions, and proverbs. Many of these dictionaries include examples from literary works. The online *Free Farlex Dictionary of Idioms* is the largest collection of English idioms and slang in the world. It contains more than 60,000 entries – idioms, slang terms, phrasal verbs, proverbs, clichés, regionalisms, colloquialisms, expressions, sayings, abbreviations, and more. Along with the idiom definitions, there are thousands of example sentences illustrating how the idioms are used by native speakers in everyday speech.

Specialized dictionaries provide information limited to one particular aspect. They include dictionaries of **word-frequency, pronunciation, etymology,** and others.

Etymological dictionaries explore the origins of contemporary words, linking them to their earliest forms and their equivalents in other languages. One of the most notable etymological dictionaries was created by *W. Skeat, A Concise Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*.

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D. Jones's *English Pronouncing Dictionary*. This classic pronouncing dictionary is the ultimate guide to pronunciation in English. The present-day edition is the 17th one, which includes thousands of pronunciations not shown in general dictionaries.

A fresh concept in dictionary creation are dictionary books called **language activators**. These activators assist students in expanding their vocabulary by leading them from essential keywords and fundamental concepts to the precise word or phrase required for a specific context or situation, ensuring that their English sounds natural. E.g.: *Longman Language Activator*

The advancement of information technology has resulted in the creation of **electronic / online computer dictionaries**. These dictionaries can be found on

CDs and installed on your computer, allowing for quick searches of the desired entries. Nearly all types of dictionaries mentioned earlier are now available in electronic formats.

A clear benefit of online dictionaries is that their content is continuously updated, ensuring users have access to the most current version.

TASKS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Divide the following words into morphemes. Analyze them according to their meaning and mode of functioning.

• enrich • foolishness • assistant • foresee • unpleasantness • famous • lucky • trustworthy • snowwhiteness • taking • old-maidish • chairman • look • shoemakers • shockproof • hyperslow • businessliking • half-baked • babylike • steadiness • unmistakable • cowboy • prejudged • wellknown • playboys • biped • praiseworthy • waterproof • small • irresponsibility • purified • afterthought • hopelessly • manhood

2. Find roots in the following words. Identify their meanings. Give other English words with the same root.

• revise • contradict • regress • intervene • inspect • oppose • portable • rupture • annual • oracle • audition • aquatic • manuscript

3. Comment on the cases of conversion. State to what part of speech these words belong.

1. Occasional new arrivals were roomed now by bellboys. (A. Hailey) 2. Now, this was a first for me. (E. Gilbert) 3. The Duke of Croydon was said to be soon named British Ambassador to Washington. (A. Hailey) 4. British nobility seldom tipped, thinking, perhaps, that the privilege of waiting on them was a reward in itself. (A. Hailey) 5. She silenced the dogs and turned her eyes on Peter. (A. Hailey) 6. He was tempted to add: from where I was fired and black-listed by the chain hotels. (A. Hailey) 7. "The window's sealed. They did it for the air conditioning." - "Then force it. If you have to, break the glass." (A. Hailey) 8. Once in a while, though, emergency justified a break with protocol. (A. Hailey) 9. Doc Vickery was Christine's friend, and she knew that she was one of his favorites. (A. Hailey) 10. There was a tap at the opened door and a tall man stepped in from the corridor. (A. Hailey) 11. Originally, she had judged him to be in his early sixties. (A. Hailey)

12. She liked him and respected him for his stand. (A. Hailey) 13. The chief engineer came in, wheeling an oxygen cylinder on a trolley. (A. Hailey) 14. I was doing the best I could. I even invented a walk that we went for in case anyone saw us come in. (A. Hailey) 15. Peter McDermott returned to 1439 and asked for Dr. Uxbridge's permission to transfer the patient to another room on the same floor. (A. Hailey) 16. He opened a wooden chest that must house a hundred bases for his own statues (J. Archer). 17. The teller handed me a long piece of paper unworthy of its amount (J. Archer). 18. Tom, you'll not know the why or how, but the last thing you've done for me has been a favor. (A. Hailey) 19. "The map may be all right enough," said one of the party, "if you know whereabouts in it we are now." (J. K. Jerome) 20. "Do you prefer the inside or the outside, J.?" (J. K. Jerome) 21. ... we remembered that we had packed the tooth-brushes and the brush and comb ... , and we had to go downstairs, and fish them out of the bag. (J. K. Jerome) 22. In the past two minutes she had been turned back into a nobody. (V. Henry)

4. Analyze the types of compound words and the ways of compounding:

• drawback • greenhouse • mother-in-law • water tank • heart-broken • sea-coast • flimflam • bedroom • craftsman • rainfall • onlooker • lookout (v) • skyscraper • barefooted • output • dry-cleaning • goody-goody • train-spotting • cinema-goer • Jack-of-all-trades • driving licence • hanger-on • H-bomb • off-the-record • coin-in-the-slot • heart-to-heart • bystander • public speaking • software • overthrow • flip-flops

5. Define the type of abbreviation and clipping:

• GI • UNICEF • DOB • pp • cc • AA • PC • BRB • VAT • UFO • ID • NB • sci-fi • ad • CEO • all mod cons • ETA • incog • circs • apt • blvd • disco • van • PIN • FBI • celebs • deli • exam • flu • gator • hippo • am/pm • LMK • KFC

6. Comment on the formation of the lexical units:

advertistics • to accent • economics • chunnel • clink • ping-pong • brunch • to typewrite • Humpty-Dumpty • to mumble • crash • to fingerprint • to beg • docudrama • medicare • slanguage • to splash • heliport • to well-wish • increase • telecast • to hiss • Xmas • blah-blah

7. Analyze the nouns formed with the help suffixation.

1. “Hasn’t forty years altered the circulation of your friend’s blood?” “Not a jot,” replied Sir Lawrence. “It takes forty generations.” (J. Galsworthy) 2. Mr Pickwick has made his preliminary arrangements, and was looking over the coffee-room blinds at the passengers in the street, when the waiter entered and announced that the chaise was ready – an announcement which the vehicle itself confirmed. (Ch. Dickens) 3. There is no happiness like that being loved by your fellow-creatures, and feeling that your presence is an addition to their comfort. (Ch. Brontë) 4. The British character? Suspicion had been dawning on Michael for years that its appearances were deceptive; that members of Parliament, theatre-goers, trotty little ladies, ..., parsons in pulpits, posters in the street – were not representative of the national disposition. (J. Galsworthy) 5. By displaying towards Irene a dignified coldness, some impression might be made upon her; but she was seldom now to be seen, and there seemed a slight difficulty in seeking her out on purpose to show his coldness. (J. Galsworthy) 6. Since their arrival more than an hour ago, most of the other diners had left. Max, the head waiter, came discreetly to their table. (A. Hailey)

8. Analyze the adjectives and comment on the way they are formed.

1. My newfound spirituality made it essential to me that we not battle. (E. Gilbert) 2. But that "That" feels impersonal to me - a thing, not a being - and I myself cannot pray to a That. (E. Gilbert) 3. It seems to me so shocking to see the precious hours of a man’s life—the priceless moments that will never come back to him again—being wasted in mere brutish sleep. (J. K. Jerome) 4. I do think that, of all the silly, irritating tomfoolishness by which we are plagued, this “weather-

forecast” fraud is about the most aggravating. (J. K. Jerome) 5. The fishing boats still came in and out of the harbour, but there was a run-down air to the seafront, which had once bustled with life. (V. Henry) 6. Sometimes the girls tried to add a feminine touch. One had bought a set of matching spotted mugs, tired of the chipped and stained ones. Another had put up some surfing pictures, and another had strung up some fairy lights. (V. Henry) 7. The secretary closed the living-room door. (A. Hailey) 8. As the outside door of the Presidential Suite closed behind the last to leave, the Duke of Croydon cried, "You couldn't possibly get away with..." (A. Hailey) 9. A rosy-cheeked scholar-girl was just lifting a creamy mixture to her lips before the fountain. (V. Henry) 10. "Oh, no, I don't like tea; we'll have lemonade instead—tea's so indigestible." (J. K. Jerome) 11. One feels so forgiving and generous after a substantial and well-digested meal—so noble-minded, so kindly-hearted. (J. K. Jerome)

9. Find words with prefixes. State the meanings of the prefixes. Comment on their productivity.

1. As a rule, I undress and put my head on the pillow, and then somebody bangs at the door, and says it is half-past eight. (J. K. Jerome) 2. In its great presence, our small sorrows creep away, ashamed. (J. K. Jerome) 3. Being asleep was so much better than being awake. (V. Henry) 4. The door was not even unbolted. (J. K. Jerome) 5. Craig knew he would never treat a police suspect with unnecessary violence. 6. She knew she could just step outside and get on the bus that would take her two miles up the road to the estate where her mum lived. (V. Henry) 7. Craig unrolled his sleeping bag and curled up on one of the bunks in the beach hut, leaving the door slightly open. It was unlikely that anyone would try to get in. (V. Henry) 8. "Be quiet!" The Duchess of Croydon glanced around the now silent living room. "We'll go outside. Where no one can overhear." (A. Hailey) 9. Until the events of the last few days, he had been almost supernaturally steady all this year. (J. Galsworthy) 10. He realized that he had long known subconsciously that

his father was not “the clean potato”. (J. Galsworthy) 11. An overwhelming feeling of discouragement came over her. (A. Coppard) 12. He was ex-seaman, ex-boxer, ex-fisher, ex-porter, - indeed to everyone’s knowledge, ex-everything. (A. Coppard) 13. At first, he determined to undress and go to bed again; but when he thought of the redressing and re-washing, and the having of another bath, he determined he would not. (J. K. Jerome) 14. His failure was in fact strange and intolerable to him, inexplicable, tragic. (J. Galsworthy)

