

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv
Educational and Scientific Institute of Philology
Department of English Philology and Intercultural Communication

GASTRONOMY VOCABULARY IN MODERN ENGLISH

Bachelor's paper
written by the 4th-year student
of the 1st group
of the bachelor's programme
'English studies and translation
and two Western European languages'
Field of science – 03 "Humanities"
Specialty – 035 "Philology"

Leonid Sheludko

Supervised by
Alla D. Belova
Doctor of Sciences, Full Professor

«Допущено до захисту»

Протокол засідання кафедри англійської філології
та міжкультурної комунікації

Протокол № 10 від 29.05.2023

Завідувач кафедри _____ проф. Белова А.Д.

Kyiv-2023

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.....	3
1. THEORETICAL BASIS OF VOCABULARY STUDIES IN MODERN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	6
1.1. Methods of vocabulary studies in Modern Linguistics	6
1.2 Theory of semantic relations between lexemes within a semantic field	10
1.3. Gastronomy as an object of research in Linguistics	17
Conclusions to Chapter 1	19
2. THE FIELD OF GASTRONOMY IN MODERN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	21
2.1. Gastronomic nouns in the English vocabulary	21
2.2. Verbs associated with cooking and food preservation.....	43
2.3. Adjectives related to gastronomy.....	52
Conclusions to Chapter 2	61
CONCLUSIONS	63
LIST OF LITERATURE.....	66

INTRODUCTION

Modern linguistic research is conducted within the framework of the functional-systemic approach, as it is related to the interpretation of language as an adaptive system in which units function in a relationship and are subordinated to the goals of communication. The vocabulary of gastronomy is an integral part of both professional and general human communication used on a daily basis, so it needs to be studied in the discourse of gastronomy.

Gastronomy is an important component of the mentality of peoples, reflecting the views, lifestyle and organization of representatives of different nationalities. Therefore, it is not surprising that the cuisines of different peoples of the world differ from each other. Gastronomy, along with language, is the most important tool for mastering another culture. British national cuisine is known throughout the world for its ancient history and traditional recipes.

The British are very proud of their cuisine and attach great importance to it. At the same time, national cuisines of English-speaking peoples – British, Americans, etc. – absorbed international features thanks to the active migration of representatives of other nations and the colonial policy of Great Britain until the end of the 20th century. The cuisine of English-speaking countries, the peculiarities of food preparation and consumption, the perception of certain household items and food products by English speakers – all this is reflected in the English language, mainly at the level of vocabulary and phraseology.

Food is an integral part of human life from birth to death. For centuries, people have passed on cooking technologies, various recipes, features of products and methods of their processing to future generations. But only in the 19th century increased interest of scientists in cooking as a science, which gave impetus to thinking about the gastronomic discourse. Researchers are mainly interested in the differences in gastronomy on different continents, the culinary traditions of the peoples of the world, as well as the reflection of gastronomy in culture and its influence on language. After all, not only the technique of its preparation is

connected with food, but also such components of human life as etiquette at the table, storage and transmission of recipes and general gastronomic information, rituals.

Gastronomic discourse is one of the most widespread in social communication. Food culture, as the most important component of the mentality of the peoples of the world, is an integral part of a person's everyday life. The objects of this type of discourse are texts of various specifications and genres, which represent a large field for research.

The vocabulary of food and drinks in the language and its dialects has a long study, as it carries information concerning daily lives of persons and has been fulfilling this function for thousands of years. Linguists study the names of food and drinks in several directions: a systematic description of the names of food and drinks in diachrony, a systematic description of the state of modern names in certain areas of language, a description of separate lexical-semantic groups related to the vocabulary of food as part of other thematic groups, study of the dynamics of food and drink names, as well as linguistic-geographic fixation of dialect names of food and drinks.

The importance of the work lies in the fact that despite the great interest in this issue, few works are devoted to its study. As is well known, the situation of food consumption is nationally determined, reflecting the ethnic, cultural, socio-religious characteristics of peoples. Multilingual culinary idioms represent a wide field for linguistic and cultural studies, due to the fact that the gastronomic discourse in each linguistic environment reflects the peculiarities of culinary traditions and the specific variety of food components used.

The aim of the work is to analyse gastronomy vocabulary in Modern English Language.

To achieve this aim, it is necessary to solve the following **tasks**:

- to consider theory and methods of studying gastronomy vocabulary in Modern English Language;
- to describe gastronomy as an object of research in Linguistics;

- to conduct the lexical analysis gastronomy vocabulary in Modern English Language in order to find out lexico-semantic features of it.

The object of the research is gastronomy vocabulary in Modern English Language.

The subject of the research is the set of lexico-semantic features of the gastronomy vocabulary in Modern English Language.

Research methods. The study was conducted using the following methods: a critical analysis of the scientific literature on the subject of research and a generalization of scientific views on the linguistic nature of gastronomy vocabulary in Modern English Language; method of continuous sampling used in order to collect data for analysis.

The theoretical and practical value of the work lies in the possibility of using its basic theoretical positions and practical results of research in courses of English Stylistic, English Lexicology as well as using data for further researches.

The structure of the work consists of the first part, the second part, conclusions, list of sources containing 44 units. The total size of the study is 46 pages.

1. THEORETICAL BASIS OF VOCABULARY STUDIES IN MODERN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

1.1. Methods of vocabulary studies in Modern Linguistics

The linguistic study of lexical units is not comprehensive without the application of various approaches and methods, both general scientific (induction, deduction, hypothesis, analysis, synthesis) and linguistic (lexical-semantic analysis, seminal analysis, the method of dictionary definitions, morphological-syntactic analysis), statistical – to identify quantitative indicators, for example, the number of borrowings in modern English gastronomy. Considering dynamism as the main characteristic of vocabulary and terminology, it is believed that its synchronic study is impossible without diachronic, paradigmatic is impossible without syntagmatic, since syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations characterize the language system simultaneously and jointly, as was noted by ukrainian linguist Semchynskyi S.V. [18, p. 58]. Syntagmatics contribute to the disclosure of hidden properties of a linguistic unit, which may not be noticed during the use of a paradigmatic (oppositional) approach. The combination of various approaches and methods of scientific research creates a more detailed picture of lexical and terminological systems. Thus, we approach the study of modern English gastronomy from the viewpoint of two main scientific paradigms of linguistics: structural (taxonomic) and communicative-functional (pragmatic).

Taking into account two aspects of studying gastronomy vocabulary, namely lexical-semantic and functional, we use appropriate linguistic methods for each of them. Studying the functional characteristics of gastronomy vocabulary in the modern English language makes it possible to reveal its expressive potential outside the terminological context [1, p. 68].

The lexical-semantic properties of lexical units are manifested in the phenomena of polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, antonymy. The lexical meaning of a word should be understood as its substantive content, which is designed

according to the grammar laws of a certain language and which is an element of the general semantic system of this language [6, p. 169]. Lexical meaning consists of denotative, significant, connotative and pragmatic components, the first two of which are mandatory, and the connotative and pragmatic components are peripheral [8, p. 121]. It is under the condition of comprehensive consideration of lexical-semantic and functional characteristics of gastronomy terms that it is possible to determine their expressive potential and trace the development of lexical meaning. The functional approach makes it possible to study the pragmatics and contextual features of vocabulary, because the context reveals the ambiguity and synonymy of gastronomy terms [1, p. 82]. The terms are used in the context of commonly used vocabulary, which helps to actualize terminological meanings. In the context, it is possible to determine the direct, terminological, and indirect, metaphorical meaning of the phraseology of the field of gastronomy. For example, the phrase “*a piece of cake*” can be used in the literal sense in gastronomy and also as a phraseology in the sense of “something that is very easy to do” in another, non-gastronomy context [36]. Lexico-semantic and functional approaches complement each other, providing a more complete and detailed study of gastronomy vocabulary in modern English.

The continuous sampling method is used when studying specialized vocabulary, , which consists in collecting factual research material, in selecting a corpus of gastronomy terms in modern English from printed and electronic sources that serve as illustrative material.

The descriptive method is used to substantiate the results of linguistic analysis, to explain linguistic phenomena, to outline the theoretical and methodological provisions that we rely on in scientific work, to form research conclusions. Studying the lexical-semantic aspect of gastronomy terminology in the modern English language, we use the following methods of linguistic research.

Component, or seminal, analysis of the meaning of a word makes it possible to break it down into components, which linguists call differently: differential sign (I.V. Arnold), sema (A.Zh. Greimas) , alosema (U. Hudynaf),

semantic marker (J. Katz, J. Fodor), semantic component (J. Lyons), content plan figure (L. Jelmslev). The most common and motivated term is the word “sema” [19, p. 17]. Semantic analysis makes it possible to delve into the content structure of the words. For example, to differentiate concepts such as *salad* (a mixture of uncooked vegetables, usually including lettuce, eaten either as a separate dish or with other food) and *salad bar* (a part of a restaurant or supermarket where you can get a salad or food for making a salad) [34].

Using *the method of dictionary definitions*, the terminological meaning is fixed among all the meanings of the lexical unit. For example, the word “*bake*” has multiple meanings, and we are primarily interested in the meaning of gastronomy “to cook inside an oven, without using added liquid or fat” [28, 38]. Accordingly, each meaning is also expressed in phraseological combinations: “bake up a storm” – meaning “to bake a large amount (of something) with great vigor or enthusiasm” [32].

Etymological analysis helped to establish the exact meaning of the word “*carte*”, to trace the origin history, to explain the reason for the presence in the English language of numerous synonymous terms for the concept of gastronomy: “*à la carte*” – “ordered by separate items (itemized on a bill); distinguished from a table d’hôte, indicating a meal served at a fixed, inclusive price; 1826, from French *à la carte*, literally “y the card” [36].

The lexical-semantic analysis makes it possible to establish the phenomena of synonymy, antonymy, homonymy, polysemy, as well as hypero-hyponymic, or genus-species relations in the terminology of gastronomy. The studied lexical units, having a hierarchical character, form a certain system, the core of which are terms, and on the periphery are jargonisms, professionalisms, and nomenclature units.

Distributive analysis is aimed at establishing the characteristics and functional properties of a language unit based on its environment (distribution), represented by units of the same level [19, p. 55]. Distribution indicates the specialization of the certain lexical units meaning, especially in stable phrases.

Morphological-syntactic (structural) analysis is widespread during the synchronous study of linguistic phenomena. This type of analysis reveals the structural features of the vocabulary of gastronomy, giving the opportunity to record simple, derived, complex terms or terms-phrases, abbreviations. Thanks to morphological and syntactic analysis, the most productive means of term formation can be found – syntactic, since the largest number of terms are binary nouns (*seafood Sunomono; seafood Tempura; seafood Teriyaki*) and verb phrases (*boil down, boil over, bolt down, chop up*) [36].

Contextual analysis provides an assessment of the functioning of terms in a special environment, enables the identification of contextual synonyms and antonyms. As the modern Spanish linguist P.M. Payán Sotomayor rightly claims that any word can have an emotional load in certain contexts, so when analyzing the meaning of a lexical unit, the context should be taken into account [10]. It is in the context that the meanings and nuances of the term's meanings are actualized.

Statistical analysis is used to establish quantitative indicators, such as percentage data of structural features of gastronomy terms, percentage of borrowings from different languages.

Investigating the functional aspect of gastronomy vocabulary, we use the following methods: contextual analysis, interpretive analysis, textual analysis, syntactic analysis. The functional method, which was developed within the framework of the pragmatic paradigm, “presupposes the study of language in action, in the process of functioning in view of the purposeful nature of linguistic phenomena” [19]. Gastronomy terms do not exist separately, but in a special environment within the gastronomy discourse, as terms are generally inseparable from the discourse in which they were coined and exist [26].

The functional approach makes it possible to study the functions of language units in context, in situations of oral and written communication. As noted by M.V. Volodina, the term is primarily a functional unit [8]. Gastronomy terms are used in a certain professional environment, in special texts, the totality of which belongs to the discourse of gastronomy. As was noted in the works of R. Cooper, the meaning

that a lexical unit receives in a certain context, in a specific discourse situation, is its content [29]. As part of discursive analysis, we use textual and interpretive analysis.

Textual analysis makes it possible to determine the pragmatics established by the author (advertising, influence on the reader, encouragement to cook, taste etc.). It is important to divide the texts into certain genres (educational, introductory, encyclopedic, advertising, communication texts of gastronomy business specialists etc.). Each text genre, designed for a specific addressee, has its own lexical, grammatical, syntactic, graphic features of impact on the reader. Semantic text characteristics, such as coherence, sequence of presentation of material, modality, saturation with terminological units, deictic markers, contribute to the integrity and communicative orientation of the text [2].