10. Analyze the type of word formation of the words in bold.

1. She looked at him **uncomprehendingly** as a mouse might look at a **gravestone**. (A. Coppard) 2. It might be **unromantic**, Peter reflected, to say that he was **comfortable** with Christine. But it was true and, in a sense, **reassuring**. (A. Hailey) 3. He worked slowly, **painstakingly**. By **mid-morning** he was very tired and down to the last **container** but one. (A. Hailey) 4. After his angry **outburst** then, Curtis O'Keefe had been **immediately** and genuinely sorry. But his tirade against Dodo had been **inexcusable**, and he knew it. (A. Hailey) 5. When night had fallen, the beach was wrapped in a soft navy-blue blanket spattered with stars. (V. Henry) 6. As she closed her eyes and tried to shut out the **laughter** of the **pub-goers**, her mind began to wander. (V. Henry) 7. She turned **onto** her side and curled her legs up, tucking herself **into** a ball. All she could think about was The **Prof's** face on Monday morning. (V. Henry) 8. He admired their devil-may-care attitude to life. (V. Henry) 9. The **landlady** met us on the **doorstep** with the greeting that we were the **fourteenth** party she had turned away within the last hour and a half. (J. K. Jerome) 10. We were not so **uppish** about what sort of hotel we would have, next time we went to Datchet. (J. K. Jerome)

11. Divide the following items into compound words and free word-groups.

vegan-friendly • friendly welcome • wolfdog • pearl necklace • real estate • video game • keyboard • everyday experience • compound word • international

communication • garage sale • science fiction • Ukrainian language • door handle • birthday • written sentence • deep-fried • health care • dark room

12. Find examples of metaphor and metonymy in the following sentences.

1. He was a barrister of Philadelphia, but became far more renowned by his gun than by his law cases (W. Cobbett) 2. On the very first morning of her arrival, she was up and ringing her bell at cock-crow. (Ch. Dickens) 3. There are two or three maces, or petty-bags, or privy purses, or whatever they may be in legal court suits. (Ch. Dickens) 4. Most of the successful people in Hollywood are failures as human beings. (M. Brando) 5. All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players. (W. Shakespeare) 6. Her mouth was a fountain of delight. (K. Chopin) 7. But, soft! What light through yonder window breaks? / It is the east, and Juliet is the sun. (W. Shakespeare) 8. The frosted wedding cake of the ceiling. (F. Scott Fitzgerald) 9. All religions, arts and sciences are branches of the same tree. (Al. Einstein) 10. She had a good heart and a sure tongue... (J. London) 11. A little water stood in her eyes. (J. Galsworthy) 12. They have never seen anyone look so thunder and lightning as June. (J. Galsworthy) 13. What the eye does not see, the stomach does not get upset over. (J. K. Jerome) 14. Students would have no need to "walk the hospitals" if they had me. I was a hospital in myself. (J. K. Jerome) 15. He passed the greater part of the day over the bottle. (W. Thackeray) 16. We got to Waterloo at eleven, and asked where the eleven-five started from. (J. K. Jerome) 17. His heart was as great as the world, but there was no room in it to hold the memory of a wrong. (F. Scott Fitzgerald) 18. And at that precise moment the man did it, and the boat rushed up the bank with a noise like the ripping up of forty thousand linen sheets. (J. K. Jerome) 19. One old-timer, who actually was as strong as a mule, seldom earned less than a dollar. (A. Hailey) 20. I can only say that, on this night, he was still my lighthouse and my albatross in equal measure. (E. Gilbert)

13. Rewrite the following sentences without contractions.

1. We'll let Dr. Aarons arrange nursing care. (A. Hailey) 2. There's a quicker way - if you're agreeable, Mr Wells. (A. Hailey) 3. I'm worried about that. I don't think he has much money. (A. Hailey) 4. "You've strong arms, son," the little man said. (A. Hailey) 5. If I had my way there'd be a good many changes... (A. Hailey) 6. Take a look at who's giving orders. (A. Hailey) 7. I'm glad of that because it's the last drink you'll ever mix in my hotel. (A. Hailey) 8. How high's the price? (A. Hailey) 9. "I'd say if we're to get through this job by morning, we'd better have less chit-chat," the first man answered. (A. Hailey) 10. "I'm really sorry," she stammered. 'My boss wouldn't pay me. I haven't got the rent money. I'll get it for you by Monday. I promise. " (V. Henry) 11. They'd gone out for five years, Craig and Michelle. It'd been a very easy relationship with no drama. (V. Henry) 11. Oh, all right, I'll tell 'em. (J. K. Jerome) 12. Jim! you run round to Mr. Goggles, and tell him, 'Pa's kind regards, and hopes his leg's better; and will he lend him his spirit-level?' (J. K. Jerome) 13 "Do you prefer the inside or the outside, J.?" (J. K. Jerome)

14. Rewrite the following sentences using contractions where it is possible.

1. If her father had come home as he promised, she would not have been here now. Instead, he had telephoned from Rome. (A. Hailey) 2. "Some of us have had a good time already. It has made us want more of the same," said Dixon. (A. Hailey) 3. Where is the disturbance, please? (A. Hailey) 4. There are certain substances, which will act as catalysts and break it down quite quickly. (A. Hailey) 5. He had to wait and, even though there were still two room keys in his collection, he decided to wait and concentrate on the larger project. (A. Hailey) 6. Could it have been coincidence after all? If McDermott had been there with some intent, the Jaguar would have been pursued or halted at a roadblock long before now. (A. Hailey) 7. I should have you arrested. You have been following me since this morning, taking pictures. That is stalking. (V. Henry) 8. You have never heard

Harris sing a comic song, or you would understand the service I had rendered to mankind. (J. K. Jerome)

15. Look at the following synonymous groups and explain different shades of meaning (connotations):

house – home – living accommodation

childlike – childish – juvenile

child – kid – youngster

quiz – test – exam – examination – midterm

dismissed – fired – made redundant

senior citizen – old person – old age

animal control officer – dog catcher

table attendant – server – waiter /waitress

roommate – cohabitant

perspire – sweat – nervous wetness

take drug – experiment with recreational chemicals

16. In each group of synonyms circle the word that has a negative connotation.

1. slim – skinny 2. cheap – inexpensive 3. single girl – unmarried woman – spinster 4. has an open marriage – commits adultery – live-in lover 5. boyfriend – steady partner – male companion 6. girl – woman – lady – chick – broad – female human

17. Identify the following word groups as lexical fields, semantic fields or cognate/one-root words.

- two, between, double, pair, couple, brace, dialogue, bicycle, twins, trousers, glasses, partner
- teacher, coach, lecturer, instructor, tutor, pedagogue, professor, academic
- hand, handy, handwriting, handwritten, handful, handball
- blue, ice, rain, ocean, flood, fog, rainbow, dive, beach, swim, dew, drip

- dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, dogged, dog-biscuit
- banking, transfer, currency, savings, down payment, loan

18. In the following sets of sentences identify the words or phrases which are used metaphorically.

1. She gave him an icy stare. He gave her the cold shoulder. They have a fairly warm relationship. Mary is an iceberg. 2. The eye of a needle. The foot of the bed. The hands of the clock. The arm of a chair. 3. I'm looking forward to it. I can remember back to when I was two years old. You must plan ahead for retirement. Try to go back to when you were little. 4. This book is easy to digest. Chew on this thought for a while. This is a juicy piece of gossip. It's wrong to spoon-feed the students

19. Analyze the semantic change in the given words and fill the table.

<i>Change in denotation</i>		<i>Change in connotation</i>	
<i>Broadening/ Extension/ Generalization of meaning</i>	<i>Narrowing/ Restriction/ Specialization of meaning</i>	<i>Elevation/ Amelioration of meaning</i>	<i>Degradation/ Pejoration of meaning</i>

<i>Word</i>	<i>Previous meaning</i>	<i>Word</i>	<i>Previous meaning</i>
1. smart	painful	16. build	construct a house
2. deer	animal	17. fantastic	imaginary
3. accident	event	18. silly	happy
4. eager	angry	19. nice	foolish, ignorant
5. knight	manservant	20. meat	any food
6. observe	witness	21. salary	soldier's allotment
7. alibi	legal term	22. gay	merry, lively
8. sad	satisfied, contented	23. bird	sparrow
9. man	husband	24. house	hut

10. street	path	25. write	cut, scratch
11. dog	specific powerful breed	26. lady	hostess of the house
12. girl	child of any sex	27. wife	woman
13. mistress	a woman who rules	28. fond	foolish
14. constable	a keeper of horses	29. starve	die
15. arrive	come to an island	30. disease	discomfort

20. Find phraseological units in the following sentences and analyse the degree of their idiomaticity. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. Heaven forbid that I should say one word ‘against him’: I don’t want to ‘get into hot water.’” (Ch. Brontë)
2. Cassio wore his heart on his sleeve, which proved dangerous. (W. Shakespeare)
3. Her crocodile tears did not fool the sharp-eyed observer. (W. Shakespeare)
4. The green-eyed monster consumed Othello, leading to tragedy. (W. Shakespeare)
5. In the twinkling of an eye, the peace turned to chaos. (Bible)
6. They agreed to bury the hatchet after years of rivalry. (M. Twain)
7. Romeo lived in a fool’s paradise, unaware of lurking dangers. (W. Shakespeare)
8. She was the apple of his eye, treasured above all else. (Bible)
9. They were quick to cast the first stone, despite their own flaws. (Bible)
10. They pulled the wool over his eyes, hiding the truth. (J. Swift)
11. They were compelled by some devilish accident of birth or lack of force or resourcefulness to stew in their own juice of wretchedness. (Th. Dreiser)
12. “I’d like to have a day or two to think it over ...” “Why, certainly, certainly, Mr Cowperwood. That’s all right. Take your time.” (Th. Dreiser)
13. “My chance is quite over, I suppose?” “It ought to be; but try: it is worth trying. I call this milk-and-water ... If she has a fancy for you – and, on my conscience, I believe she has, or had – she will forgive much. I see, however, you laugh at the wrong side of your mouse: you have as sour a look at this moment as one need wish to see.” (Ch. Brontë)
14. Jos, a clumsy and timid horseman, did not look to advantage in the saddle. “Look at him, Amelia dear ... Such a bull in a china shop I never saw.” (W. Thackeray)
15. The best plan is to

stand your ground, and be prepared to keep them off with the butt-end of a mast.
(J. K. Jerome)

21. Find phraseological units in the following sentences. Give their literal and figurative meanings in Ukrainian.

1. And he concluded ... that no man could tell what he would do if he were in the shoes of another man. (J. Galsworthy) 2. Is that young man a snake in the grass or a worm in the bud? (J. Galsworthy) 3. This prosecution goes very much against the grain with me. (J. Galsworthy) 4. He did not intend to show the white feather, and in backing his horse meant to “go for the gloves.” (J. Galsworthy) 5. He has always been a burden round your mother’s neck. She has paid his debts over and over again ... (J. Galsworthy) 6. “You see,” he heard Soames say, “we can’t have it all begin over again. There is a limit; we must strike while the iron’s hot.” (J. Galsworthy) 7. And the old saying came back to him: “A man’s fate lies in his own heart.” In his own heart! The proof of the pudding was in the eating – Bosinney had still to eat his pudding. (J. Galsworthy) 8. Bosinney looked clever, but he had also ... an air as if he did not quite know on which side his bread was buttered; he should be easy to deal with in money matters. (J. Galsworthy) 9. “Jo,” he said, “I should like to hear what sort of water you are in. I suppose you’re in debt?” (J. Galsworthy) 10. “I don’t want to speak ill of your father,” Soames went on doggedly; “But I know him well enough to be sure that he’ll be back on your mother’s hands before a year’s over. You can imagine what that will mean to her and to all of you after this. The only thing is to cut the knot for good.” (J. Galsworthy) 11. As a young man he had sown many a wild oat; but he had also worked and made money in business; he had, in fact, burned the candle at both ends; but he had never been unready to do his fellows a good turn. (J. Galsworthy) 12. “He knows by instinct how not to run his head against brick walls, and yet he’s always in action ... The die, as they say, is cast, sorry if you’re sorry, Dinny.” Dinny’s hand sought his. “No. Let’s sail under our proper colours.” (J.

Galsworthy) 13. “And Con says,” went on Lady Mont, “that he can’t make two ends meet this year – Clare’s wedding and the budget.” (J. Galsworthy) 14. I hate humbug, my dear Vigil, and I hate anything underhand, but divorce is always a dirty business and while the law is shaped as at present, and the linen washed in public, it will remain impossible for anyone, guilty or innocent, ... to avoid soiling our hands in any way or another. (J. Galsworthy) 15. “Suppose we go and have some jellies at Dutton’s,” said rogue Jos, willing to kill two birds with one stone. (W. Thackeray)

22. Match the following English and Ukrainian proverbs and sayings.

a. Practice makes perfect.	1. Не радій передчасно.
b. When in Rome, do as the Romans.	2. Ніколи не здавайся.
c. Speak of the devil.	3. Зарубай це собі на носі.
d. The grass is always greener on the other side of the hill.	4. Честь не рана: гоїтися не стане.
e. Go home and say your prayers.	5. У кожному подвір’ї своє повір’я.
f. He that has a great nose thinks everybody is speaking of it.	6. Що посієш, те й пожнеш.
g. Put that in your pipe and smoke it.	7. Коли рак на горі свисне.
h. A black hen lays a white egg.	8. Не можна всіх стригти під один гребінець.
i. A bad wound is cured, not a bad name.	9. Про вовка промовка, а вовк на поріг.
j. Be swift to hear, slow to speak.	10. Не пхай носа до чужого проса.
k. All bread is not baked in one oven.	11. Повторення - мати навчання.
l. When pigs fly.	12. Чорна корова, та молоко біле.
m. Between the cup and the lip a morsel may slip.	13. На злодієві шапка горить.
n. As you sow, you shall mow.	14. Всюди добре, де нас нема.
o. A drowning man catches at a straw.	15. Більше слухай, менше говори.

23. Give Ukrainian equivalents for the phraseological units in bold. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. Mrs Butler rather liked Lillian, though they were of different religious beliefs; and they went driving or shopping together, the younger woman a bit critical and ashamed of the older because of her poor grammar, her Irish accent, her plebian tastes ... **On the other hand**, the old lady ... was good-natured and good-hearted. (Th. Dreiser) 2. I find you rather alarming, when I examine you close **at hand**. (Ch. Brontë) 3. He bared his wrist, and offered it to me; the blood was forsaking his cheek and lips, they were growing livid; I was distressed **on all hands**. (Ch. Brontë) 4. Finally, the reports were that the governess had ‘come round’ everybody, wrote Sir Pitt’s letters, did his business, managed his accounts – **had the upper hand** of the whole house. (W. Thackeray) 5. Culture! Could culture ever make headway among the blind partisanship, the **hand-to-mouth** mentality, the cheap excitements of this town life? (J. Galsworthy) 6. “You **are getting out of hand**,” his wife said to him. (Th. Dreiser) 7. The energetic Sippens came after a few moments, and he and Van Sickle, after being instructed to be mutually helpful ... , departed together. In ten minutes they were **hand in glove**. (Th. Dreiser) 8. Again ... Uncle Adrian was the obvious choice; partly because he knew **at first hand** something of the East, but chiefly because he was Uncle Adrian. (J. Galsworthy) 9. “Why should you worry?” “I like **to put my fingers into pies. Give me a free hand**, and I’ll bring you that appointment on a charger. (J. Galsworthy) 10. A lavish guardian, who spent ... the estate **hand over head**. (J. London) 11. As his daughter’s nearest friend, he demanded with **a high hand** a statement of the late captain’s accounts. (W. Thackeray) 12. You are in the exact position of a thief who’s been **caught red-handed** and isn’t sorry stole, but is terribly, terribly sorry he’s going to jail. (B. Shaw) 13. The firm had never been so prosperous. “They are making money **hand over fist**, my dear fellow,” Eliot told me. (W. S. Maugham) 14. Could you get me a Turkish conversation book, the pronouncing kind? ... I can’t **lay hands** on one here ... (J. Galsworthy) 15. Will you and Tiernan come in with me and Edstrom to take over the city and run it during the next two years? If you will, we can win **hands down**. (Th. Dreiser)

24. Choose phraseological units synonymous with the ones in bold from the list given below. Is there any difference in style or meaning?

1. ... after a disturbed pause I contrived to frame a ... true response: “**For one thing**, I have no father or mother, brother or sister ...” (Ch. Brontë)
2. Laying all these faults at my door you **are putting the saddle on the wrong horse**. (Ch. Dickens)
3. ... he would make an opportunity ... of deliberately **taking that writer down a peg or two lower** that he deserved, lest his praise might be suspected of having been the outcome of personal motives. (J. Galsworthy)
4. “I am not going **to run with the hare and hunt with the hounds**,” he thought. (J. Galsworthy)
5. Never mind,” returned the Captain, though he was evidently dismayed by the figures, “**all’s fish that comes to your net**, I suppose?” (Ch. Dickens)
6. “You have taken it into your head that I mean to pension you off ... But I don’t mean it ...” “... **that**, sir,” replied Mr Wegg, cheering up bravely, “**is quite another pair of shoes**.” (Ch. Dickens)
7. I began to cherish hopes ... that one or both parties had **changed their minds**. (Ch. Brontë)
8. “We have to keep friends anyhow and hear of each other.” “**That goes without saying**.” (Th. Dreiser)
9. “It may look hard now but you are going to feel better about it **in the long run**.” (Th. Dreiser)
10. “I haven’t seen you a long time,” he said. “No,” answered Soames between closed lips, “not since – **as a matter of fact**, it’s about that I’ve come. You’re her trustee, I’m told.” (J. Galsworthy)
11. It was a timely spur to Soames’s intense and rooted distaste for **the washing of dirty linen in public**. (J. Galsworthy)

12. Some of the small towns ... had never seen a circus, so that Haxby did good business, and Dan Haxby put up his prices, determined **to make hay while the sun shone**. (C. Doyle)

13. “**Misfortunes never come singly**,” said Phelps, smiling, though it was evident that his adventure had somewhat shaken him. (C. Doyle)

14. The coach being already full, he was obliged to postpone his departure until the next night; but even this circumstance had its bright side as well as its dark one ... “So,” said Tom comforting himself, “**it’s very nearly as broad as it’s long**.” (Ch. Dickens)

15. “**That was a narrow escape**,” said Alice, a good deal frightened at the sudden change, but very glad to find herself still in existence. (L. Carroll)

16. “I won’t press you to go back there; **at all events**, just now,” he said in his most caressing tone. (J. London)

17. He tired easily now. No longer could he do a fast twenty rounds, **hammer and tongs**, fight, fight, fight, from gong to gong. (J. London)

18. Every time he got money, he got drunk; and every time he got drunk, he **raised Cain** around town; and every time he **raised Cain** he got jailed. (M. Twain)

19. “How does you housekeeper get on with her?” “Mrs Pearce? Oh, she’s jolly glad to have so much **taken off her hands**; for before Eliza came, she used to have to find things and remind me of my appointments. But she’s **got** some silly **bee in her bonnet** about Eliza.” (B. Shaw)

• get rid of • in point of fact • to cry stinking fish • be on both sides of the fence • six of one and half a dozen of the other • it is a matter of course • after all • crop one’s feather • first of all • it never rains but it pours • have something on a brain • kick up a row • take /get the wrong sow by the ear • strike while the iron is hot • tooth and nail • at any rate • think better of • all is grist that comes to his mill • that’s a horse of another colour • touch and go

25. Identify a hyperonym in the following groups of words:

➤ rubbers, clogs, shoes, footwear, over-shoes, slippers, boots, flip-flops, heels, felt-boots, sandals, moccasins

➤ casual, boho-chic, streetwear, grunge, fashion, punk, classic style, vintage, preppy

➤ tram, scouter, bus, lorry, automobile, vehicle, bicycle, aircraft, golf cart, monorail

➤ plate, saucer, cup, soup bowl, dish, serving bowl

➤ stream, river, rivulet, creek, brook, tributary

➤ house, shed, building, garage, cottage, hut

➤ glance, peep, stare, leer, look (at), view, watch

➤ hurricane, tornado, gale, storm, typhoon

26. Find as many hyponyms as you can to the following hyperonyms:

a sentence; a noun; a dictionary; a science; a musical genre; a literature genre

27. Find the cases of polysemy or homonymy. Give your reasons.

Lexeme	Meanings	Polysemy / Homonymy
1. fine	a) a sum of money b) superior in quality	
2. tattoo	a) a military parade b) a permanent design on skin	
3. ear	a) the organ of hearing b) the top part of a grain plant, which contains seeds	
4. pilot	a) a person who flies an aircraft b) a programme made to test audience reaction	
5. bank	a) a piece of land near the river b) a financial institution	
6. school	a) an institution for educating children b) a large group of fish moving together	
7. monitor	a) a student who assists the teacher	

	b) an electronic device with a screen used for display	
8. spell	a) a period of time b) to name or write letters in order c) a magic instruction	
9. horn	a) a musical instrument b) a hard, often curved part that grows from the head of some animals	
10. graze	a) to injure your skin by rubbing it against something rough b) to touch or move lightly along the surface or edge of something c) (of cattle, sheep, etc.) eat grass in a field	
11. blind	a) unable to see b) an extreme feeling that happens without reason c) a covering that can be rolled up and down to cover a window inside a building	
12. tie	a) to fasten together two ends b) to relate to c) to finish at the same time or score the same number of points d) a long, thin piece of material that is worn under a shirt collar e) friendly feelings that people have for other people	
13. date	a) a day in a month, year b) a romantic meeting between two people c) sweet fruit of various types of palm tree	
14. punch	a) the power to be interesting and have a strong effect on people b) a cold or hot drink made by mixing fruit juices, pieces of fruit, and often wine c) a piece of equipment that cuts holes	
15. fan	a) someone who admires another person b) an electric device used to move the air around	