With the help of interpretive analysis, we identify implicational meanings; determine the role of metaphorical use of gastronomy vocabulary in contexts outside of gastronomy (poetry, songs, journalistic texts). It is also important to consider stylistic means of influencing the addressee, for example, comparison, epithets, repetitions, metonymy, metaphor, irony in special advertising and educational texts. Numerous cases of using the phraseology of gastronomy in news headlines are proof of their expressive potential in attracting the reader's attention.

1.2 Theory of semantic relations between lexemes within a semantic field

In Europe, the idea of the systematicity of language phenomena developed in the first half of the 20th century. in connection with the revival of interest in the teachings of K.V. Humboldt (in Germany – J. Trier, V. Porzig, G. Ipsen, F. Dornzeif; in Switzerland – V. von Wartburg). The developments of German linguists turned out to be especially fruitful; the most popular were the works of J. Trier and V. Porzig [15, 35].

The basis of J. Trier's theory is the understanding of language as a system based on paradigmatic connections of lexical units. J. Trier sees that the lexical layer of the language can be divided into constituent parts – “fields”, but the researcher combines words in groups intuitively, exaggerating associative connections [35, p. 67-78]. According to J. Trier's teachings, the structure and character of the dictionary is not determined by the interrelationship of objects and phenomena of objective reality, but the language itself “builds” reality, creates an image of reality [14, p. 428-449]. J. Trier and H. Ipsen introduced the term “semantic field” for the first time [14, 35].

Attempts to theoretically understand the concept of a field in language by referring to syntagmatic lexical-semantic relations were made by V. Portsyg: the scientist initiated the theory of so-called “syntagmatic fields”. V. Portsig drew attention to a special type of semantic relations between words. The researcher came to the conclusion that combining a word is largely determined by the part of speech they belong to. Thus, the connection with the objects of certain actions is reflected in the combination of nouns with verbs (“go” implies “legs”, “grab” — “hands”, etc.), and connections with the objects of certain signs – in the combination of adjectives with nouns (“white” implies “hair”) [15, p.71-80]. A similar phenomenon – the existence of a phraseologically connected meaning – was noted by V. Vinogradov. Phraseologically connected meaning is a manifestation of the same associative-semantic connections [7].

French linguist Charles Bally drew attention to the fact that often words, like a magnet, gather whole groups of associated words around themselves and that certain semantic connections are observed between these associated words [30, p. 67-77]. Later, such associations were called "associative fields".

In the process of functional language grammatical structure study, in particular the category of verb form, the concept of “functional-semantic field of aspectuality” was formed [5]. The grammatical field is a wide set of grammatical, word-forming, lexical and other means that serve to express verb-specific meanings.

Today, quite active research is being conducted in the semantic, lexical-semantic, functional-semantic fields, in particular regarding the Ukrainian language [4; 10; 11; 24; 25].

From the very beginning of its appearance, the term “field” is often used undifferentiated and serves to denote lexical-semantic, lexical-grammatical, syntactic and other associations of various levels (lexical-semantic group, thematic group, paradigm, etc.). The term “semantic field”, as noted by A.A. Ufimtseva, is filled with different content depending on where and in what one or another researcher finds the widest and most peculiar manifestation of the “internal form of language” [22]. Tsegelska M.V came to the conclusion that some linguists consider the “semantic field” primarily as a “unit” of the lexical-semantic system, while others refer to the properties semantic field, others pay primary attention to the principles of its internal organization [25, p. 114-126].

Despite the variety of approaches to the study of language field organization, a general idea of the field has developed in the scientific literature. First of all, a field is a set of linguistic units, in the majority of cases lexical, connected by a certain concept. The allocation of the field in the language system is carried out according to the principle of identification (principle of Charles Bally) [30]. At its core, this is the principle of semantic identification. For example, when including a language element in the morphosemantic field, not only the external, but also the internal, semantic, community of formal indicators is taken into account. Linguistic units that form fields reflect the objective connections of phenomena and objects of material reality, their substantive, conceptual or functional similarity.

The study of systemic relations between lexical units of the language is most often carried out by the selection and study of semantic fields. The semantic field, like any other, is built according to the principle of identification: lexical units are united around a semantic-logical identifier based on common semantic features. All units are connected by paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations. The semantic field is the unity of two opposites of one entity; within its limits, integral and differential semantic elements coexist (semantic features, semi, etc.). Semantic

levels of various degrees of generalization determine the gradational, hierarchical nature of the field, the presence of macro- and micro-units in its structure (micro-field, lexical-semantic group, synonymous series, etc.), which are in relations of subordination and dependence. One unit is a component of another unit of a higher level [33].

In language, fields function in a relationship. No field is isolated, not included in the general system and structure. Fields can partially overlap each other, combine or oppose each other, enter into synonymous and antonymous relationships. The same linguistic element (most often – lexeme) can be a member of different semantic fields.

I.A. Sternin, on the basis of existing works devoted to the field organization of vocabulary, formulated the central provisions of the field concept of language. The field, the researcher notes, is characterized by the following features:

- The field is an inventory of elements connected by system relations.
- The elements that make up the field have a semantic commonality and perform one common function in the language.
- The field unites homogeneous and heterogeneous elements.
- The field is formed from component parts – microfields, the number of which must be at least two.
- The field has a vertical and horizontal organization. Vertical organization is the structure of microfields, horizontal organization is the relationship of microfields.
- Nuclear and peripheral constituents are distinguished in the composition of the field. The core consolidates around the dominant component.
- Nuclear constituents are the most specified to perform the functions of the field, are systematically used, perform the function of the field most unambiguously, are the most frequent compared to other constituents, and are mandatory for this field.

- Field functions are distributed between the core and the periphery: part of the functions falls on the core, part on the periphery.
- The border between the core and the periphery is blurred, unclear.
- Field constituents can belong to the core of one field and the periphery of another field or fields.
- Different fields are partly layered on top of each other, forming zones of gradual transitions, which is a law of the field organization of the language system [21].

Thus, observation of the structural-semantic connections of language units allowed researchers to ascertain the fact of the field organization of language. Depending on the subject and object of study, different fields are distinguished: semantic, morphosemantic, syntagmatic, associative, grammatical (functional-semantic field of aspectuality, etc.). All these fields have common parameters: the reflection of objective reality, the unity of the internal, conceptual side of language units, the systemic nature of the connection of elements, the relative autonomy of the field and its components.

The semantic field has a multi-level structure represented by microfields, lexical-semantic groups (LSG), thematic groups, and synonymous series. The largest formation in the structure of the field is often the lexical-semantic group.

The first research on the theory and practice of LSG isolation is the work of F.P. Filin titled “On lexical-semantic groups of words” [23]. The main linguistic criterion for the selection of lexical-semantic groups is, as noted by F.P. Filin, the presence of semantic connections between words according to lexical meanings: “Lexico-semantic groups of words represent the union of two, several or many words according to their lexical meanings” [23, p. 525]. Thus the selection of lexical-semantic groups is based on the semantic unity of certain units – lexemes.

When including a word in the composition of the LSG, it is customary to take into account its categorical affiliation: units of the LSG must belong to one part of the language, “lexical-semantic groups of words – words that belong to any one part of the language” [23, p. 537]. Categorical commonality of LSG units

provides strong inter-lexeme semantic connections, which are manifested both at the level of lexical meanings of words and at the level of their word-forming formants, and thereby ensures the integrity of both the content and the form of LSG. Since the end of the 1950s, it has become generally accepted to define the LSG as a combination of words that belong to one part of the language and are semantically related to each other in terms of lexical meanings.

The lexeme is included in the LSG by means of semantic and logical identification. There are, as a rule, several levels of identification; each level of generalization corresponds to its own identifier. Thus, the semantic identifiers when determining the composition of LSG with the general meaning “good” are the meaning of moral evaluation of a person, positive connotation, expression of a benevolent attitude towards people. With the gradual introduction of identifiers, there is a gradual narrowing of the boundaries of lexical-semantic association to the level of LSG.

For half a century, lexical-semantic groups of various parts of speech were involved in the analysis. Nouns and verbs were the first to be researched, and only in the late 1970s and early 1980s did scientists turn to the study of the LSG of adjectives. The structure of the LSG is largely determined by the categorical properties of its members. For example, the system of LSG adjectives is based on the property of non-discrete concepts to manifest in their quality with a greater or lesser degree of intensity.

Semantic fields, first of all fields of qualitative adjectives, consist of microfields or LSG, which are in relations of opposition (binary) according to the main semantic feature. According to this principle, within the microfield, LSG adjectives are organized to denote color, taste sensations, size, volume, temperature, appearance, moral characteristics of a person, etc. The dominant components of such LSG are antonyms; nuclear constituents are consolidated around them; stable antonymic connections between lexemes are formed as a result of the interaction of the nuclear constituents of oppositional LSGs. There are also

peripheral elements in the relations of binary opposition, but the antonymic connections here are much weaker than between nuclear ones [23, p. 531-536].

One of the important aspects of studying LSG is solving the problem of boundaries. If the determination of the external boundaries of the LSG at the level of a microfield or field is carried out mainly using the identification method, then the determination of the internal boundaries of the LSG is established taking into account both linguistic and extralinguistic factors. For example, the distinction between core and peripheral elements depends on the ability of one or another lexeme to express the main meaning of the LSG, the frequency of its use, genre-style differentiation of meanings, valence, etc. Numerous studies indicate that the boundaries between the core and the periphery of the lexical-semantic association change very slowly both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The delineation of the LSG within the field (microfield) is quite clear. At the same time, one and the same LSG can be included (partially, and in some cases completely) in two or more semantic fields. Most often, the groups' border, but sometimes they can even be layered on top of each other [37, p. 125-134]. Connections between LSGs are carried out in two main ways:

- 1) first, through a kind of parallelism or combining the entire range of values of one group with the range of values of other groups;
- 2) secondly, due to various semantic connections of one member of the group with other words that are not part of this group [37, p. 145-150].

The generalization of the experience researching a number of LSGs at different chronological sections give us grounds for certain conclusions. The number of LSG within the field may change over time, and primarily due to extralinguistic circumstances. Changes of an extralinguistic nature (semantic, morphological, etc.) can be caused either by the unification of two groups, the absorption of one group by another, the inclusion of an "impoverished" group into the composition of a stronger one, or the selection of a new group formed from new or existing linguistic material. It should be emphasized that no matter what the changes of lexical-semantic groups are, they are all subject to one thing –

preservation of the conceptual scope of the field – lexical-semantic association of a higher order [12, p. 24-33].

The words that make up the LSG completely cover its conceptual surface. The number of LSG words is not constant and is in a state of continuous change: some words fall out of use, others are created. If any of these words were missing, then the meanings of other words would undoubtedly change due to the absence of one of the members of the semantic comparison [13, p. 114-126].

1.3. Gastronomy as an object of research in Linguistics

Food culture is one of the essential parts of the general cultural background of any country and nation. Interest in this sphere of social life is explained by a number of historical and methodological reasons [16, p. 53-62]. As noted by I.V. Sokhan, “gastronomic practices of consumption are one of the main ways of forming a person’s bodily identity, a marker of his cultural and social status” [20, p 97].

The symbolic status of the meal in the history of Western culture is gradually changing, losing its class-marking role as a result of democratization and the destruction of the class-hierarchized order in society. For example, in the British discourse of nutrition before the New Age, there was a clear class division (royal cuisine, noble cuisine, peasant cuisine, burgher-city cuisine, etc.) [28].

A culinary recipe is a reflection of real historical reality, it is a work that has a purpose and pragmatic attitude, fixed in the form of a written document, designed in accordance with the type of this document, consisting of a name (title) and a number of special units, united by various types of lexical, grammatical and logical connection. A culinary recipe consists not only of a verbal text, its feature is realization, i.e. the presence of a non-verbal part: drawings, color photographs. A culinary recipe “can be defined as a written, monologue, prepared, lapidary text that stores information of a “cumulative” nature, designed for long-term use” [6, p.

2-3], while the author has an advantage over the addressee in a certain field of knowledge, who can acquire the necessary knowledge and skills.

Ukrainian linguist I.M. Bovsunovska conducted a study of gastronomic cultural constants in the English-speaking world [3, p. 27-29]. She managed to find out that the most frequent constants include the following food products: bakery products (bread and cake), which make up 8%. They are presented in such phrases as: *smb's **bread** and butter* (daily bread, means of subsistence); *break **bread** with smb* (share a meal, be someone's guest); *nice as a **pie*** (very good, nice, cute); ***pie** in the sky* (paradise in the sky).

The second most frequent gastronomic item is fish (more than 7%). It is mentioned in the following phrases: *have other **fish** to fry* (have more important things to do); *be like a **fish** out of water* (a person who feels awkward or unhappy because they are in a situation that is not familiar or because they are different from the people around them).

The lexical units “eggs” and “duck” have a slightly lower specific weight (5% each). They are found in the following idioms: *make **ducks** and drakes of smth* (waste); *be a sitting **duck*** (easy prey); *put all one's **eggs** in one basket* (to risk); *as sure as **eggs** is **eggs*** (said to mean that you are very certain something will happen).