16. tail	a) a part of an animal's body, sticking out from the base of the back b) the last part of something that is moving away from you c) jacket d) a side of a coin e) a person who is sent to follow somebody secretly	
17. steel	a) hard metal that is made of a mixture of iron and carbon b) weapons that are used for fighting c) to get ready for something hard or unpleasant	
18. purse	a) a small bag for carrying coins and also paper money b) a sum of money given as a prize in a boxing match	

28. Find instances of polysemy, homonymy, homophony, synonymy, and antonymy in the following list of words:

freedom, flower, polite, cold, fruit, race, house, profound, tail, expensive, liberty, high, rude, table, hot, apartment, flour, cheap, kind, deep, tale, low

29. Classify the words in italics as a word with

a. only one meaning (monosemy)

b. two different but related meanings (polysemy)

c. two completely unrelated meanings (homonymy)

- | | | | |
|---|--|-----|--|
| 1 | I <i>keep</i> the car in the garage | vs. | I <i>keep</i> a dog and two cats |
| 2 | I <i>kept</i> the change | vs. | I <i>kept</i> him waiting |
| 3 | My only <i>grandmother</i> is my father's mother | vs. | My only <i>grandmother</i> is my mother's mother |
| 4 | The car <i>took off</i> down the street | vs. | The plane <i>took off</i> on time |
| 5 | I've smoked too many <i>fags</i> today | vs. | This work is a real <i>fag</i> |

- | | | | |
|----|---|-----|--|
| 6 | The chalk <i>quarry</i> is now disused | vs. | They chased their <i>quarry</i> for miles |
| 7 | I <i>got</i> the bus to work | vs. | I <i>got</i> \$10 for the work |
| 8 | His <i>grave</i> is in the churchyard | vs. | That was a <i>grave</i> mistake |
| 9 | I <i>took</i> a short holiday | vs. | I <i>took</i> a shower |
| 10 | The fruit <i>punch</i> was delicious | vs. | The boxer's <i>punch</i> was vicious |
| 11 | That's a <i>vital</i> difference | vs. | He has no <i>vital</i> signs |
| 12 | <i>Why</i> was he tired? | vs. | <i>Why</i> did he leave? |
| 13 | <i>How</i> did she seem? | vs. | <i>How</i> did you find out? |
| 14 | It's a <i>current</i> affairs programme | vs. | The <i>current</i> runs quickly under the bridge |
| 15 | She has <i>fair</i> hair | vs. | The referee wasn't <i>fair</i> |
| 16 | Will he <i>fence</i> in the Olympics next year? | vs. | I <i>fenced</i> in the garden |
| 17 | I read <i>while</i> he watched television | vs. | <i>While</i> this is interesting, it doesn't help much |

30. Identify the relationship of oppositeness expressed in the following sentences.

1. The window pane is open, but it should be shut. 2. This class is better than last year's class. 3. This painting is similar to that one. 4. He pushed the lever forwards instead of backwards. 5. This plant was sick, but now it's healthy. 6. My poor relatives envy my rich relatives. 7. He ordered a sweet and sour dish. 8. It is better to give than to receive. 9. Are you staying or leaving?

31. Name the type of oppositeness expressed by the following pairs of words.

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------|
| benefactor/donor | rise/fall |
| ancestor/descendant | dress/undress |
| right/wrong | present/absent |
| right/left | fair/foul |
| odd/even | enter/leave |
| predator/prey | clean/dirty |
| bring/take | drunk/sober |

rude/polite

fresh/stale

32. Match the words from A to T with their synonyms.

A ability	secure, seize	K combine	display
B ban	complicated	L difficult	understand
C capture	doubtful, questionable	M complex	leave, exit
D rude	skill, talent	N show	promote, urge
E detach	hard, challenging	O comprehend	unite, join
F dubious	positive, sure	P defy	destroy, wreck
G encourage	bad, wrong, wicket	Q evil	impolite
H certain	luxurious	R extravagant	separate, unfasten
I enough	forbid	S depart	resist, challenge
J demolish	fight, battle	T conflict	sufficient, ample

33. Choose the best synonym for the following words.

1) precious A. necessary B. valuable C. irregular D. simple E. usual	5) bulky A. skinny B. simple C. tender D. sick E. awkward	9) advocate A. predict B. pronounce C. support D. determine E. celebrate
2) unique A. simple B. allowed C. typical D. special E. alike	6) assist A. attend B. apply C. reproach D. help E. intend	10) authorize A. protect B. question C. empower D. verify E. neglect
3) bless A. consecrate B. alarm C. concern D. terrify E. curse	7) utter A. scream B. shout C. yell D. tell E. say	11) wreck A. pop B. mash C. dash D. crush E. crash
4) startle A. frighten B. rush	8) thrill A. disturb B. chill	12) beverage A. liquid B. potion

C. upset	D. terrify	C. move	D. excite	C. food	D. taste
E. surprise		E. punish		E. drink	

34. Choose the best antonym for the following words.

1) vicious A. gentle B. healthy C. helpful D. dangerous E. cruel	5) criticize A. berate B. enjoy C. fault D. acclaim E. disapprove	9) relegate A. prevaricate B. promote C. import D. secrete E. revitalize
2) conquer A. surrender B. descend C. punish D. divide E. triumph	6) reproach A. encourage B. abuse C. approach D. warn E. notice	10) instigate A. incite B. create C. mediate D. flourish E. hesitate
3) legalize A. fire B. ban C. boycott D. shame E. outlaw	7) oppress A. suppress B. hurt C. increas D. inspire E. moan	11) asset A. liability B. card C. withdraw D. loan E. debt
4) mourn A. rejoice B. suffer C. regret D. cry E. shame	8) attach A. scrape B. subtract C. detach D. add E. break	12) donate A. take B. steal C. let D. give E. feed

35. False friends are words that are easily mixed up. Choose the correct word or phrase for each blank.

- The guards _____ the visitors from getting too close. (AVOIDED / PREVENTED)
- _____ running a grocery store in town, he also owns a fitness centre. (BESIDE / BESIDES)
- The jewels she was wearing were all imitations. They were _____. (WORTHLESS / PRICELESS)
- There is always the _____ that the plane will arrive early (OPPORTUNITY / CHANCE / POSSIBILITY).
- The English _____ is beautiful during the spring season. (NATURE /

COUNTRYSIDE) 6. Can you switch to _____ for the newscast? (CHANNEL / CANAL) 7. Mum, what are we having for _____? (DESERT / DESSERT) 8. Don't _____ my sunglasses or else I won't let you have them again. (DAMAGE / HARM) 9. My boss gave me very useful _____ before I left the firm. (ADVICE / ADVISE) 10. Global warming has an _____ on all parts of the world. (AFFECT / EFFECT) 11. He took a seat _____ me. (BESIDES / BESIDE) 12. We have quite a good _____ of winning the election. (POSSIBILITY / CHANCE) 13. You should start out early in order to _____ the morning rush hour. (AVOID / PREVENT) 14. The policeman _____ the traffic at the busy road crossing. (DIRECTED / CONDUCTED) 15. Venice is famous for its beautiful _____. (CANALS / CHANNELS) 16. The bank manager was willing to _____ us on the best way to save our earnings. (ADVICE / ADVISE) 17. You can get a good _____ of the sea from the room on the top floor. (SCENERY / VIEW) 18. I didn't have a lot of _____ at the party. It was so boring (FUN / FUNNY). 19. The bank robber didn't want to _____ the hostages. (HARM / DAMAGE) 20. The young man will _____ the orchestra at the concert. (CONDUCT / DIRECT)

36. Define the type of homonyms and comment on their meaning.

1. 'You promised to tell me your history, you know,' said Alice, 'and why it is you hate—C and D,' she added in a whisper, half afraid that it would be offended again. 'Mine is a long and a sad tale!' said the Mouse, turning to Alice, and sighing. 'It IS a long tail, certainly,' said Alice, looking down with wonder at the Mouse's tail; 'but why do you call it sad?' (L. Carroll)

2. His death, which happened in his berth,

At forty-odd befell;

They went and told the sexton, and

The sexton tolled the bell. (Th. Hood)

3. And then I heard the building walls rock

And stood before me, a giant like a rock

With fear I felt my heart then sink
 He picked me up and threw into the kitchen sink
 And then to escape, I picked up a lead
 From the sink I found a giant tube that did lead
 To escape, I thought and slid through to fall
 On the ground below, like leaves in fall
 My mission failed, I couldn't stop a tear
 The journey through the tube, my shirt did tear
 And like a little pumpkin had swollen my foot
 Without pain, I could not move a foot. (Sh. Kutty)

4. My life closed twice before its close. (E. Dickenson) 5. Inside, the blinds were drawn, but the furniture was real. (Sp. Milligan) 6. "How is bread made?" "I know that!" Alice cried eagerly. "You take some flour –" "Where do you pick the flower?" the white Queen asked. "in the garden or in the hedges?" "Well, it isn't picked at all" Alice explained; it's ground –" "How many acres of ground?" said the White Queen." (L. Carroll) 7. "I'm a lawyer," said the corkscrew, proudly. "I am accustomed to appear at the bar. (L. Frank Baum)

37. Find synonyms and antonyms in the following sentences and analyse them.

1. Of course, it was better to have an accomplice, a partner in crime, but that was out of the question. Jenna could hardly have asked one of her mates to come and help her. (V. Henry) 2. Jenna said nothing. She knew from experience that was the best policy. Don't confess or deny anything. (V. Henry) 3. Everyone had piled round to her house, all her brothers and sisters and their mates and her mates. (V. Henry) 4. I shall never forget the picture of those two men walking up and down the bank with a tow-line, looking for their boat. (J. K. Jerome) 5. She was not grateful or ungrateful, or unkind, or ill-humoured. She was only stupid. (W. Thackeray) 6. It was the best of times, it was the worst of times, it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness, it was the epoch of belief, it was the epoch

of incredulity, it was the season of Light, it was the season of Darkness, it was the spring of hope, it was the winter of despair, we had everything before us, we had nothing before us, we were all going direct to Heaven, we were all going direct the other way ... (Ch. Dickens) 7. The general character of her conversation that evening, whether serious or sprightly, grave or gay, was as something untaught, unstudied, intuitive, fitful. (Ch. Brontë)

8. Youth is hot and bold, Age is weak and cold;
Youth is wild, and Age is tame (W. Shakespeare)

38. State the origin of the following words.

fiesta • bon voyage • ibid • tulip • get • law • tomato • umbrella • operetta • enfant terrible • alma mater • Madeira • sky • chef • macho • haute couture • prêt-à-porter • déjà vu • curriculum vitae • school • judo • sumo • banjo • undertake • goulash • sheriff • silhouette • orchid • kangaroo • fowl • chap • caftan • beau monde • thermometer • ego • confetti • virtue

39. In the following verse find words belonging to the native English stock.

In winter when the fields are white,
I sing this song for your delight.
In spring when woods are getting green
I'll try and tell you what I mean.
In summer when the days are long,
Perhaps you'll understand the song.
In autumn when the leaves are brown,
Take pen and ink and write it down.
(L. Carroll)

40. Use dictionaries to provide five examples of words borrowed from each language given below which are of common usage in English:

Latin, Greek, French, Italian, Spanish, German, a language of your choice

41. Comment on the origin and meaning of the following doublets.

abbreviate - abbridge	emerald - smaragdus	hospital – hostel, hotel
captain - chieftain	gaol - jail	skirt - shirt
fragile - frail	dike - ditch	nay - no
artist – artiste	major - mayor	ward - guard
liquor - liqueur	pauper - poor	legal - loyal
salon - saloon	senior - sir	suit - suite
shade - shadow	canal - channel	screw - shrew

42. Find etymological doublets to the words in bold. Compare their meanings.

1. Adel came in, and the conversation was turned into another **channel**. (Ch. Brontë) 2. Uncle Seneca was married now, having, because of his wealth, attracted the attention of a **poor** but ambitious Philadelphia matron. (Th. Dreiser) 3. “Does he take any interest in things generally?” he said. “Oh, yes, **sir**; his food and his Will”. (J. Galsworthy) 4. His **shirt** felt wet between his shoulder-blades and under his armpits. (P. Abrahams) 5. I answered, they (the motives) were innumerable, but I should only mention a few of the **chief**. (D. Defoe) 6. What Mr Lovelace saw of the house (which was the **saloon** and two parlous) was perfectly elegant. (S. Richardson) 7. “For God’s sake, what is it?” Mr Chopper said, catching the **captain** by the **skirt**. (W. Thackeray)

Key to the Tasks:

1.

Word	Prefix (bound; lexical)	Root (free; lexical)	Suffix (bound; lexical)	Ending (bound; grammatical)
enrich	en-	-rich-		
foolishness		fool-	-ish-; -ness	
assistant		assist-	-ant	
foresee	fore-	-see		
unpleasantness	un-	-pleasant-	-ness	
famous		fame-	-ous	
lucky		luck-	-y	
trustworthy		trust-; -worth-	-y	
snowwhiteness		snow-; -white-	-ness	
taking		take-		-ing
old-maidish		old-; -maid-	-ish	
chairman		chair-; -man		
shoemakers		shoe-; -make-	-er	-s
shockproof		shock-; -proof		
hyperslow	hyper-	-slow		
businessliking		busy-; -like-	-ness	-ing
halfbaked		half-; -bake-		-ed
babylike		baby-; -like		
steadiness		steady-	-ness	
unmistakable	un-	-mistake-	-able	
cowboy		cow-; -boy		
prejudged	pre-	-judge-		-ed
wellknown		well-;		-n

		-know-		
playboys		play-; -boy-		-s
biped	bi-	-ped		
praiseworthy		prais-; -worth	-y	
waterproof		water- -proof		
small		small		
irresponsibility	ir-	-response-	-ible-; -ity	
purified		puri-	-fy	-ed
afterthought	after-	-thought		
hopelessly		hope-	-less-; -ly	
manhood		man-	-hood	

2. • revise (see) – vision; visual; visit • contradict (say) – diction; dictionary; dictator • regress (step) – progress; progression; regressive • intervene (come between) - intervention • inspect (see) – spectacular; spectacle; spectrum • oppose (place, put) – expose; disposition; disposal • portable (carry) – import; export; portative • rupture (burst) – eruption; corruption • annual (year) – anniversary; annually; annuity • oracle (speak) – oral; oratory; orator • audition (hear) – audience; auditorium; audible • aquatic (water) – aquarium; aquamarine; Aquaresis • manuscript (hand) – manual; manufactory; manipulate

3. 1. were roomed (v) ← noun 2. a first (n) ← ordinal numeral 3. to be named (v) ← noun 4. tipped (v) ← noun 5. silenced (v) ← noun 6. black-listed (PII) ← compound noun 7. force (v) ← noun 8. a break (n) ← verb 9. favorits (n) ← substantivized adjective 10. stepped (v) ← noun 11. judged (v) ← noun 12. stand (n) ← verb 13. wheeling (PI) ← verb 14. the best (n) ← adjective in the superlative degree 15. transfer (v) ← noun 16. house (v) ← noun 17. handed (v) ← noun 18. the why or how (n) ← pronoun 19. whereabouts ← adverb 20. the inside or the outside (n) ← adverb 21. fish (v) ← noun 22. a nobody (n) ← pronoun

4. • drawback – compound word proper; closed • greenhouse – compound word proper; closed • mother-in-law – conversion from a word group; hyphenated • water tank – compound word proper; opened • heart-broken – derivation; hyphenated • sea-coast – compound word proper; hyphenated • flimflam – reduplication + sound interchange; closed • bedroom – compound word proper; closed • craftsman – compound word proper; closed • rainfall – compound word proper; closed • onlooker – derivation; closed • lookout (v) – backformation; closed • skyscraper – derivation; closed • barefooted – derivation; closed • output – compound word proper; closed • dry-cleaning – derivation; hyphenated • goody-goody – reduplication; hyphenated • train-spotting – derivation; hyphenated • cinema-goer – derivation; hyphenated • Jack-of-all-trades – conversion from a word group; hyphenated • driving licence – derivation; opened • hanger-on – derivation; hyphenated • H-bomb – clipping; hyphenated • off-the-record – conversion from a word group; hyphenated • coin-in-the-slot – conversion from a word group; hyphenated • heart-to-heart – conversion from a word group; hyphenated • bystander – derivation; closed • public speaking – derivation; opened • software – compound word proper; closed • overthrow – compound word proper; closed • flip-flops – reduplication + sound interchange; hyphenated

5. • GI (glycaemic index) – initialism • UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund) – acronym • DOB (date of birth) – initialism • pp (pages) – initialism • cc (carbon copy) – initialism • AA (Alcoholics Anonymous) – initialism • PC (personal computer) – initialism • BRB (be right back) – initialism / textese • VAT (value added tax) – initialism • UFO (unknown flying object) – acronym • ID (identity document) – acronym • NB (nota bene) – initialism • sci-fi (science fiction) – apocope + blend • ad (advertisement) – apocope • CEO (Chief Executive Officer) – initialism • mod cons (modern conveniences) – apocope + blend • ETA (estimated time of arrival) – acronym / textese • incog (incognito) – apocope • movie (moving picture) – apocope • circs

(circumstances) – syncope • apt (appropriate) – acronym • blvd (boulevard) – syncope • disco (discotheque) – apocope • van (caravan) – aphaeresis • PIN (personal identification number) – acronym • FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation) – initialism • celebs (celebrities) – syncope • deli (delicatessen) – acronym • exam (examination) – apocope • flu (influenza) – apocope + aphaeresis • gator (alligator) – aphaeresis • hippo (hippopotamus) – apocope • am/pm (ante meridiem / post meridiem) – initialism • LMK (let me know) – initialism / textese • KFC (Kentucky Fried Chicken) – initialism

6. advertistics (advertising + statistics) – blend / portmanteau • to accent – noun → verb conversion • economics (economy- + -ics) – suffixation • chunnel (channel + tunnel) – blend / portmanteau • clink – sound imitation • ping-pong – reduplication + sound change • brunch (breakfast + lunch) – blend / portmanteau • to typewrite – backformation • Humpty-Dumpty – reduplication + sound change • to mumble – sound imitation • crash – sound imitation • to fingerprint – noun → verb conversion • to beg – backformation • docudrama (documentary + drama) – blend / portmanteau • medicare (medical care) – compounding • slanguage (slang + language) – blend / portmanteau • to splash – sound imitation • heliport (helicopter + airport) – blend / portmanteau • to well-wish – conversion • 'increase – verb → noun conversion • telecast (television + broadcast) – blend / portmanteau • to hiss – sound imitation • Xmas – compounding • blah-blah – reduplication

7. 1. circulation – circulate- (free) + -ation; generation – gener- (bound) + -at- + -ion (inflectional morpheme). 2. arrangement – arrange- (free) + -ment; passenger – pass- (free) + -enger; waiter – wait- (free) + -er; announcement – announce- (free) + -ment. 3. happiness – happy- (free) + -ness; (fellow)-creature – create- (free) + -re; feeling – feel- (free) + -ing; presence – borrowing from OFr; addition – add- (free) + -ition. 4. suspicion – suspic- (bound) + -ion; appearance – appear- (free) + -arance; (theatre)-goer – go- (free) + -er; poster – post- (free) + -er; disposition – dispose- (free) + -ition. 5. coldness – cold- (free) + -ness; impression – impress-

(free) + -ion; difficulty – difficult- (free) + -y. 6. arrival – arrive- (free) + -al; diner – dine- (free) + -er; waiter – wait- (free) + -er.