Among fruit crops, 4% is “nut t”: *hard **nut** to crack* (a difficult problem; also, an individual who is difficult to deal with.); *go **nuts*** (to become extremely angry).

This unit is followed by the gastronomic terms “meat” and “potatoes” (3% each): ***meat** and potatoes of smth* (most important, main); *a hot **potato*** (an unpleasant matter, a question); *be **meat** and drink to smb* (although do not feed with bread).

The researcher also refers to the names of drinks as gastronomic terms, among which she singles out “tea” and “water”, and the latter occupies more than 7% of the entire sample. The names of the drinks are presented in the following

phrases: *be smb's cup of tea* (to be to the taste, to be liked); *get into deep water* (get into trouble); *a lot of water has flowed under the bridge since*.

V. Riznyk chose as the subject of her research, in addition to the names of food and drinks, also the names of kitchen utensils and proposed dividing the thematic group of food names into lexical-semantic groups “common names”, “names of bread and flour products”, “names of everyday dishes” , “names of ceremonial dishes”, and their smaller associations – subgroups. The analysis of the names of food and drinks revealed that the field of gastronomy is polysemantic in nature. The use of food products is repeated in various rites of both calendar and family cycles, but the main one in all rites is bread [17, p. 1-20]. Thus, the gastronomic constant clearly reflects the cultural preferences and ethnic traditions of British food consumption.

Conclusions to Chapter 1

The study of the lexical-semantic and functional features of modern English gastronomy vocabulary involves the use of various methods, both general scientific (induction, deduction, analysis, synthesis) and linguistic (component analysis, etymological analysis, contextual analysis, interpretive analysis, morphological parsing). A comprehensive approach to the study of gastronomy vocabulary, which consists in taking into account paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, in the application of various research methods, ensures the objectivity of the obtained results.

The lexical-semantic group as a structural-semantic unit of language is characterized by the semantic connection of words and their meanings, the categorical community of lexical units, the hierarchical order of their organization, the relative autonomy of units, the continuity of the semantic space.

The smallest structural-semantic unit of the lexico-semantic system of the language – the word (lexeme) – is a structural element of both the field and the

LSG. In the study of the semantic structure of this smallest unit, it is possible, in our opinion, to define two main stages:

1) selection in the semantics of the lexeme of structural elements of the first degree – the meanings of a polysemous word; the word is considered as an autonomous, actually non-systemic unit; 2) selection of structural elements of the second degree in the semantics of the lexeme – latent meanings-links. connection between the meanings of one word and latent meanings – the connection between the meanings of different words; a word is considered as a system unit, a structural element of a lexical-semantic association (fields, lexicons, etc.); application of a new method of research, the method of component analysis .

It can be concluded that the main gastronomic units used in phraseological units are bread, water and fish. This is explained by the fact that Great Britain is an island country, where fishing is well developed, and bread is the main culinary ingredient. Since the country's climate is humid and cool, the human diet should include those foods that have high nutritional value. These include: eggs, meat, potatoes and nuts. These products are very nutritious because they are rich in protein, fiber, fats, vitamins and minerals. As for tea, it has been a traditional British drink since it was introduced to the country in the 16th century.

The gathered information regarding the English nation suggests that the study of gastronomic vocabulary and culinary concepts of a certain country may yield wide and important data regarding its culture, history, living conditions of its population, and certain insights into the social relations between its residents.

2. THE FIELD OF GASTRONOMY IN MODERN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

2.1. Gastronomic nouns in the English vocabulary

As food is a fundamental and integral part of human existence, it is necessary for a language to possess a fitting amount of names to convey the incredibly wide variety of concepts within its semantic field for practical use in daily situations. The work researches the field of gastronomic nouns by identifying and outlining several most prominent and commonly used categories of nouns that are essential for the gastronomic discourse from the semantical perspective. The following studied categories are:

1) Raw ingredients and food items which may be consumed or used to cook dishes.

2) Kitchen utensils utilized in the cooking process.

3) Meal types and meal courses which designate the occasions and conditions under which certain types of food are consumed as well as finished dishes typically associated with such meals.

4) Designations for establishments in which food is purchased, cooked, and/or consumed.

These nouns' role and importance in the English language is demonstrated with widespread food-related sentences and expressions on the examples of "The Science of Cooking", a 2017 culinary book authored by Dr. Stuart Farrimond [41], as well as "How Food Works", a 2017 biological gastronomy-related study published by a British company Dorling Kindersley [40].

The research is also supported by statistical and lexical data sampled from Food.com, a modern culinary website containing more than five hundred thousand recipes of various foods prominent in today's English cuisine [39]. Additional data and examples are also provided by open dictionaries of English vocabulary, such as Macmillan dictionary [34], Cambridge dictionary [29] and Merriam-Webster [36].

The first and one of the most widespread categories of gastronomy-related nouns can be named “raw foods” or “ingredients”, denoting specific objects that may be used as materials for cooking dishes or, in certain cases, consumed raw. Many food types fall under this category, most commonly widespread products that can be used for culinary purposes such as fruits, vegetables, fish, meat, grains, spices, herbs, and nuts.

The names of ingredients can be used in the context of raw food consumption if eating them without cooking is an acceptable and recognizable practice, which is common for many plant-based foods such as fruits and vegetables, as can be seen in the examples below:

*If you’ve ever eaten too many **carrots**, you’ll appreciate how the color of the food you eat can affect the color of your skin.* [41, p.72]

*You may be tempted to buy already-ripe **bananas** for a quick snack fix...* [41, p.170]

*Low-acidity **eating apples** are less tart, but don’t withstand cooking well.* [41, p.173]

On the contrary, many ingredients receive their gastronomic meaning when discussed in the context of being cooked or used in dishes, which is typical for various herbs and spices that are considered additions to dishes and aren’t commonly consumed raw on their own, as illustrated by the following excerpts:

*Strip the small but potent **thyme** leaves from the tough stalk before cooking.* [41, p.182]

*Cook **chiles** in oil or fat-containing sauces so that heat and flavor suffuse through the dish.* [41, p.190]

***Parsley** is a versatile herb that is excellent used as a garnish, but also works well in cooked dishes if added toward the end of cooking.* [41, p.183]

Generally, in gastronomic discourse the ingredients are frequently

mentioned when referring to their inherent properties, such as vitamins or nutrients that come from natural chemical compounds within these foods, and their effect on the human body in the case of consumption, such as in the following examples:

*Cooked **carrots** supply a greater number of heart-protecting carotenoids.* [41, p.152]

*Gentle cooking makes the beta-carotene and iron in **spinach** more absorbable.* [41, p.154]

***Brown rice** contains the living “germ” of the seed as well as fiber- and protein rich bran.* [41, p.131]

*Rich in fiber, protein, and essential nutrients, **beans** are thoroughly good for health.* [41, p.142]

In the case of plant-based foods, it's common to use special names which denote specific varieties of a certain food type. Such varieties may be similar to each other but possess distinctive culinary properties, which necessitates the lexical distinction. These names may consist of personal names or geographical locations from which the variety has originated from, as can be seen in the examples below:

***Maris Piper** is a high-starch mealy potato, it is ideal for roasting and fries.* [41, p.162]

*Acidic, tart-tasting varieties, such as **Granny Smith**, have cells bound together by more pectin than eating apples, which helps to strengthen the cell walls.* [41, p.173]

*...potatoes such as **Idaho or Russet**, which are full of water-absorbent starch granules.* [41, p.165]

Similarly, in the case of meat, there are different names for different types of meat depending on the animal, as they all require distinction. The following examples demonstrate it, describing particular qualities of certain types of meat:

*Roasted **beef** produces a range of meaty, brothy, grassy, earthy, and spicy flavors, and analysis reveals that it is the ingredient that shares the most flavor compounds*

with other foods. [41, p.21]

***Lamb** is suited to most methods of cooking, but the sinewy shoulder and leg cuts need to be cooked down slowly.* [41, p.33]

*Ranging from pale pink to rose, **pork** cuts often have a thick layer of fat that helps keep the meat moist when cooking.* [41, p.33]

When the discourse concerns bird meat, however, it is more common to form gastronomic names by using compound nouns consisting from the name of the bird and the word “meat” instead of using a specific term, as can be seen in the examples below:

*Pale-colored **chicken meat** is not high in fat, so it has a dry mouthfeel if overcooked.* [41, p.32]

*Rich, dark **duck meat** has a thick layer of fat under the skin.* [41, p.32]

*With lots of muscle and little fat, white **turkey meat** is good for stir-frying and grilling.* [41, p.32]

Fish are typically used in their entirety during cooking as opposed to bigger animals such as cows and pigs in which cases certain body parts may be stored and cooked separately, requiring specific names such as *beef* and *pork* respectively. Due to this fact, fish typically lack culinary names with their regular ones being used instead and the gastronomic meaning derived solely from the context, which is demonstrated in the excerpts below:

*With its oily flesh and meaty texture, **salmon** works well with a range of cooking methods.* [41, p.68]

*As a warm-blooded, active carnivore, **tuna** has dense, flavourful meat.* [41, p.68]

*Similar to cod, **haddock** is low in fat and has a high water content of up to 80 percent, so it can be fragile when cooked.* [41, p.68]

In the case of animal-based foods, it is equally important to distinguish

between certain body parts of various animals, some of which also having their specific names due to their widespread usage in cooking, as can be seen in the examples below describing qualities of specific animal body parts:

***Filletts** are cut from either side of the fish's body, removing the spine. This cut offers the most meat.* [41, p.68]

*Flattening the bird in this way helps the meat to cook more evenly throughout, in a similar way that pounding a **chicken breast** does.* [41, p.58]

As can be seen in the above example, in some cases such specific names are formed with the use of compound nouns instead of specific names, similarly to how the types of bird meat are distinguished.

*The finger test, below, together with how the meat looks, helps you to judge when **steak** is done.* [41, p.55]

It is worth noting that in the above example, the word “steak” can be associated with a cooked dish instead of raw ingredients, however it is referring to the specific cut of beef usually sliced across the muscle fibers.

A more general use of ingredients names, such as referring to the entire categories at once, occurs in discourse if the described properties may apply to all or many items of said category, as demonstrated in the examples below:

*To optimize health, it's important to eat a variety of cooked and raw **vegetables**.* [41, p.152]

*How can I cook **fruit** without it turning mushy?* [41, p.173]

*Densely packed with essential nutrients, **nuts** add crunch and creaminess to a wide variety of dishes.* [41, p.176]

***Mushrooms** are fungi, and have a unique flavor and a meat-like texture.* [41, p.153]

*Is it better to buy fresh or frozen **fish**?* [41, p.82]

*Risk of food poisoning affects some **meats** more than others, and depends on the way an animal is kept, fed, and handled when it is butchered.* [41, p.65]

Sometimes, the generalization may only refer to a certain part of the category to point out certain similarities or differences between the foods in context:

*Red meats taste distinctive to us, but when we try a **white meat** for the first time, we often compare it to chicken.* [41, p.65]

The above example differentiates between two most common types of meat with the use of compound nouns, drawing attention to their distinctive tastes.

*Eating-apple cells have less pectin than **cooking apples** and are bound together more loosely.* [41, p.173]

In the context of the above excerpt, the author separates apples into two different categories, one which is better to be eaten raw and another which is better suited for being cooked.

*For fluffy mashed potatoes, use **mealy, or starchy, potatoes**.* [41, p.165]

In the example above, the author spreads raw potatoes into named groups based on their qualities such as density and the amount of starch.