8. 1. newfound – new + found (compounding). 2. impersonal – im- + -person- + al (derivation). 3. shocking – shock- + -ing (derivation); precious – prec- (price) + -ious (derivation); priceless – price- + -less (derivation); brutish – brut- + -ish (derivation). 4. silly – native word; irritating – irritate- + -ing (derivation); aggravating – aggravate- + -ing (derivation). 5. fishing – fish- + -ing (derivation); run-down (compounding + conversion). 6. feminine – femme- + -inine (derivation); matching – match- + -ing (derivation); spotted – spot- + -ed (derivation); clipped – clip- + -ed (derivation); stained – stain- + -ed (derivation); surfing – surf- + -ing (derivation); fairly – fair- + -ly (derivation). 7. living-(room) – live- + -ing (derivation). 8. outside (compounding + conversion); presidential – president- + -ial (derivation). 9. rosy-cheeked (compounding + derivation); school-girl (conversion + compounding); creamy – cream- + -y (derivation). 10. indigestible – in- + -digest- + -ible (derivation). 11. forgiving – forgive- + -ing (derivation); generous – genere- + -ous (derivation); substantial – substance- + -tial (derivation); well-digested (compounding + derivation); noble-minded (compounding + derivation); kindly-hearted (compounding + derivation).

9. 1. un-dress (negation; productive). 2. a-shamed (a single event; unproductive). 3. a-sleep; a-wake (a single event; unproductive). 4. un-bolted (negation; productive). 5. un-necessary (negation; productive). 6. out-sided (direction; productive). 7. un-rolled; un-likely (negation; productive). 8. a-round (motion away from; unproductive); out-side (direction; productive); over-hear (size and degree; productive) 9. super-naturally (size and degree; productive). 10. sub-conscious (size and degree; productive). 11. over-whelming (size and degree; productive); dis-couragement (negation; productive). 12. ex-seaman; ex-boxer; ex-fisher; ex-porter; ex-everything (time and order; productive). 13. un-dress (negation;

productive); re-dressing; re-washing (repetition; productive). 14. in-tolerable; inexplicable (negation; productive).

10. 1. un-comprehend-ing-ly – derivation; grave+stone – compounding. 2. un-roman-tic – derivation; comfort-able – derivation. 3. pain-s-take-ing-ly – derivation + morphological compounding; mid+morning – clipping + compounding; contain-er – derivation. 4. out+burst – derivation + conversion; immediate-ly – derivation; in-excuse-able – derivation. 5. navy+blue – compounding. 6. laugh-ter derivation; pub+go-er-s – clipping + compounding + derivation. 7. on+to – compounding; in+to – compounding; Prof’s – clipping. 8. devil+may+care – syntactical compounding. 9. land+lady – compounding; door+step – compounding; four-teen-th – derivation. 10 upp-ish – derivation

11.

Compound words	Free word-groups
vegan-friendly	friendly welcome
wolfdog	pearl necklace
real estate	everyday experience
video game	compound word
keyboard	international communication
science fiction	garage sale
door handle	Ukrainian language
birthday	dark room
deep-fried	written sentence
health care	

12. 1. metonymy 2 metaphor 3 metonymy 4. metaphor 5. metaphor 6. metonymy 7. metaphor 8. metaphor 9. metonymy 10. metonymy 11. metonymy 12. metaphor 13. metonymy 14. metaphor 15. metaphor 16. metonymy 17. metonymy 18. metaphor 19. metaphor 20. metonymy

13. 1. we'll – we shall / will 2. there's – there is; you're – you are 3. I'm – I am; don't – do not 4. you've – you have 5. there'd – there would 6. who's – who is 7. I'm – I am; it's – it is; you'll – you will 8. high's – high is 9. I'd – I would; we're – we are; we'd – we would 10. I'm – I am; wouldn't – would not; haven't – have not; I'll – I will 11. they'd – they had; it'd – it had 12. I'll -I shall / will; 'em - them 13. Pa's – Papa; leg's – leg is 14. J – Jerome

14. 1. If her father'd come home as he promised, she wouldn't have been here now. Instead, he had telephoned from Rome. 2. "Some of us've had a good time already. It's made us want more of the same," said Dixon. 3. Where's the disturbance, please? 4. There're certain substances, which'll act as catalysts and break it down quite quickly. 5. He'd to wait and, even though there were still two room keys in his collection, he decided to wait and concentrate on the larger project. 6. Could it've been coincidence after all? If McDermott'd been there with some intent, the Jaguar'd have been pursued or halted at a roadblock long before now. 7. I'd have you arrested. You've been following me since this morning, taking pictures. That's stalking. 8. You've never heard Harris sing a comic song, or you'd understand the service I'd rendered to mankind.

15. house – home – living accommodation (emotive connotation; of attendant features)

childlike – childish – juvenile (stylistic)

child – kid – youngster (stylistic; of attendant features)

quiz – test – exam – examination – midterm (ideographic)

dismissed – fired – made redundant (connotation of manner)

senior citizen – old person – old age (ideographic)

animal control officer – dog catcher (evaluative connotation; stylistic)

table attendant – server – waiter /waitress (ideographic)

roommate – cohabitant (ideographic)

perspire – sweat – nervous wetness (euphemism)

take drug – experiment with recreational chemicals (euphemism)

16. 1. slim – **skinny** 2. **cheap** – inexpensive 3. single girl – unmarried woman – **spinster** 4. has an open marriage – **commits adultery** – live-in lover 5. boyfriend – steady partner – **male companion** 6. girl – woman – lady – chick – **broad** – female human

17.

- two, between, double, pair, couple, brace, dialogue, bicycle, twins, trousers, glasses, partner – lexical field
- teacher, coach, lecturer, instructor, tutor, pedagogue, professor, academic – semantic field
- hand, handy, handwriting, handwritten, handful, handball – cognate words
- blue, ice, rain, ocean, flood, fog, rainbow, dive, beach, swim, dew, drip – lexical field
- dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, dogged, dog-biscuit – cognate words
- banking, transfer, currency, savings, down payment, loan – semantic field

18. 1. She gave him an **icy stare**. He gave her the **cold shoulder**. They have a fairly **warm relationship**. Mary is an **iceberg**. 2. The **eye of a needle**. The **foot of the bed**. The **hands of the clock**. The **arm of a chair**. 3. I'm **looking forward** to it. I can **remember back** to when I was two years old. You must **plan ahead** for retirement. Try to **go back** to when you were little. 4. This book is **easy to digest**. **Chew on this thought** for a while. This is a **juicy piece of gossip**. It's wrong to **spoon-feed the students**.

19. 1 – elevation; 2 – restriction; 3 – restriction; 4 – elevation; 5 – elevation; 6 – extension; 7 – restriction; 8 – degradation; 9 – extension; 10 – elevation; 11 – extension; 12 – restriction; 13 – degradation; 14 – elevation; 15 – extension; 16 – extension; 17 – elevation; 18 – degradation; 19 – elevation; 20 – restriction; 21 –

extension; 22 – degradation; 23 – extension; 24 – elevation; 25 – extension; 26 – elevation; 27 – restriction; 28 – elevation; 29 – restriction; 30 – degradation;

20.

<p>1. Heaven forbid (phraseological expression) that I should say one word ‘against him’: I don’t want to ‘get into hot water’ (phraseological fusion).</p>	<p>1. Не дай боже сказати одне слово «проти нього»: не хочу опинитися у скрутному становищі.</p>
<p>2. Cassio wore his heart on his sleeve (phraseological fusion), which proved dangerous.</p>	<p>2. Кассіо не вмів приховувати свої почуття, що було небезпечним для нього.</p>
<p>3. Her crocodile tears (phraseological unity) did not fool the sharp-eyed observer.</p>	<p>3. Її крокодилячі сльози не могли обдурити людину, яка вмiла спостерігати.</p>
<p>4. The green-eyed monster (phraseological fusion) consumed Othello, leading to tragedy.</p>	<p>4. Ревнощі поглинули Отелло, і це призвело до трагедії.</p>
<p>5. In the twinkling of an eye (phraseological unity), the peace turned to chaos.</p>	<p>5. Миттєво мир перетворився на хаос.</p>
<p>6. They agreed to bury the hatchet (phraseological unity) after years of rivalry.</p>	<p>6. Вони погодилися закопати сокиру війни. укласти мир після багатьох років суперництва.</p>
<p>7. Romeo lived in a fool’s paradise (phraseological fusion), unaware of lurking dangers.</p>	<p>7. Ромео жив у повному невіданні, не підозрюючи про сховані небезпеки.</p>
<p>8. She was the apple of his eye (phraseological unity), treasured above</p>	<p>8. Вона була сенсом його життя.</p>

all else.	
9. They were quick to cast the first stone (phraseological fusion), despite their own flaws.	9. Вони поспішили напасти / критикувати першими, незважаючи на власні недоліки.
10. They pulled the wool over his eyes (phraseological expression), hiding the truth.	10. Вони вводили його в оману, приховуючи правду.
11. They were compelled by some devilish accident of birth or lack of force or resourcefulness to stew in their own juice (phraseological fusion) of wretchedness.	11. Через якусь диявольську випадковість народження або через брак сили чи винахідливості вони були приречені постійно «розгрібати» власні нещастя.
12. “I’d like to have a day or two to think it over ...” “Why, certainly, certainly, Mr Cowperwood. That’s all right. Take your time. (phraseological collocation)”	12. «Я хотів би все обдумати день або два ...» «Ну, звичайно, звичайно, містере Копервуд. Все в порядку. Не поспішайте».
13. “My chance is quite over, I suppose?” “It ought to be; but try: it is worth trying. I call this milk-and-water (phraseological fusion)... If she has a fancy for you – and, on my conscience, I believe she has, or had – she will forgive much. I see, however, you laugh at the wrong side of your mouse (phraseological fusion): you have as sour a look (phraseological collocation) at this moment as one need wish to see.”	13. «Я гадаю, я втратив свій шанс?» - «Можливо, що і так, але спробуйте: спробувати варто. Нема сенсу сперечатись... Якщо ви їй подобається або подобались, – а насправді я вважаю, що так і є, – вона багато пробачить. Але я бачу, що ти засмутився: зараз у тебе такий кислий вигляд, що і дивитися не хочеться».
14. Jos, a clumsy and timid horseman,	14. Джос, неповороткий і боязкий

did not look to advantage in the saddle. “Look at him, Amelia dear ... Such a bull in a china shop (phraseological expression) I never saw.”	наїздник, виглядав в сідлі дуже незгарбно. «Поглянь на нього, люба Амеліє... Я ніколи не бачив таке одоробло».
15. The best plan is to stand your ground (phraseological unity), and be prepared to keep them off with the butt-end of a mast (phraseological collocation).	15. Найкращий план - це стояти на своєму та не торкатися слизьких питань.

21.

Phraseological unit	Literal meaning	Figurative translation
1. were in the shoes of another man	share a particular experience or circumstance with someone else	опинитися на місці іншої людини
2. a snake in the grass / a worm in the bud	an unpleasant person who cannot be trusted	таємний ворог; прихована небезпека
3. goes ... against the grain	goes contrary to someone's natural disposition	не до вподоби
4. show the white feather go for the gloves	behave in a cowardly manner used for saying that people are ready to fight, compete, etc. as hard as they can	здатися бути готовим до боротьби
5. has always been a burden round your	a heavy responsibility someone carries	тягар на шиї

mother's neck		
6. strike while the iron's hot	take advantage of favorable conditions	кувати залізо доки воно гаряче
7. A man's fate lies in his own heart. The proof of the pudding was in the eating.	you are responsible for the result of an action or decision you can only tell if something is good by testing it	Усяк сам собі долю кує. Все перевіряється на практиці.
8. know on which side his bread was buttered	understand what is to your benefit	розуміти що до чого
9. what sort of water you are in	understand your situation	зрозуміти, як ідуть справи
10. on your mother's hands cut the knot for good	a difficult situation someone has to deal with solve a difficult problem in a very direct way	тягар на шиї покласти цьому край
11. had sown many a wild oat had burned the candle at both ends do ... a good turn	behave in a rather uncontrolled way працювати на межі своїх можливостей do something that helps or benefits another person	робив багато дурниць в молодості гарувати без просвітку допомагати
12. run his head against brick walls The die ... is cast. sail under proper colours	avoid unpleasant situations or barriers in your progress there is no turning back behave or operate	обходити підводне каміння Мости спалені. Зробленого не повернеш.

	honestly	бути чесним
13. make two ends meet	earn enough income to provide for basic needs	зводити кінці з кінцями; бути у скруті
14. wash dirty linen in public	discuss unpleasant or private things in front of other people	виставити на загал
15. kill two birds with one stone	solve two problems with one single action	Одним пострілом (відразу) двох зайців убити

22. a – 11; b – 5; c – 9; d – 14; e – 10; f – 1; g – 3; h- 12; I – 4; j – 15; k- 8; l – 7; m – 13; n- 6; o – 2

23.

1. Mrs Butler rather liked Lillian, though they were of different religious beliefs; and they went driving or shopping together, the younger woman a bit critical and ashamed of the older because of her poor grammar, her Irish accent, her plebian tastes ... On the other hand the old lady ... was good-natured and good-hearted.	1. Місіс Батлер дуже сподобалася Ліліан, хоча вони мали різні релігійні переконання; і вони разом каталися в машині або ходили по магазинах; молодша жінка трохи критикувала і соромилася старшої через її погану граматику, ірландський акцент, плебійські смаки... З іншого боку , стара жінка... була добродушною і добросеречною.
2. I find you rather alarming, when I examine you close at hand .	2. Зблизька ви виглядаєте досить стривоженою.
3. He bared his wrist, and offered it to me; the blood was forsaking his cheek and lips, they were growing livid; I was	3. Він оголив зап'ястя і показав його мені; кров відринула від його щік й губ, вони посиніли. Я був абсолютно

distressed on all hands .	засмучений.
4. Finally, the reports were that the governess had ‘come round’ everybody, wrote Sir Pitt’s letters, did his business, managed his accounts – had the upper hand of the whole house.	4. Нарешті, стали надходити повідомлення, що гувернантка стежила за всіма, писала листи замість містера Пітта, займалася його справами, керувала його рахунками – тобто управляла усім домом.
5. Culture! Could culture ever make headway among the blind partisanship, the hand-to-mouth mentality, the cheap excitements of this town life?	5. Культура! Чи зможе культура коли-небудь розквітнути серед сліпого поклоніння, жебрацької ментальності, дешевих розваг цього міського життя?
6. “You are getting out of hand ,” his wife said to him.	6. «Ти виходиш з-під контролю », - сказала йому його дружина.
7. The energetic Sippens came after a few moments, and he and Van Sickle, after being instructed to be mutually helpful ... , departed together. In ten minutes they were hand in glove .	7. Енергійний Сіппенс прийшов через кілька хвилин, і після того, як вони вони з Ван Сіклем отримали вказівку допомагати один одному ... , пішли разом. За десять хвилин вони були як риба з водою .
8. Again ...Uncle Adrian was the obvious choice; partly because he knew at first hand something of the East, but chiefly because he was Uncle Adrian.	8. Знову ... очевидним вибором був дядько Адріан; частково тому, що він не з чуток знав дещо про Схід, але головним чином тому, що він був дядьком Адріаном.
9. “Why should you worry?” “I like to put my fingers into pies. Give me a free hand , and I’ll bring you that appointment on a charger.	9. «Чому тобі хвилюватися?» «Я люблю тримати руку на пульсі . Дайте мені свободу , і я «принесу вам цю зустріч на тарілочки».

10. A lavish guardian, who spent ... the estate hand over head .	10. Щедрий опікун, який розтринькав ... маєток швидко і легко .
11. As his daughter's nearest friend, he demanded with a high hand a statement of the late captain's accounts.	11. Як найближчий друг його доньки, він владстеливо і зверхньо зажадав звіту про рахунки покійного капітана.
12. You are in the exact position of a thief who's been caught red-handed and isn't sorry stole, but is terribly, terribly sorry he's going to jail.	12. Ви поведіться точно як злодій, якого спіймали на гарячому , проте він не шкодує, що вкрав, але йому страшенно, страшенно шкода, що його посадять у в'язницю.
13. The firm had never been so prosperous. "They are making money hand over fist , my dear fellow," Eliot told me.	13. Фірма ніколи не була такою процвітаючою. «Вони горнуть гроші лопатою , любий друже», — сказав мені Еліот.
14. Could you get me a Turkish conversation book, the pronouncing kind? ... I can't lay hands on one here ...	14. Чи не могли б ви знайти мені турецький розмовник, з транскрипцією? ... Я не можу знайти жодного тут ...
15. Will you and Tiernan come in with me and Edstrom to take over the city and run it during the next two years? If you will, we can win hands down .	15. Чи приєднаєтесь ви з Тієрнаном до мене та Едстрома, щоб взяти місто в свої руки та керувати ним протягом наступних двох років? Якщо так, ми можемо виграти без зусиль .

24. 1. for one thing - first of all. 2. put the saddle on the wrong horse - take /get the wrong sow by the ear. 3. take that writer down a peg or two lower - crop one's feather. 4. to run with the hare and hunt with the hounds - be on both sides of the fence. 5. all's fish that comes to your net - all is grist that comes to his mill. 6. that

is quite another pair of shoes - that's a horse of another colour. 7. changed their minds - think better of. 8. that goes without saying - it is a matter of course. 9. in the long run - after all. 10. as a matter of fact - in point of fact. 11. wash dirty linen in public - cry stinking fish. 12. make hay while the sun shone - strike while the iron is hot. 13. misfortunes never come singly - it never rains but it pours. 14. it's ... as broad as it's long - six of one and half a dozen of the other. 15. that was a narrow escape - touch and go. 16. at all events - at any rate. 17. hammer and tongs - tooth and nail. 18. raise Cain - kick up a row. 19. take off her hands - get rid of; get some ... bee in her bonnet - have something on a brain

25.

➤ rubbers, clogs, shoes, **footwear**, over-shoes, slippers, boots, flip-flops, heels, felt-boots, sandals, moccasins

➤ casual, boho-chic, streetwear, grunge, **fashion**, punk, classic style, vintage, preppy

➤ tram, scouter, bus, lorry, automobile, **vehicle**, bicycle, aircraft, golf cart, monorail

➤ plate, saucer, cup, soup bowl, **dish**, serving bowl

➤ stream, **river**, rivulet, creek, brook, tributary

➤ house, shed, **building**, garage, cottage, hut

➤ glance, peep, stare, leer, look (at), **view**, watch

➤ hurricane, tornado, gale, **storm**, typhoon

26. (possible variants)

a sentence	a noun	a dictionary	a science	a musical genre	a literature genre
statement	name	list of words	biology	opera	story
question	word	vocabulary	linguistics	operetta	novel
exclamation	person	wordbook	chemistry	concert	drama
thought	place	thesaurus	physics	oratorio	poetry

utterance	thing	encyclopedia	study	buffoonery	fairy-tail
speech act	event	glossary			comedy
	substance	activator			essay

27. 1. fine – homonymy; 2. tattoo – homonymy; 3. ear – homonymy; 4. pilot – polysemy; 5. bank – homonymy; 6. school – homonymy; 7. monitor – polysemy; 8. spell – homonymy; 9. horn – polysemy; 10. graze – homonymy; 11. blind – polysemy; 12. tie – polysemy; 13. date – homonymy; 14. punch – homonymy; 15. fan – homonymy; 16. tail – polysemy; 17. steel – polysemy; 18. purse – polysemy

28. freedom – liberty (synonymy), flower – flour (homophony), polite – rude (antonymy), cold – hot (antonymy), fruit (polysemy), tale – tail (homophony), race (polysemy), house – apartment (synonymy), profound – deep (synonymy), expensive – cheap (antonymy), high – low (antonymy), table (стіл – таблиця) (homonymy), kind (рід – добрий) (homonymy)

29. 1 – a; 2 – b; 3 – a; 4 – b; 5 – c; 6 – c; 7 – b; 8 – b; 9 – b; 10 – c; 11 – b; 12 – b; 13 – c; 14 – b; 15 – c; 16 – b; 17 – c

30. 1. open – shut (complementary). 2. This class – last year's class (relational). 3. This painting – that one (relational). 4. forwards – backwards (relational). 5. sick – healthy (gradable). 6. poor – rich (gradable). 7. sweet – sour (gradable). 8. give – receive (relational). 9. leave – stay (complementary).