The second major category are kitchen utensils that are commonly used to prepare, cook, and serve food. These tools' gastronomic meaning in vocabulary is mainly derived from their widespread usage in conjunction with various food items either in one of two main gastronomy-related contexts: cooking or eating. One of the most essential tools in this context are knives. According to the Macmillan dictionary, the first and most widespread definition of the word *knife* is “an object with a sharp blade for cutting food”, and the three most common words used in conjunction with it are “bread”, “butter”, and “steak” [34]. Knives are commonly used in the contexts of both cooking and consuming food, which is represented in the lexical field as can be seen in the examples below:

*The **knife** should feel balanced and weighty enough to divide meat from bone.* [41, p.25]

*...a **knife** should have little resistance when twisted in the meat.* [41, p.53]

*Dry leaves before chopping, and slice cleanly with a very sharp **knife** to burst the*

glands with the least collateral damage. [41, p.184]

Knives also possess their own distinctions that are formed with compound nouns as in certain contexts it is important to differentiate between the various versions of this widespread tool, as can be seen from the excerpts below which describe their distinctive properties:

***Serrated knife:** use for foods that have a tough crust or smooth, delicate skin, such as bread, cake, or large tomatoes where precision isn't required.* [41, p.24]

***Chef's knife:** use for finely slicing, dicing, disjuncting large cuts of meat, and crushing garlic cloves with the side of the blade.* [41, p.25]

***A carving knife** should be thinner than a chef's knife as it is used to make the finest of cuts.* [41, p.25]

Forks and spoons are also considered essential utensils. While meaning is more often related to eating rather than cooking, they may also be used in the culinary context, albeit to a lesser extent, which is demonstrated in the following recipe excerpts in regards to forks:

*Use **a fork** to gently fluff up the rice just before serving.* [41, p.133]

*Beat the egg with **a fork** or whisk until yolk and white are combined—this disperses protein and fat.* [41, p.106]

*Prick the base with **a fork** to help steam escape.* [41, p.230]

Similarly to knives, spoons have specific names according to their size, with the two most widespread types being “tablespoon” and “teaspoon”. These designations are commonly used for denoting quantity in the context of cooking along with regular measurement units such as milliliters and grams, as can be seen in the examples below:

*To make your own sauce, place **4 tablespoons** refined coconut oil, 3oz (85g) chopped dark chocolate, and a pinch of salt in a bowl...* [41, p.244]

***One tablespoon** of mustard mixed into 8fl oz (240ml) of vinaigrette (3:1 oil to*

vinegar)... [41, p.202]

...sweetened with **one teaspoon** of sugar will make it taste as though it contains **three teaspoons** of sugar. [41, p.213]

...you need to substitute each **teaspoon of baking powder** with a **quarter teaspoon of baking soda** and **half a teaspoon of an acid**, such as cream of tartar. [41, p.213]

The English language also possesses a specific noun based off this gastronomic measurement which is named “*spoonful*” and may also be used in the context of cooking, albeit in less specific situations, as can be seen in the examples below:

...you can start a new batch using **a few spoonfuls** of the yogurt you have made, within seven days, while the acid-making microbe numbers are still high. [41, p.120]

It is easier to use **a spoonful** of an existing yogurt as a “*starter*” for new yogurt, as shown below, since most yogurts contain live bacteria. [41, p.120]

Another essential type of kitchen utensils are the objects in which the food is cooked, which may be considered their own subcategory in the culinary context. It concerns such utensils as pans, pots, woks are other object which are all used for a single general purpose of cooking dishes, but differ from each other to prepare different types of food via different methods. Common lexical usages of such utensils are demonstrated by the examples below:

Wok: use for stir-frying over the hottest flame, steaming, and deep-fat frying. [41, p.26]

...but more important is a **pan’s** thickness: the thicker the base, the more evenly the heat from the burner spreads across it. [41, p.26]

The traditional way to cook pasta is to throw the pasta into **a large pot** of water and add a sprinkle of salt... [41, p.146]

General additions regarding size or other qualities of such utensils are

commonly added in the form of adjectives as the distinctions aren't specific, but nonetheless important during cooking.

*Place 5fl oz (150ml) water, 12oz (330g) white sugar, and 4oz (120g) liquid glucose (if available) in a **heavy-bottomed saucepan**.* [41, p.235]

Similarly, this distinction denotes a general type of a saucepan without a specific naming.

*Alternatively, cook the pieces in a little oil in a **frying pan** over a medium heat until golden-brown.* [41, p.64]

As can be seen from this example, the names of such utensils may be compound nouns formed by adding the main purpose of the utensil before its name.

On the other end of this spectrum is the word “plate” which is generally associated with eating, food portions and served dishes, as can be seen in the examples below:

*...soy sauce can bring life to a **plate** of bland rice.* [41, p.207]

*...all of which improve the taste and texture of the meat on your **plate**.* [41, p.38]

*If they are added too soon, the nuances of their flavor will be destroyed by the heat of the pan before they get anywhere near **the plate**.* [41, p.185]

There is also a number of less common utensils that are used for specific tasks during cooking and therefore receive their vocabulary names strictly based on the role they perform. In many cases, such names are formed via transformation of a verb denoting the only or the most widespread function of a utensil into a noun by adding an ending (most commonly *-er*) to it, such as in the following examples:
*A sturdy-based four-sided box **grater** has holes for coarse shredding, fine grating, zesting, and powdering.* [41, p.28]

*A Y-shaped **peeler** can be used by left- and right-handed cooks.* [41, p.28]

*Choose a **masher** with a long, rigid metal handle...* [41, p.28]

*Metal gives **whiskers** a hard edge that aerates well and breaks up fat globules.* [41,

p.28]

*High-powered **blenders** rapidly pulverize and purée fruits, vegetables, and seeds, which exposes the pulp to air. [41, p.168]*

In certain cases, the names for such utensils are compound nouns formed by combining the function they perform with a general name denoting their shape or size, making their meaning instantly clear in the gastronomical context, as can be seen in the following examples:

*If you are using a **rolling pin**, divide the dough into pieces and roll out each piece individually until around 2mm thick. [41, p.144]*

***Measuring cup**: a clear tempered glass jug accurately judges liquid volumes. [41, p.28]*

***Chopping board**: durable and good for all foods, wooden boards have “give” so they don’t dull knives, unlike granite and glass. [41, p.29]*

The third widespread category of gastronomic nouns is related purely to food consumption and designates eating occasions referred to as “meal courses” or, more commonly, “meals”, as well as dishes cooked and served on such occasions. In the context of daily food consumption, the term “meal” is defined as “*an occasion when you eat, especially breakfast, lunch, or dinner*” [34], with all three grouped into the term “three main meals of the day” due to them forming the person’s daily ration. Different meals are often associated with different foods and eating habits, which can be seen in the following examples in regards to breakfast: *...turning it into a crunchy topping for soups and **breakfast cereals**. [41, p.141]*

Breakfast is typically regarded as a nutritious but not heavy meal, and the necessity to cook it in the morning leads to simple, single-food options being considered. One of the most popular of such options is cereal that is exclusively marketed as breakfast food and may even be referred to as such by general population.

*Having a **small breakfast**, or skipping it completely, extends the overnight fast,*

which may be beneficial. [40, p.182]

As is described in the above example, it is sometimes advised to either only have one food selection during breakfast or nothing at all, which, in the eyes of the general population, lowers the selection of foods associated with this meal specifically.

A notable exception to this rule would be the term “English Breakfast”, which is defined by Cambridge Dictionary as a “*a meal eaten in the morning consisting of cooked food such as fried eggs, tomatoes, and bacon*” [29]. While English Breakfast is a cultural staple and denotes a specific concept for the english, it is rarely eaten by the general population, especially on a daily basis, due to it requiring a lot of time and effort to cook during the morning.

Similarly, in the case of lunch and dinner, the time of the day in which they are consumed dictates many specifics of the meals and the way they are perceived, as can be seen in the following excerpts:

*Distracted eating, such as a **desk lunch**, may lead to weight gain.* [40, p.183]

In the above example, a special naming denotes the type of lunch that’s eaten outside of home due to it occurring mid-day, which may lead to poor food selections and unhealthy eating habits. According to a popular gastronomic website Food.com, typical choices for this type of lunch consist of foods that are both flavourful and easily portable, such as sandwiches, wraps, salads, or spreads that go along with bread [39].

*Roasted vegetables should be the crowning glory of **a dinner**, but all too often are limp and greasy.* [41, p.158]

As the dinner typically consists of several types of foods, the vegetables are often served to accompany other, heavier dishes such as meat.

*Making a stir-fry may seem like an easy **dinner** option, but doing it well requires skill and a lot of heat.* [41, p.160]

Likewise, a variety of fried food is considered most acceptable for dinner as it’s commonly the heaviest and richest meal of the day.

While certain dishes are mainly associated with some of the daily meals, such as meat and similarly heavy foods are usually meant for dinner and foods that are simpler to cook tend to be served in the morning, certain food staples don't tend to be limited to only part of the day, instead serving as an important part of a person's daily ration throughout. One of the most historically prominent man-made foods in this position is bread. It is an essential part of both gastronomy and culture, as was noted by the aforementioned work of V. Riznyk [17]. The usage of the word is widespread in gastronomic language, as can be seen in the examples below:

*There has never been any one way to make **bread** — ask a dozen bakers how they make their **loaves**, and you will get 12 different answers.* [41, p.220]

In this excerpt, the word “bread” is used as a general term, but “loaves” is used as a more specific and recognizable substitute as it's the form the bread is usually baked in.

*ONE LARGE EGG HAS JUST 75 CALORIES — FEWER THAN A **SLICE OF BREAD**.* [41, p.98]

As can be seen from the above example, a “slice of bread” is used for calorie comparison as it's the amount a person will typically consume at once.

*All grains are starchy, and when wheat flour is mixed with water and kneaded, for example, in **breadmaking**.* [41, p.210]

In the above excerpt, the action of making bread is denoted with a single compound noun, which signifies how common and widespread nature of the product.

In-between the three commonly accepted main meals, there are snacks, defined by the Cambridge Dictionary as “*a small amount of food that is eaten between meals, or a very small meal*” [29]. Snacks have their own variety of foods associated with them due to their specific purpose in a person's daily ration: they are meant to sate hunger before a bigger meal with the small portion of food. To

the contrary of the main meals, snacks are not supposed to be heavy, nutritious or healthy, their two main qualities are flavour and simplicity in their cooking. The word “snack” is widespread in the English language and may be included in the names of certain foods to produce necessary associations, which may be seen from the following recipe excerpts:

*Simple and quick **snack pizzas** that are perfect for afternoon snacks or movie parties. [39]*

*I have recently started the South Beach diet and had to come up with a way for my wife and me to satisfy the craving of pizza so I came up with this **little snack**. [39]*

*My brother wanted something for an **evening snack** this evening and he insisted on getting potatoes! [39]*

From a recipe titled “*Uncle bill's microwave potato chips*”, this comment denotes food that is easy and quick both to cook and to eat.

*The recipe says "**snack**" but they can multitask! [39]*

The last example, from the recipe titled “*Snack meatballs*”, specifically implies that the word “snack” means a limited amount of food unsuited for main meals.

*...these are a great weekend **snack** or can be served as appetizers. [39]*

Similarly, the recipe for “*Kittencal's chinese chicken balls*” denotes that the described food may either be consumed as a snack or become a part of a full meal that will be much larger.

Outside of daily meals, the English language possesses a variety of more specific designations used in, but not limited to, special occasions such as eating at dining establishments or preparing holiday meals. Usually, such meals consist of several dishes which are named “courses” with their lexical meaning denoting the type and quantity of foods associated with them as well as the order in which they are meant to be eaten. The most widespread names in this list are: appetizers, soups, salads, entrées (i. e. main dishes), garnishes (i.e. side dishes), desserts, and beverages.

The first course is typically *the appetizer*, which means either a first part of a larger meal or a small amount of food eaten before the meal itself [29]. Similarly to snacks, appetizers have small portions and aren't supposed to be heavy. Instead, as the noun itself suggests, they are meant to increase an eater's appetite by allowing them to taste the flavor but not satiate their hunger. The context in which this lexical item is used in is demonstrated below:

*I made this as **an appetizer** for Thanksgiving and got a lot of rave reviews on this one.* [39]

The example above is an excerpt from a "Spinach artichoke dip" recipe, describing a light artichoke spread that is served with small quantities of bread. *Splash on cold **appetizers** or use for dipping dumplings.* [41, p.206]

The author uses this phrase in regards to Soy Sauce, which adds more flavour to the food but not many calories.