31.

benefactor/donor (relational)	rise/fall (complementary)
ancestor/descendant (relational)	dress/undress (derivational)
right/wrong (complementary)	present/absent (complementary)
right/left (relational)	fair/foul (complementary)
odd/even (gradable)	enter/leave (complementary)
predator/prey (relational)	clean/dirty (gradable)

bring/take (complementary) drunk/sober (gradable)
 rude/polite (gradable) fresh/stale (gradable)

32.

A ability - skill, talent	K combine unite, join
B ban - forbid	L difficult - hard, challenging
C capture - secure, seize	M complex - complicated
D rude - impolite	N show - display
E detach - separate, unfasten	O comprehend - understand
F dubious - doubtful, questionable	P defy - resist, challenge
G encourage - promote, urge	Q evil - bad, wrong, wicket
H certain - positive, sure	R extravagant - luxurious
I enough - sufficient, ample	S depart - leave, exit
J demolish - destroy, wreck	T conflict - fight, battle

33.

1) precious B. valuable	5) bulky E. awkward	9) advocate C. support
2) unique D. special	6) assist D. help	10) authorize D. verify
3) bless A. consecrate	7) utter E. say	11) wreck E. crash
4) startle A. frighten	8) thrill D. excite	12) beverage E. drink

34.

1) vicious A. gentle	5) criticize D. acclaim	9) relegate B. promote
2) conquer E. triumph	6) reproach A. encourage	10) instigate E. hesitate

3) legalize E. outlaw	7) oppress D. inspire	11) asset E. debt
4) mourn A. rejoice	8) attach C. detach	12) donate A. take

35. 1. The guards PREVENTED the visitors from getting too close. 2. BESIDES running a grocery store in town, he also owns a fitness centre. 3. The jewels she was wearing were all imitations. They were WORTHLESS. 4. There is always the POSSIBILITY that the plane will arrive early. 5. The English COUNTRYSIDE is beautiful during the spring season. 6. Can you switch to CHANNEL for the newscast? 7. Mum, what are we having for DESSERT? 8. Don't DAMAGE my sunglasses or else I won't let you have them again. 9. My boss gave me very useful ADVICE before I left the firm. 10. Global warming has an EFFECT on all parts of the world. 11. He took a seat BESIDE me. 12. We have quite a good CHANCE of winning the election. 13. You should start out early in order to AVOID the morning rush hour. 14. The policeman DIRECTED the traffic at the busy road crossing. 15. Venice is famous for its beautiful CANALS. 16. The bank manager was willing to ADVISE us on the best way to save our earnings. 17. You can get a good VIEW of the sea from the room on the top floor. 18. I didn't have a lot of FUN at the party. It was so boring. 19. The bank robber didn't want to HARM the hostages. 20. The young man will CONDUCT the orchestra at the concert.

36. 1. 'You promised to tell me your history, you know,' said Alice, 'and why it is you hate – C and D,' she added in a whisper, half afraid that it would be offended again. 'Mine is a long and a sad **tale!**' said the Mouse, turning to Alice, and sighing. 'It IS a long **tail**, certainly,' said Alice, looking down with wonder at the Mouse's tail; 'but why do you call it sad?' (homophones)

2. His death, which happened in his berth,
At forty-odd befell;

They went and **told** the sexton, and

The sexton **tolled** the bell. (homophones)

3. And then I heard the building walls **rock**

And stood before me, a giant like a **rock** (perfect homonyms)

With fear I felt my heart then **sink**

He picked me up and threw into the kitchen **sink** (perfect homonyms)

And then to escape, I picked up a **lead**

From the sink I found a giant tube that did **lead** (perfect homonyms)

To escape, I thought and slid through to **fall**

On the ground below, like leaves in **fall** (perfect homonyms)

My mission failed, I couldn't stop a **tear**

The journey through the tube, my shirt did **tear** (perfect homonyms)

And like a little pumpkin had swollen my **foot**

Without pain, I could not move a **foot**. (perfect homonyms)

4. My life **closed** twice before its **close**. (perfect homonyms) 5. Inside, the blinds

were **drawn**, but the furniture was real. (perfect homonyms) 6. "How is bread

made?" "I know that!" Alice cried eagerly. "You take some **flour** –" "Where do you

pick the **flower**?" the white Queen asked. "in the garden or in the hedges?"

(homophones) "Well, it isn't picked at all" Alice explained; it's **ground** –" "How

many acres of **ground**?" said the White Queen." (perfect homonyms) 7. "I'm a

lawyer," said the corkscrew, proudly. "I am accustomed to appear at the **bar**.

(perfect homonyms)

37. 1. Of course, it was better to have an **accomplice**, a **partner** in crime, but that

was out of the question. Jenna could hardly have asked one of her mates to come

and help her. (ideographic synonyms) 2. Jenna said nothing. She knew from

experience that was the best policy. Don't **confess** or **deny** anything.

(complementary antonyms) 3. Everyone had piled round to her house, all her

brothers and **sisters** and their mates and her mates. (complementary antonyms) 4.

I shall never forget the picture of those two men walking **up** and **down** the bank with a tow-line, looking for their boat. (conversive antonyms) 5. She was not **grateful** or **ungrateful** (derivational antonyms), or **unkind**, or **ill-humoured**. (contextual synonyms) She was only stupid. 6. It was the **best** of times, it was the **worst** of times, it was the age of **wisdom**, it was the age of **foolishness**, it was the epoch of **belief**, it was the epoch of **incredulity**, it was the season of **Light**, it was the season of **Darkness**, it was the spring of **hope**, it was the winter of **despair**, we had **everything** before us, we had **nothing** before us, we were all going direct to **Heaven**, we were all going direct **the other way** ... (in pairs: complementary antonyms) 7. The general character of her conversation that evening, whether **serious** or **sprightly** (gradable antonyms), **grave** or **gay** (gradable antonyms), was as something untaught, unstudied (absolute synonyms), intuitive, fitful. (ideographic synonyms)

8. Youth is **hot** and **bold**; Age is **weak** and **cold**;

Youth is **wild**, and Age is **tame** (Youth – Age: conversive antonyms; hot – cold; bold – weak; wild – tame: gradable antonyms / hot – bold – wild; weal – cold – tame: contextual synonyms)

38. • fiesta (Spanish) • bon voyage (French) • ibid (Latin) • tulip (Turkish) • get (Scandinavian) • law (Scandinavian) • tomato (Spanish) • umbrella (Italian) • operetta (Italian) • enfant terrible (French) • alma mater (Latin) • Madeira (Spanish) • sky (Scandinavian) • chef (French) • macho (Spanish) • haute couture (French) • prêt-à-porter (French) • déjà vu (French) • curriculum vitae (Latin) • school (Greek) • judo (Japanese) • sumo judo (Japanese) • banjo (Spanish) • undertake (native: ME) • goulash (Hungarian) • sheriff (native: OE) • silhouette (French) • orchid (Latin) • kangaroo (Australian aboriginal) • fowl (Germanic) • chap (native: ME) • caftan (Turkish) • beau monde (French) • thermometer (French) • ego (Latin) • confetti (Italian) • virtue (Latin)

39. In **winter** when the **fields** are **white**,
I sing this **song** for your delight.
 In **spring** when **woods** are getting **green**
 I'll **try** and **tell** you **what** I mean.
 In **summer** when the **days** are **long**,
 Perhaps **you**'ll **understand** the song.
 In autumn when the **leaves** are **brown**,
Take pen and **ink** and **write** it **down**.

40. (possible answers)

	Latin	Greek	French	Italian	Spanish	German	other
discipline	mathematics	beauty	opera	hurricane	larger	sushi (Japanese)	
constitution	geography	sculpture	volcano	Florida	rucksack	Shampoo (Hindi)	
student	biology	irony	balcony	California	noodle	lemon (Arabic)	
republic	anonymous	jewel	spaghetti	cafeteria	poltergeist	hazard (Arabic)	
class	theatre	age	salami	barbeque	kindergarten	Cookie (Dutch)	

41. abbreviate (Lat) – abridge (Fr) : to make a word shorter

- captain (Norm. Fr) – chieftain (Paris. Fr): leader
- fragile (OFr): easily broken or damaged – frail (MidFr): weak and thin
- artist (Lat) : someone skilled in the arts – artiste (Fr) : public performer
- liquor (MidE): alcoholic drink – liqueur (Lat): strong, sweet alcoholic drink
- salon (Sp): hairdresser’s or beauty parlour – saloon (Eng): drinking bar
- shade (N. Eng) : something that blocks light – shadow (S. Eng)

: surface where light is blocked

- emerald (OFr) – smaragdus (Ancient Gr): precious bright green stone
- gaol (OE) – jail (ME): place where criminals are kept
- dike (N. Eng) – ditch (S. Eng): wall built to stop water from a sea or river

going onto the land

- major (Lat): important, serious, significant – mayor (Fr): head of a town
- pauper (Lat) – poor (OFr) : having very little money
- senior (Lat) : old person; somebody who is higher in rank or position – sir

(OFr) : somebody who is higher in rank or position

- canal (Norm. Fr): artificial, man-made – channel (Paris. Fr): natural
- hospital (Lat) : large medical facility – hostel (Lat) : commercial overnight

lodging place – hotel (Fr) : accommodation and other services for paying guests

- skirt (Scand): covers the body below the waist – shirt (Eng) : covers the

body from the neck to the waist

- nay (Scand) – no (Eng) : negation

ward (OE) – guard (OFr) : person who, or thing, that, protects or watches over something

- legal (Lat) : permitted, required or prescribed by law – loyal (OFr) : faithful
- suit (OFr): set of clothes to be worn together – suite (MidFr): group of

connected rooms

- screw (Scand): thin pointed metal fastener – shrew (Eng): small mammal

with a long nose

42. 1. **channel** (natural) – canal (artificial, man-made) 2. **poor** (having not enough money) – pauper (beggar; very poor) 3. **sir** (somebody who is higher in rank or position) – senior (older) 4. **shirt** (covers the body from the neck to the waist) – skirt (covers the body below the waist) 5. **chief** (boss) – chef (head cook) 6. **saloon** (drinking bar) – salon (hairdresser's or beauty parlour) 7. **captain** (chief or leader; military officer) – chieftain (leader of a group, a clan or tribe); **skirt** (covers the body below the waist) – shirt (covers the body from the neck to the waist)

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