*The average cost of a full three-course meal - **appetizer**, main course, and dessert - is about \$45.* [29]

Soups are typically regarded as both their own type of dish and their own course due to the specifics of how this dish is cooked and served. It is a well-known and popular dish both in England and around the world, with Food.com giving more than twenty one thousand recipe results containing the word "soup" [39]. This dish type is generally recognized and often used in gastronomy contexts, as in the examples below:

*It's used in goulash, **soups**, and spicy South American dishes.* [41, p.115]

*Historically, this was a salty **soup** that was used to preserve meat.* [41, p.48]

The word "stew" has a similar meaning but is more narrow, as while soups may be cooked with any ingredients, the naming "stew" comes from the verb "stewing", denoting to how it is cooked:

*In wet-cooked meat (such as in **a stew**) the collagen melts...* [40, p.65]

*Chop into small pieces and use sparingly in **stews** or curries to bring added*

freshness and vibrancy. [41, p.157]

This dish type has a rich variety, with many soup types receiving their unique names. Some of them are formed by simply adding primary ingredients of the soup and naming the resulted dish in the form of the compound noun, while others possess specific names that were historically used in recipes by the cultures that coined them, with both cases illustrated by the examples below:

*In several cultures, most notably in Ashkenazi Jews, **chicken soup** has long been described as particularly effective against colds.* [40, p.73]

*This is my favorite recipe for **potato soup**.* [39]

*If you like thick **chowder**, you'll love this one!* [39]

*Sorry but not a single **gazpacho** recipe on zaar is really what in Spain we have as a summer soup.* [39]

Somewhat similar to soups are the the “salad” dish types, as they are also regarded as their own course in many contexts such as holiday meals. Salads possess an even bigger variety in the English-speaking cooking sphere than soups, with the digital brand Food.com giving close to thirty thousand recipe results related to this dish [39]. In gastronomic discourse, this meal is mainly regarded as a mixture of ingredients served together to combine their flavours, therefore the name of the finished dish will often include names of the primary products used in its cooking, as can be seen in the examples below:

*This is an excellent **potato salad** recipe.* [39]

*Add 1/2 the dressing, let the **pasta salad** chill, at serving time add lettuce, remainder of dressing and toss.* [39]

One unique feature that salads possess in their lexical names is the fact that they may be separated into “summer” and “winter” salads, as different types of this dish are made during different times of year due to its heavy reliance on plant-based ingredients that are not always available. This causes contextual separation

that is reflected by the salads' names in the form of compound nouns, as can be seen below:

*This is my husband's favorite **summer salad**.* [39]

*Community Pick: **Winter fruit salad**.* [39]

This naming is so widespread that the associations that come with it (many things chopped up and mixed together until they are barely recognizable) are also often used figuratively, for example with a compound noun "word salad", meaning incomprehensible or confusing speech:

*Your explanation is a pompous **word salad**, with absolutely no meaning.* [29]

*Speech disorganization can involve words blended together into incomprehensible statements, also known as **word salad**.* [29]

One of the most significant parts of gastronomic discourse regarding cooked dishes are "main dishes" or "entrées" in the US. It is worth noting, however, that in the UK English the word "entrée" may be synonymous to the word "appetizer" instead, such as in the phrase "a salad entrée" [29], but the English dictionaries mainly define this noun as a main course of a meal. This type of meal is typically associated with the most heavy and filling food such as meat or fish of some type. It can be used along with a compound noun "side dish", which is paired with entrees to add flavour and enhance the eating experience. The main dish, however, is usually referred to with a higher priority, as can be seen from the examples below:

*Mediterranean summer breeze tuna **entrée**.* [39]

*We had steak as an **entrée**.* [36]

*The menu features several appetizers, two dinner **entrees** and two desserts.* [29]

The "side dish" is a recognized term and may be used without mentioning the main dish in a sentence, but implying its existence, as can be seen below:

*As a **side dish**, try to get scallops from Barra.* [36]

*Super flavorful, this dish makes the perfect **side dish**.* [36]

This hearty vegetable dish gets a kick of crunchy texture from sliced almonds, and

*works well as a light main or a **side dish**.* [36]

As can be seen from the above example, main dishes are typically regarded as heavier than side dishes due to their association with animal-based foods, while the side dishes are often either fully plant-based or contain less meat.

The last meal course is usually the dessert, which is mainly associated with sweet foods, grouping together such dishes as pastry, cakes, confectionary, chocolate, and other products with high amounts of sugar. This category is similarly widespread, with Food.com listing more than one hundred thousand recipes for this type of dishes [39]. Sweetness is the quality that defines the dishes of this course and places them at the end of any meal. The discourse concerning desserts reflects this context as well, often mentioning their sweetness and adjacent qualities along with typical foods that may possess them, such as in the following cooking-related examples:

***Melted chocolate** is suitable for use in **desserts** or baked goods that will be served warm.* [41, p.241]

*A ganache is a delightfully simple **mixture of cream and chocolate** that can be adapted and used as a truffle filling, a flavored cake icing, or a decadent **dessert** in its own right.* [41, p.243]

*...many **desserts** add salt just to amplify **sweetness**.* [41, p.232]

*With a **sweet, rich flavor**, pecans add crunch to **desserts** and baked goods.* [41, p.177]

*Coaxing a **sugar-cream mix** into the silky-smooth **dessert** we all know and love needs time and care.* [41, p.118]

Similarly, the individual recipes for certain desserts focus on this quality as well, but may also refer to other typical qualities of such meal, such as softness or texture:

*This final freeze **solidifies** the **ice cream** completely before serving.* [41, p.119]

*In **cakes** and **pastries**, starch is the key component and too much gluten creates a **dense texture**, so a low-protein flour is ideal.* [41, p.210]

*Too much sugar in a **cake** mix will produce a cake that is **too soft**...* [41, p.213]

Lastly, one major category of gastronomic discourse that can be used in conjunction with meals but is not considered a direct part of them are drinks, or beverages. While not food, drinks are essential for gastronomic discourse as they typically play a role in any meal, possess great variety of flavors and types, and may also be used in the cooking process. The usage of the noun “drink” is very common in gastronomic context, as can be seen from examples below:

*Our **drinks** arrived first, and our entrees came soon after.* [29]

*They'd had no food or **drink** for two days.* [29]

This category is often separated into hot and cold drinks, as these two types are typically consumed in different weather and/or different occasions while both having large varieties, which are demonstrated by the following examples:

*I like to have a **hot drink** at bedtime.* [29]

*In hot weather, shops do a brisk trade in **cold drinks** and ice creams.* [29]

Other distinctions are also made for certain widespread groups of drinks by forming compound nouns with the names of their most prominent and recognizable, as can be seen from the examples below:

*He later said an unnamed **energy drink** he bought at a gas station contained the banned substance.* [29]

*Most of the accepted antidotes for chile burn — including alcohol and **fizzy drinks**...* [41, p.192]

*Butterscotch candy (**mixed drink**)* [39]

Regarding the specific names of the drinks, many of them are based off the plant-based ingredients used to produce them, with the name of the ingredient in discourse being associated firstly with the finished beverage instead of the plant itself. The most common examples of this are coffee and tea:

*Many of **coffee's** 200-plus complex, rich flavors are due to the roasting of **beans**...*

[41, p.20]

In the above example, the “coffee” is referred to be a produced drink instead of the plant which is referred to as “beans” in the second part of the sentence for clarification.

*Smoky compounds in **black tea** generated from drying, heating, and the aging of tea leaves after picking...* [41, p.21]

“Tea leaves” when referring to the raw tea is a needed clarification as well, since this naming is far more present in the English speakers’ minds as traditional drink rather than a plant used to make it.

A notable type of beverages are alcoholic drinks, which have certain stigma associated with them due to the harmful effect alcohol intoxication has on human body. These drinks are usually reserved for special occasions and play an important role in social interactions, as they are a part of many gastronomy-related gatherings and traditions.

While the discourse concerning alcoholic beverages isn’t always related to gastronomy, especially concerning their negative connotations, such as when the legality of alcohol’s purchase and consumption are discussed, this type of drinks still holds a variety of aspects that are of interest to the gastronomic field research. For example, the use of certain alcoholic beverages such as wine in cooking, as is demonstrated with the following examples:

*Herb flavors are more potent in **alcohol** than in water.* [41, p.182]

*Poaching fruit with acids, such as lemon juice or **wine**, and a sweet syrup will also keep them firm.* [41, p.173]

*Let the fish cook for half an hour before you add the **wine**.* [29]

*Some cheeses are weighted or pressed to remove moisture and create a harder-textured cheese, and some are “washed” in **brine, wine, or cider** to create a soft rind patinated with flavorful molds.* [41, p.122]

Overall, it can be said that while beverages typically don’t form the gastronomic discourse on their own, they are still heavily present in it due to being

used in conjunction with food in various different contexts ranging from cooking to food consumption.

Similarly, different types of dishes are typically combined with each other to form complete meals, with each having their own widespread occasions and timings for being eaten as well as contributing to a person's daily ration which requires a variety of different foods. Together the names of these food items build associations and categories that form the essential gastronomic discourse which is used by English speakers on a daily basis.

The last widespread category of gastronomic nouns in the English language possesses a somewhat smaller variety than previous ones but is nonetheless essential in the discourse, denoting food-related establishments and locations needed for a functioning society. In the context of purchasing foods, the most common type of establishments fulfilling this function are grocery stores, with the word "groceries" referring to food in general, but only in the context of it being an item in a shop. This gastronomic term is widespread and recognizable due to its essential function in the discourse, that can be seen in the examples below:

*Do you ever go to the **grocery store** and realize you've forgotten your shopping list?* [29]

*I was carrying three heavy bags of **groceries**.* [29]

*That's more than I spend on my weekly **groceries**.* [29]

Many shops have more specific designations due to selling foods of certain types. In this case, their names are typically formed either by the main function the shop is performing or after the type of food they're selling, as can be seen from the examples below:

*People were stealing bread from those who went to the **bakery**.* [29]

This naming is formed by adding an -y ending to the verb "to bake", reflecting the shops' purpose of selling baked goods.

*The supermarket has a **butchery**...* [29]

Similarly, this naming was formed by transforming a verb which denotes

animals being butchered to then sell their meat, which is the main product in such establishments.

*Smoked sausage can be found in most **delicatessens**.* [29]

Sometimes, such names may be borrowings or “loan words” that are nonetheless understood to the general population. The naming above comes from the German word denoting exotic or unusual food, but can also be associated with the English word “*delicacy*” of similar meaning.

The English language also possesses a variety of names for establishments which cook and serve food for the customers, most notable and general noun of this category being the word “*restaurant*”. In discourse it can be used on its own as a general denotation of such a concept, or in conjunction with adjectives denoting the type of food or cuisine served there, as can be seen from the examples below:

*His parents run **a restaurant** in the centre of town.* [34]

*We went to a little **Italian restaurant** and shared a pizza.* [29]

*There is a giftshop and small **fast food restaurant** that is open during the main visitor season.* [29]

*In high labor cost markets, **ghost restaurants** can bring down the price of handmade meals.* [34]

“*Ghost restaurant*” term refers to a new type of restaurant which only works as a food delivery instead of serving customers indoors, creating a creative collocation to refer to such places which may become more prominent in the future, illustrating how such compound nouns in gastronomic discourse are formed.

Other names of this category typically denote establishments with certain connotations but are nonetheless widespread and understood, which is demonstrated in the following examples:

*There's a little **café** on the corner that serves very good coffee.* [29]

“*Café*” is typically defined as a place which serves simple and affordable food, as opposed to many restaurants.

*The two parents then sat in a **coffee shop** and listed the clauses they understood should be included in such an agreement. [29]*

The example above is a compound noun which denotes an establishment focused on a certain type of drink and the purpose of selling it, despite not referring to a shop in a traditional sense.

***The pizzeria** includes gluten-free and vegan items on its menu. [29]*

“*Pizzeria*” is formed from the name of the traditional Italian dish such establishments mainly serve.

*They are not **bistros**; they are actual shops. [29]*

“*Bistro*” is a borrowed term from French that denotes a café in the style of this country, which is a common practice for such names in the English language.

Concluding the topic of gastronomic nouns in the English language, it should be noted that in many cases, gastronyms that have come into the language are actually vocabulary borrowed from other languages, denoting products or dishes that have become familiar to the English-speaking world due to the growing flow of migration. As a rule, this vocabulary has a phonetic design that is uncharacteristic of the English language, which could be seen with such abovementioned words as “*gazpacho*” or “*pizzeria*”.

Traditional models of words formation and phrases are often used in this field. A number of lexemes are formed with the help of compounding, when two or more bases of quite familiar and well-known English words are formed into a new one that gets its own meaning. In regards to nouns specifically, two models of formation are characterized as the most productive: Noun + Noun = Noun (“*chicken breast*”, “*summer salad*”, “*desk lunch*”) and Adjective + Noun = Noun (“*red meat*”, “*main dish*”, “*fizzy drinks*”)

Overall, gastronomic nouns possess a great variety of lexical items which are necessary to reflect the culture and cuisine of the English-speaking population, allowing the speakers to freely denote and discuss the vast variety of food-related matters, from their daily meals which are essential for a person’s survival to

unusual and exotic food traditions, dishes and concepts that may be unfamiliar to many members of the population but are nonetheless important in a specific discourse.

2.2. Verbs associated with cooking and food preservation

Verbs are an essential part of any discourse, as they build relations between different concepts and connect their meanings in sentences, building expressions that allow individuals to freely reflect their actions and intentions during speech. As was noted by a ukrainian linguist L. O. Kharchenko, the lexical semantics of the verb is the most functional adapted to the role of a predicate [24, p.181-184], which is supposed to state, affirm or assert something regarding the object, therefore providing the necessary additional context to fully understand it in a phrase.

Gastronomic vocabulary possesses a variety of specific verbs and phrasal verbs which denote various food-related actions. While the field of such verbs is fairly narrow when it comes to the context of food consumption, with the word “*eating*” and its different forms such as “*eating up*” comprising the majority of the category, it is quite rich when it comes to food preparation, as there are various ways to cook food, all of which require their unique names in the English vocabulary. The most commonly used verb is the basic one which is used for general expressions regarding the culinary process: “*to cook*”.

*I sincerely hope that you feel inspired and equipped **to cook** in a new way.* [41, p.10]

*There are various reasons **to cook** food.* [41, p.14]

*So how else does **cooking** food benefit us?* [41, p.14]

There are many ways to cook food which must be denoted specifically in recipes, so this verb is mainly used when the referred method of cooking is generally understood or to refer to gastronomic concepts in general such as in the examples above. As for the specific cooking methods, the commonly used ones are

the following ones:

to bake – to cook inside an oven, without using added liquid or fat [29];

*The two main ways **to bake** fish have different results...* [41, p.83]

*If you don't **bake** bread often, you can keep your starter in the fridge.* [41, p.219]

to fry – to cook food in hot oil or fat [29];

*When **frying**, choose oil with a high smoke point.* [41, p.198]

*If using nonstick, **fry** the garlic and ginger in oil over medium heat...* [41, p.161]

to grill – to cook food over fire or hot coals, usually on a metal frame [29];

***Grill** your steak for that delicious smoky flavor that you can't achieve in the kitchen.* [41, p.54]

*Finish the meat **by grilling**.* [41, p.51]

to boil – to reach, or cause something to reach, the temperature at which a liquid starts to turn into a gas [29];

*Use a pressure cooker in place of a saucepan — it allows water to reach high temperatures without **boiling**.* [41, p.64]

***Boil** pulses 1–2 minutes, remove from heat, cover, and soak in the hot water for 30 minutes.* [41, p.139]

to simmer – to cook something liquid, or something with liquid in it, at a temperature slightly below boiling [29];

***Simmer** gently for at least 1½ hours (ideally 3–4 hours).* [41, p.64]

*Cover with a tight-fitting lid, reduce the heat to very low, and **simmer** gently for a further 15 minutes, until the water is absorbed.* [41, p.133]

to roast – to cook food in an oven or over a fire [29];

*Break up one whole chicken carcass into pieces and **roast** in a preheated oven for*

20 minutes at 400°F (200°C). [41, p.64]

***Roast** the vegetables, uncovered, for a further 35–40 minutes, or until the vegetables are tender and beginning to char around the edges. [41, p.159]*

to stew – to cook meat, fish, vegetables, or fruit slowly and gently in a little liquid [29];

*The dark leg meat contains more connective tissue and can **be stewed**. [41, p.32]*

*...undercooked beans are even nastier than raw ones and have been known to cause outbreaks of poisoning after **being stewed** at a low temperature for many hours. [41, p.142]*

to steam – to cook food using steam [29];

***Steaming** retains nutrients well, though research also shows that vegetables benefit from different cooking techniques. [41, p.159]*

*...and **steam** everything under a tight-fitting lid. [41, p.161]*

to caramelize – to cook a food with sugar so that the food becomes sweet and often brown [29]. This word is typically used in a passive voice as it denotes the process happening with the food itself;

*As well as enhancing flavor, sugar helps to speed browning and also **caramelizes**. [41, p.49]*

*As the temperature rises, the color darkens as sugar **caramelizes**. [41, p.236]*

to brew – Similar to the verb “to cook”, but exclusive to drink and beverages. Can be used in regards to alcoholic drinks to describe a specific process of their preparation or in a more general sense, denoting to the process of any drink becoming ready;

*Like **brewing** beer at home... [41, p.127]*

*He **brewed** some coffee for us. [29]*

As can be seen from the examples above, different cooking methods are associated with both different ingredients and dishes which are the result of their usage. These associations are determined how effective it is to use certain cooking methods in conjunction with certain foods. For example, *grilling* is typically used for meats and vegetables as cooking them in such ways bring out unique enjoyable flavors, while *baking* is associated mainly with bread since it's the only way to properly cook it, but also can be used in recipes for different food types such as fish.

Another important category of gastronomic verbs denote instructions regarding food preparations which typically occur before or during the cooking processes listed above. Some of these words are not exclusively gastronomic as they denote standard, simple actions that can be performed in a variety of daily situations, but are nonetheless often used and recognized in the gastronomic context as they are essential for making dishes. Examples include:

to add (mainly used in recipes to point out which ingredients are to be included);

*Fry and **add** to vegetable curries.* [41, p.122]

*The trick to using yogurt while retaining a glossy curry sauce is knowing when to **add** it.* [41, p.121]

to break (used in recipes to describe what should or should not happen to certain ingredients and foods);

*The mixture thickens as the oil **breaks** into smaller drops.* [41, p.109]

*Avoid using rapidly boiling water, because the turbulence will **break** the egg white apart.* [41, p.102]

to chop (typically used in recipe instructions for meal preparations);

***Chopping** the mushrooms first maximizes vitamin D production.* [41, p.153]

*How do I **chop** an onion WITHOUT CRYING?* [41, p.156]

to mix (used similarly to the verb “add”, but implies additional actions usually to form new foods and ingredients);

Mixing flour with water forms a dough of bonded proteins, starches, and water molecules. [41, p.220]

How you **mixed** your batter, the quantities of ingredients used, and the oven temperature will all affect how well... [41, p.216]

to knead (to the contrary, this is an exclusive gastronomic verb denoting the process of working dough to prepare it for *baking*);

Turn the dough onto a lightly floured work surface and **knead**. [41, p.221]

Continue **to knead** until the dough is smooth and stretchy, with no visible lumps. [41, p.221]

to slice (denotes the process of cutting food into thin pieces, typically with a sharp knife);

The scalloped blades slide into the crevices **to slice** food open. [41, p.25]

Thinly **slice** overcooked meat and use it in a stir-fry. [41, p.61]

to cut (similarly to the previous verb but is considered a more general term, used in instructions and recipes for making and serving dishes);

Cut a skinless fillet of fish into cubes or thin slices of around 1in (2cm), then follow these timing guidelines. [41, p.90]

...including which milk to use and how small **to cut** the curds. [41, p.122]

to pour (a widespread verb which may be related to any sort of liquid, used in culinary recipes regarding ingredients or beverages);

Pour 1¾ pints (1 liter) whole milk into a saucepan over low heat. [41, p.127]

Use hot as a sauce or **pour** into a shallow bowl and leave to cool for confectionery or tart fillings. [41, p.243]

to spread (used in culinary context for garnishes or similar additions to meals, either being spread over them or throughout a dish);

*To oven roast, **spread** lightly oiled nuts and seeds over a baking sheet and cook in a preheated oven. [41, p.179]*

*Holes are pierced into the cheese to **spread** mold throughout. [41, p.124]*

to stir (typically used in instructions for making soups or similarly liquid meals that need to be mixed by moving a spoon around);

***Stir** and allow to cool for 10–15 minutes until the mix has curdled and the curds have separated. [41, p.127]*

*As the milk cools and settles, whey will readily rise, so continue **to stir**. [41, p.116]*

As can be seen from the recipe excerpts and culinary trivia above, many verbs are routinely used in the gastronomic context as cooking is a complex and multi-layered process that involves many steps which may greatly vary depending on the dish being made.

Another important part of the gastronomic verbs in the English language are phrasal verbs, which are combined with certain adverbs or prepositions to create new specific meanings which in many cases are essential for the field of gastronomy. Examples of such phrasal verbs directly related to the culinary process include:

to boil over – to cause liquid to overflow during boiling, usually from a pot or similar cookware;

*... the temperature of the milk beneath the skin will soar and it will **boil over** the side of the pan in an explosive fashion. [41, p.116]*

to cut out – to remove something from food by cutting it, usually some undesired parts of ingredients;

*And large lumps of fat in stewing steak should be **cut out**.* [41, p.52]

to cut (something) up – to cut something (such as meal or a certain ingredient for it) into pieces completely;

*Natural cheese is sold in a variety of shapes and sizes and can then be grated, sliced, or **cut up** and used as required.* [41, p.126]

to break down (into something) – in the culinary context, used to describe foods or certain chemical compounds within them dissolving into simpler parts;

*The starches will **break down** into sugar as the fruit ripens.* [41, p.171]

*Cook slowly in liquid to **break down** the connective tissue to tenderize the meat into succulent gelatin.* [41, p.41]

to break up – to separate a certain food or ingredient into parts for cooking or serving;

***Break up** a whole bird into individual pieces.* [41, p.59]

***Break up** one whole chicken carcass into pieces and roast in a preheated oven for 20 minutes at 400°F (200°C).* [41, p.64]

As can be seen from the demonstrated examples above, the composition of Verb + Preposition is most commonly used to form gastronomic phrasal verbs, with the preposition used to specify, clarify, or give an entirely new meaning to the verb placed before it. However, while the meaning of such phrasal verbs may greatly differ from the regular verbs used to form them, they are still closely related as they denote connected processes (such as “*boil over*” being directly connected to “*boiling*”) and therefore have similar positions in the semantic field.

Another important field of the gastronomy verbs are those associated with food preservation. Generally, this part of the LSG can be separated into two parts, the first using regular words which are common for not only gastronomy but other fields as well, and other which is gastronomy-specific and describes more

complex, in-depth ways of preserving food. The most commonly used words in the first category are “*to keep*”, and “*to store*”, which have a wide meaning and may refer to different kinds of foods, as can be seen in the examples below:

*Wrap hardy herbs in a paper towel to absorb excess moisture, and then **keep** in an airtight container in the refrigerator.* [41, p.183]

*GROUND SPICES: **KEEP** IN A COOL, DARK PLACE TO PRESERVE FLAVOR MOLECULES.* [41, p.188]

*Cheeses are best **stored** loosely wrapped (and in an airtight container if refrigerated)...* [41, p.127]

*Always cool promptly and **store** cooked rice at less than 41°F (5°C).* [41, p.134]

As can be seen from the above excerpts, these verbs are typically associated with further instructions and constructions such as “*store in*” or “*store at*” are quite common since these terms are not self-contained and need additional details to answer questions such as store where, or store at what temperature, as these specifics are important when it comes to preserving different types of food.

The second category of verbs focused on food preservation concerns more specific terms which imply certain actions and preparations by themselves, such as the verb “*marinate*” (to put fish, meat, or vegetables in a mixture of oil, vinegar or wine and spices before cooking [29]). By definition, this word only applies to a limited selection of food, and is typically used in conjunction with the ingredients it’s associated with, as can be seen from examples below:

***Marinate** meat for no longer than 24 hours, and ideally less.* [41, p.48]

*If you **marinate** meat for too long, the salt in the marinade will actually start to cure the outside of the meat and the outer layers will be mushy when cooked.* [41, p.48]

The role of this process in food preservation isn’t always clear, since, as Dr. Stuart Farrimond writes in the “Science of Cooking” [41], marinating used to be a process to preserve meat or fish with the use of salt, but nowadays it’s mostly used to enhance the food’s flavour before cooking, so it can be considered cooking-

related instead, depending on the context it's used in.

Another widespread process of preserving food is storing it in very cold temperatures as they prevent rotting and spread of harmful microbes, which is referred to as “*freezing*”. While this verb isn't specific to gastronomy, it does possess a specific meaning in the gastronomic discourse as it's generally understood and recognizable, as can be seen from the excerpts below:

*...buy sushi-grade fish, or purchase your fillet from a reputable source and **freeze it** for 24 hours before defrosting to kill any parasites that are present. [41, p.80]*

*Bananas ripen quickly, so whichever level of ripeness you prefer, use them swiftly or **freeze them** to halt the ripening process. [41, p.170]*

*If I **freeze** meat, will it destroy the taste and texture? [41, p.44]*

As for a more long-term food preservation, the most widespread way of keeping the food from spoiling is the process named “*canning*”, which is simply formed from the noun “*can*” as it's the object in which such food will be stored. This verb is generally used in discourse without further clarifications as it's generally understood on its own, as can be seen from the following excerpts:

*In addition to sealing food, **canning** also involves extreme heat treatment to kill off any microbes. [40, p.50]*

*Lycopene in tomato cells is released during the heating stage of the **canning process**. [40, p.57]*

The scientific gastronomy-related book “How Food Works” [40], also provides several other types of food preservation which may be used to store certain types of ingredients with the use of other highly specific methods, all of which are typically focused on killing harmful microbes that cause the food to become spoiled. However, these methods are less commonly used since they drastically change the taste and image of the foods, which may be unsuited for certain meals:

drying – removing moisture from the food to keep microbial growth.

salting – increasing the concentration of salt in food to dehydrate microbes.

pickling – making food more acidic which will destroy microbes in it.

smoking – thermally process the food to infuse it with a variety of antimicrobial, antioxidant, and acidifying compounds.

Overall, the English language possesses a wide variety of verbs within the LSG related to cooking and food preservation, each of them essential for the culinary discourse in some fashion and each denoting a specific way of preparing foods that was devised by the population at some point in the past. Finding ways to preserve and cook food was necessary throughout the entire history of mankind, as many ingredients are simply unedible when raw and therefore could not be relied on for survival.

It was also found out that the field of verbs associated with cooking is the widest one among the gastronomic verbs, exceeding those related to food consumption and preservation. This can be explained by the fact that culinary process is both an essential part of a person's daily life and a source of enjoyment, which encourages the population to attempt new, different ways of cooking delicious meals and, in turn, affects the gastronomic vocabulary to reflect all the newly formed cooking trends and changes for the sake of keeping the discourse up-to-date. Cooking is also a complicated process typically consisting of many steps, each requiring their own names (verbs such as *slicing*, *cutting*, *boiling*, and *frying* may be parts of the same recipe for a relatively simple dish), unlike storing and consuming food which are mostly referred to as singular acts (for example, *canning* or *eating* respectively).

2.3. Adjectives related to gastronomy

Adjectives are the third major group within gastronomic vocabulary the research is focused on. As with every other type of discourse, gastronomy-related adjectives in the English language are meant to modify nouns, providing more

details or specifying certain concepts. This part of speech is frequently used in relation to food, as meals possess a wide variety of qualities essential for the gastronomic discourse, making it necessary for them to be represented through specific lexemes.

One of the most commonly used food-related groups of adjectives are those which denote the food's appearance in relation to common human senses, the most important of which is typically considered to be taste due to its essential role in food consumption. From a biological standpoint, humans perceive taste through the taste buds on their tongue, which are commonly believed to be able to separate five main types of taste in total: *sour*, *salty*, *sweet*, *bitter*, and *umami*. Due to this fact, these five adjectives are widely used in relation to food, the taste of the vast majority of meals can be described by using them, as can be seen from the example below:

*Salt enhances the flavor of nearly all foods: **umami**, **sweet**, and **sour** taste receptors are made more sensitive by it, while **bitterness** is toned down.* [41, p.213]

In the sentence above, the author refers to the taste of “nearly all foods” with the use of these four adjectives while describing their interconnection with salt, after which the fifth main flavor adjective, *salty*, was formed, which suggests that this variety encapsulates the perception of taste in a general sense.

However, with incredibly rich variety of dishes and foods accessible to the english-speaking population, it is obvious that only basic tastes would not suffice to properly differentiate between all available flavors, therefore the English language possesses a number of more specific adjectives to describe tastes, usually denoting a meal's qualities associated with certain food types or categories, which can be seen from the examples below:

*When seasoning **spicy dishes**, also bear in mind that chile heat takes longer to kick in than other tastes.* [41, p.192]

*make pastry **taste greasy** in the mouth.* [41, p.215]

*Such chocolate will have a soft, crumbly texture and an **oily aftertaste**.* [41, p.241]

Does not “melt in the mouth” because it is solid at body temperature and may

The highlighted adjectives in the excerpts above illustrate taste adjectives that were formed after nouns (*oil*, *grease*, and *spices* respectively) and describe flavours that are unmost associated with these ingredients. Such adjectives are commonly used to describe meals that contain, or are believed to contain, the denoted ingredients in large amounts, either in a positive or a negative context. Some of such associations might be more abstract and vague, even referring to items that aren't typically a part of the gastronomic field, as can be seen in the statement below:

*Roasted beef produces a range of **meaty**, **brothy**, **grassy**, **earthy**, and **spicy** flavors, and analysis reveals that it is the ingredient that shares the most flavor compounds with other foods.* [41, p.21]

While some of the adjectives are obvious in terms of their associations (*meaty*, *spicy*, and *brothy* refer to the food types of similar names, albeit quite vague, as “*meat*” has many types with their own distinctive tastes), some of them, such as *earthy* and *grassy*, are more vague. In the case of the latter, the relations between the adjectives and their intended gastronomic meaning are less specific: while formed after the noun “*grass*”, the adjective does not denote the taste of grass itself, but rather of plant-based foods associated with it such as herbs. Same goes for the word “*earth*”, as the adjective formed after it does not mean food tasting like ground, rather a selection of foods that are cultivated in it and have certain flavours because of it, such as beets or potatoes.

Notably, the English language also possesses specific adjectives to denote lack of flavour in certain foods. One of the most basic ways to refer to the food lacking taste is with simple morphological negation, adding the ending *-less* to the respective noun:

Tasteless when raw, fat turns into oil when cooked, carrying flavor and giving a moist mouthfeel. [41, p.33]

However, there is also a specific lexeme “*bland*” which refers to the same concept and is typically used in a negative sense, as can be seen from the examples below:

*...sprinkling of chemistry shows why a steak left to sizzle on a hot grill evolves from a **bland** and chewy hunk of flesh into a mouthwatering, meaty delight. [41, p.10]*

*Modern broiler breeds make meat affordable, but there's no denying it: the taste is **bland**. [41, p.38]*

*...there can be heavy and starch molecules cling to flavor molecules tightly, making them relatively **bland** and in need of additional flavoring. [41, p.62]*

As can be seen from the above examples, lack of distinctive taste is generally considered a flaw in gastronomic discourse, which is a natural way of perceiving it as humans generally enjoy food specifically due to its flavours. Eating something tasteless will typically result in an underwhelming experience which will be reflected as such in language.

The second important group of gastronomy-related adjectives denote to foods' appearance as perceived by the senses of sight and touch, namely texture. This LSG is mainly used to refer to the form and consistency of foods, which are of great variety as many meals have their distinctive textures due to the way they are cooked, ranging from liquid to hard solidness. Many adjectives from this group are not exclusive to gastronomy, as the notion of texture can generally be applied to any substance or surface. For example, many foods may be described with lexemes such as *soft*, *hard*, *tough*, or *firm*, and the details of their consistency can be pointed out with similarly widespread words like *dry* or *moist*. However, of interest to the research is the selection of adjectives that are either specific to gastronomy vocabulary or are used within this field most often. The words of this group include:

crunchy – dry, firm to the touch and making a loud noise (crunch) when eaten:
*It can also be popped like pop corn if you dry roast it, turning it into a **crunchy** topping...* [41, p.141]

*Sweet, **crunchy**, and full of healthy oils, hazelnuts provide texture and body to*

dishes. [41, p.177]

As can be seen from the examples above, foods may either be made crunchy with cooking or possess this quality as raw ingredients. In both cases, this is a food-related term that is widely used, usually in a positive light as being *crunchy* is often a satisfying and desirable trait of foods.

chewy – food that is tough to consume and requires a lot of chewing to be eaten, may be used with either positive or negative connotation depending on which type of food it refers to:

*Fat is **chewy** and bland uncooked, but imparts huge amounts of flavor when the fat cells burst open during cooking.* [41, p.32]

*With less fat the meat can be **chewy** and dry if overcooked.* [41, p.39]

In the excerpts above, this word is used in a negative sense as is typical when it's used in conjunction with meat or other animal-based foods, as them being chewy is considered unsatisfying. However, with other types of foods, such as rice or nuts, this adjective can be used in a positive light, as can be seen in the following examples:

*The bran coating imbues cooked brown rice with a nutty taste and **chewy** texture.* [41, p.131]

*These large nuts have a **chewy**, soft texture, making them ideal for creating nut butters or milks.* [41, p.177]

In the first example, this trait denotes a desirable effect achieved with cooking, while in the second it's a useful trait of a raw ingredient.

crispy – dry and firm to the touch, but also soft and very easily breakable.

Similarly to the adjective “*crunchy*” used mostly in a positive light, as meals with this texture are considered satisfying and enjoyable, often a desired result of the culinary process, as can be seen from the following examples:

*The holy grail of oven-cooked vegetables is a flavorful, **crispy coat** and firm, tender flesh.* [41, p.158]

*How do I cook fish to have **CRISPY, GOLDEN SKIN**?* [41, p.88]

*...so if you want a seared edge or **crispy skin**, you will need to sear food before or after sous vide cooking.* [41, p.86]

crumbly – consisting of or easily broken into small fragments, based on the verb “*to crumble*”, typically used for fragile foods that are not firm. Mainly used for bakery with positive connotation, as in the excerpts below:

*Fats have a tenderizing effect in baking, making **cakes more crumbly**.* [41, p.214]

*These small packets of fat are coated with flour to create a **crumbly pastry**.* [41, p.228]

Sometimes used in conjunction with a word of similar meaning, “*flaky*”, which denotes a light texture that may easily fall apart, but is consisting of layers rather than of individual pieces or fragments, which is typical of pastry dishes:

*Fats have a tenderizing effect in baking, making **cakes more crumbly and pastries flakier**.* [41, p.214]

*High melting point makes it suitable for pastry, which it gives a **crumbly, flaky texture**.* [41, p.214]

tender – soft and easy to both cut and chew, with the literal meaning of the adjective mostly being used in gastronomical context with positive connotations, as can be seen from the following excerpts:

*...allowing a little moisture to enter and giving meat a more **tender** texture.* [41, p.49]

*The best fish is **tender** and moist* [41, p.80]

*Fresh pasta, made with eggs, has a **tender** consistency and more luxurious buttery flavor than dried.* [41, p.146]

As can be seen from these examples, the word “*tender*” is often used for foods which are not supposed to be hardy or tough, therefore this texture is desirable and appreciated.

Notably, this word is also widely used in a figurative sense when describing

a person's character, where its meaning is still similar to words such as “*soft*”, albeit not in a literal sense. This word isn't unique in this regard, as it's common for the English words to have both literal and figurative meaning which are can be used in completely different contexts, with some gastronomic lexemes also forming idioms if they are used in a particular way, reinforcing the idea of the food being an essential part of our worldview [31].

Overall, gastronomic adjectives describing texture are often found through associations directly related to the eating process, such as the words *chewy* or *crunchy* being connected either to food consumption or distinctive sounds made during it which separate this kind of texture from the rest of the meals. Many such adjectives can be used with both positive and negative connotations depending on the context and the specific types of food they're referring to. Not every adjective can be used to describe any meal, however, as some of them are specific to certain foods and would not make sense when used in conjunction with others.

The third main group of food-related adjectives expresses opinion, as gastronomic discourse is built not only on describing perceived properties of meals such as their taste and texture, but also evaluating their quality from the speaker's perspective. These typically range from “*the best*” to “*the worst*” and possess an organisational relation of a gradual type, which is typical for synonymic adjectives concerning a certain LSG, as was noted by a ukrainian linguist H. M. Shipitsina [27]. The English language possesses a variety of words denoting opinion which can be applied to food but are not exclusive to gastronomy. They can be categorized by how strong the opinion expressed by them is, starting with the most positive one and ending with the most negative one. For example:

- 1) *Perflect*
- 2) *Terrific*
- 3) *Great*
- 4) *Good*
- 5) *Alright*

6) *Underwhelming*

7) *Bad*

8) *Terrible*

9) *Disgusting*

10) *Horrendous*

All of the words above may describe food according to its quality in the eyes of the speaker. However, there is also a number of words in the English language dedicated solely to expressing opinion of food which is not used in any other field. These adjectives mainly focus on taste. However, unlike the first researched group of adjectives that describe flavours specifically, these lexemes do not describe the type of taste itself and focus only on the speaker's opinion about it. The most widely used of such adjectives are:

scrumptious – tasting extremely good; comparable to the general words such as “great” or “terrific” in terms of the strength of the expressed opinion:

*This was absolutely **scrumptious** indeed!* [39]

***Scrumptious** is an accurate description of the taste.* [39]

Excerpts from comments on the recipe “*The Best Lemon Bars*” from users whose opinion of the dish is extremely positive and who rate it five out of five on the website's star rating system.

delicious – tasting or smelling extremely pleasant. Expresses a less strong opinion than *scrumptious* and is also much more widely used, with the former adjective having only 148 results associated with it on Food.com, and *delicious* having close to two thousands [39], reinforcing the idea of *delicious* being a widely used positive lexeme for good-tasting meals. It also possessed degrees of comparison such as comparable and superlative while *scrumptious* typically does not, as can be seen from the examples below:

*GRILL YOUR STEAK FOR THAT **DELICIOUS** SMOKY FLAVOR THAT YOU CAN'T ACHIEVE IN THE KITCHEN.* [41, p.54]

*However, if you prefer meat medium to well done, other cuts are often **more delicious*** [41, p.40]

tasty – possessing a distinctive and pleasant taste. Typically used in a general sense, describing any sort of dish or flavour associated with it that is considered enjoyable and desirable, as can be seen in the examples below:

*What’s the secret of a **TASTY SAUCE**?* [41, p.62]

*...forming a furry coat that can be browned into a **tasty** crust.* [41, p.162]

*Lots of salt and sugar is added to make the bland noodles **tasty**.* [40, p.40]

yummy – synonymous to “*tasty*” and “*delicious*” but is considered informal and typically will not be used in discourse with a more serious and proper tone. For example, “The Science of Cooking” [41] possesses 16 instances of the use of word “*delicious*” and 9 instances of the word “*tasty*”, but not a single use of the word “*yummy*” is present. This adjective will usually be used in an informal environment where the vocabulary is simple overall, as can be seen from the following example:

*Something quick and low carb. Pretty **yummy**!* [39]

appetizing – prompting an increase in appetite, typically with good taste, smell or appearance. Usually doesn’t only refer to taste, but an overall image and presentation of the food at once, as it’s used when the speaker evaluates whether they want to consume the meal before tasting it. For example, the excerpt below utilizes this word along with other negative lexemes regarding the food’s taste and texture:

*Clumps of bland, sticky pasta aren’t **appetizing**.* [41, p.147]

Overall, it can be concluded that the gastronomy-specific adjectives can be divided into the three main categories, the two of which are directly related to the perception senses (the adjectives of taste and the adjectives of texture) while the

third one expresses an opinion that can be formed by an individual regarding the food based off its qualities denoted by the two first adjective groups. Opinion-expressing adjectives may refer to any type of food and are subjective in nature. On the contrary, adjectives describing taste and texture are specifying the food's objective qualities and some of them can only be used with certain meal types or food categories. Together these groups of adjectives play an essential role in discourse as they clarify and enhance our understanding of the gastronomic nouns, their qualities and how they are perceived.

Conclusions to Chapter 2

Based on the foregoing, it can be concluded that the gastronomic vocabulary in the English language does not only allow us to denote and discuss various food-related topics, but also can provide a useful insight into the history and development of the English-speaking society through the lens of cuisine, which is an essential part of any culture and any person's daily life. Due to this, the English language possesses a wide variety of gastronomic lexemes which is realized in discourse through associations and lexico-semantic groups. In terms of quantity, the gastronomic field is dominated by nouns, as they have numerous categories and subcategories used to denote numerous ingredients, dishes, meal courses, kitchen utensils, additions and other products available to be eaten or used in the culinary process for the majority of the English-speaking population.

The verbs of the gastronomic vocabulary are focused on actions mainly associated with food, such as cooking or preserving it in different ways which were devised by humankind throughout history and nowadays can also be performed on a daily basis, becoming a part of many persons' basic routine and an inseparable part of their lives.

Gastronomy-specific adjectives enhance and specify our understanding of the nouns of this field, providing necessary additional details to describe our perception, opinion and judgement regarding the dishes or ingredients with both

positive or negative connotations, which is essential for a natural and effective discourse.

Together, all these categories illustrate the overall state and image of the English cuisine and all the cultural specifics associated with it, while through the changes in the gastronomic vocabulary we can also deduce and observe changes in the culture of the English society.

CONCLUSIONS

The work analyzed the phenomenon of gastronomic discourse in general as well as main concepts related to this type of discourse and its research. It was determined that the linguistic picture of gastronomy plays an important role in human communication and culture, regardless of the country or time period, as food consumption was and will always be an essential part of each individual's life that is necessary for survival. This is represented in the lexical field, with the names of gastronomic phenomena reflecting their importance and attitude of native speakers regarding them. The cuisine, the peculiarities of the diet of the people and its strata best testify to the national inclinations and national character of the people. The study also examines the study of traditions and peculiarities of cooking and food consumption in Great Britain and the United States, which influenced the formation of English and American national cuisine.

It was found that gastronomic discourse is one of the oldest and most important types of communication; this is a type of mixed communication that occurs in the process of purchasing, manufacturing and consuming food products, and most importantly, in evaluating the quality of dishes, the art of serving them and eating food. Culinary onyms (gastronyms) include the names of dishes, ways of preparing and eating food, food products and other phenomena and concepts related to culinary culture.

The analysis of sources showed that the culinary vocabulary is divided into commonly used, general scientific and highly specialized terms. It can be separated into groups according to their theme and meaning, which will greatly vary in their size and how widespreadly they are used. The study divided the field of gastronomic lexemes into three main groups according to parts of speech, namely:

- 1) Gastronomic nouns
- 2) Gastronomic verbs

3) Gastronomic adjectives

Each of the categories were analyzed according to their role and purpose in the English language as a whole, as well as in the gastronomy-related communication specifically. These three groups were separated into categories according to their meaning and context they are used in for an in-depth semantic analysis. Their usage was illustrated with the use of examples from several sources, including those with a variety of specialized and scientific gastronomy-related terms such as “How Food Works” and “The Science of Cooking” [40, 41], as well as one with a more general and common gastronomic vocabulary used by regular people on a daily basis – a popular gastronomic website “Food.com” [39]. This allowed to analyze gastronomic discourse and vocabulary used in it from different perspectives and provided further insight into lexemes of this field.

It was determined that from a quantitative point of view, gastronomic vocabulary in the English language is dominated by the first group – gastronomic nouns. This is explained by the fact that the current English-speaking society possesses numerous distinctive food-related objects requiring their own names, such as raw ingredients, kitchen utensils, cooked dishes, names of food-related establishments etc., all of which can be separated into their own subcategories with their own meanings.

This abundant variety of concepts is fully represented through the lexical field, making the field of nouns the largest in the gastronomic field. Many meanings in this field are also formed with compound nouns, combining existing gastronomic concepts into new ones through common associations. The usage of borrowings is also widely present in Modern English language, especially in the names of dishes, showing wide intercultural communication of the current English-speaking society.

Gastronomy-related adjectives and verbs were similarly analyzed according to their usage, prioritizing lexemes that are specific for the gastronomic field or are most commonly used within it. It was found out that the gastronomic discourse possesses many general words which may be used in different contexts, but also a

variety of specific terms denoting food-related concepts, such as the acts of cooking or preserving food, or, in the case of adjectives, the notions of taste, smell and texture of food, all of which are essential for cooking and eating.

Overall, we can conclude that the gastronomic vocabulary plays an important role of reflecting one of the most essential parts of every person's life through language. Today's rich variety of gastronomic concepts is caused by the development of society and technological progress throughout history, which made more ingredients, tools and cooking methods available for usage on a daily basis. The factors behind many of these innovations are not only biological needs of humans, but also the enjoyment experienced during the food consumption. However, the process of eating is represented with fewer lexemes than practices leading to it, such as cooking and food preservation, which are discussed more often. This fact suggests that the gastronomic phenomena has evolved past basic human needs and can be called an essential part of culture. Furthermore, the changes in gastronomic discourse occur in accordance with changes in other areas of life, therefore it carries valuable information regarding development and advancements of society at large.

LIST OF LITERATURE

1. Арнольд И.В. Основы научных исследований в лингвистике: учеб. пособие. - М.: Высш. шк., 1991. – 140 с.
2. Бобчинець Л. І. Методи дослідження лексики азартних ігор у сучасній іспанській мові//Науковий вісник Міжнародного гуманітарного університету. Сер.: Філологія. – 2016. – № 23. Том 2. – С.15-17.
3. Бовсуновська І. М. Гастрономічні культурні константи англomовного простору //Сучасні напрямки досліджень міжкультурної комунікації та методики викладання іноземних мов: Збірник наукових праць. – 2011. – С. 27-29.
4. Бондар О.І. Система і структура функціонально-семантичних полів темпоральності в сучасній українській літературній мові. Функціонально-ономасіологічний аспект: Автореф. дис. ... докт. філол. наук. – К., 1998. – 33 с.
5. Бондарко О.В. Принципи функціональної граматики та питання аспектології, 2001. – 208 с.
6. Буркова П.П. Кулинарный рецепт как особый тип текста: автореф. дис.канд.филол.наук: 10.09.19. Ставрополь, 2004. 29 с.
7. Виноградов В.В. Лексикологія та лексикографія // Обрані праці. - М.: Наука, 1977. – 312 с.
8. Володіна М.В. Психолінгвістичний аспект термінологічної номінації. 1996. - № 4. - С. 55-62.
9. Гируцкий А.А. Введение в языкознание: учеб. пособие. – Минск: Тетра Системс, 2003. – 288 с.
10. Payán Sotomayor P.M. El habla de Cádiz. – Cádiz: QUORUM EDITORES, 2013. – 255 p.
11. Кардашук О.В. Семантичне поле простору: статус, структура, внутрішні зв'язки (на матеріалі прикметників української мови): Автореф. дис. ... канд. філол. наук. – Кіровоград, 1998. –21 с.

12. Межжеріна Г.В. Периферійна лексика XI —XIII ст. (прикметники) як відбиття морально-етичних явлень у Давній Русі // Мовознавство. – 1995. – № 2-3. – С. 24-33.
13. Межжеріна Г. В. Структурна організація семантичних одиниць (поле – лексико-семантична група – слово) //Актуальні проблеми української лінгвістики: теорія і практика. – 2002. – №. 5. – С. 114-126.
14. Trier J. Das Sprachlich Feld//Neue Jahrbücher für Wissenschaft und Jugendbildung. – 1934. – №10. – s. 428-449.
15. Porzig W. Wesenhafte Bedeutungsbeziehungen // Beiträge zur Geschichte der deutschen Sprache und Literatur. – 1934. – №58. – s. 70-97.
16. Осирко О. Назви їжі та напоїв як об'єкт українського мовознавства //Філологічний часопис. – 2017. – №. 1 (9). – С. 53-62.
17. Різник В. П. Назви їжі та кухонного начиння в говірках надсянсько-наддністрянського суміжжя : автореф. дис. на здобуття наук. ступеня канд.філол. наук : спец. 10.02.01 «Українська мова» / В. П. Різник. – Львів, 2017. –21 с.
18. Семчинський С.В. Загальне мовознавство. – К.: АТ «ОКО», 1996. – 416 с.
19. Селіванова О.О. Сучасна лінгвістика: напрями та проблеми. – Полтава: Довкілля-К, 2008. – 712 с.
20. Сохань І. В. Еволюція Гастрономічної Культури. Досвід Філософського аналізу // Філософські науки. – 2012. – №7. – С. 97-109.
21. Стернин И.А. Лексическое значение слова в речи. – 1985. – С. 38-39.
22. Уфимцева А.А. Опыт изучения лексики как системы. – USSR, 2020. – 288 с.
23. Филин Ф.П. О лексико-семантических группах слов // Езиковедски изследования в чест на академик Стефан Младенов. – София, 1957. – С. 523-538

24. Харченко Л.О. Синтаксична варіативність дієслів емоційного стану в українській мові // Проблеми граматики і лексикології української мови / Зб. наук. праць; Відп. ред. А.П. Грищенко. – К., 1998 – С. 181-184.
25. Цегельська М.В. Структурна типологія одиниць семантичного поля часу в сучасній українській мові: Автореф. канд. філол. наук. – Дніпропетровськ, 2000. – 114-126 с.
26. Шелов С.Д. IV Міжнародний симпозиум «Термінологія та знання» // Питання мовознавства. – 2015. – № 3. – С. 138-144.
27. Шипіцина Г.М. Семантичні категорії прикметників в аспекті ознак системності: Автореф. дис. ... докт. філол. наук. – Дніпропетровськ, 1993. – с.
28. Cambridge Dictionary. URL: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/> (retrieved 18.04.2023)
29. R. Cooper. Tense and Discourse Location in Situation Semantics. Vol. 9, No. 1, Tense and Aspect in Discourse (Feb., 1986), pp. 17-36
30. Chiss J. L. Syntax, enunciation and specificity of French: the principle of Charles Bally // Seminar of the Doctoral School of the University Paris VIII, 1996. – p. 67-77
31. Cristiano M. 20 Juicy English Expressions That Go Way Beyond Food. URL: <https://www.fluentu.com/blog/english/english-expressions/> (retrieved 18.04.2023)
32. Dictionary of idioms. URL: <https://idioms.thefreedictionary.com> (retrieved 18.04.2023)
33. Kambarova M. M. Semantic and functional features of lexical units in the field of architecture and construction in English and Uzbek / /Linguistics and Culture Review. – 2021. – Vol. 5. – №. 1. – pp. 64-74.
34. Macmillan Open Dictionary: URL: <http://www.macmillandictionary.com>
35. Trier J. Der deutsche Wortschatz im Sinnbezirk des Verstandes. – Hdlb., 1931. – 347 p.

36. Merriam Webster Open Dictionary: URL: <http://nws.merriam-webster.com/opedictionary>(retrieved 18.04.2023)
37. Nerlich B., Clarke D. D. Semantic fields and frames: Historical explorations of the interface between language, action, and cognition //Journal of Pragmatics. – 2000. – Vol. 32. – №. 2. – pp. 125-150.
38. Online etymology dictionary. URL: <https://www.etymonline.com> (retrieved 18.04.2023)
39. Food.com – Recipes, Food ideas and Videos. URL: <https://www.food.com> (retrieved on 10.05.2023)
40. Dorling Kindersley. How Food Works: The Facts Visually Explained // (DK How Stuff Works) – 2017 – 258 p.
41. Farrimond S. The Science of Cooking. – 2017 – 258 p.