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ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА.
КРАТКИЙ КУРС

Учебно-методическое пособие

На английском языке

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Пособие в доступной форме излагает основы курса лексикологии современного английского языка по направлению подготовки 44.03.05 – Педагогическое образование (с двумя профилями подготовки). Краткий теоретический материал по предмету снабжён практическими заданиями для практических и лабораторных занятий и отрывками аутентичных текстов для лексического анализа.

Предназначено для студентов педагогических университетов, углубленно изучающих английский язык.

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Пояснительная записка

Учебно-методическое пособие по лексикологии английского языка представляет собой материалы к лекционным и практическим занятиям по лексикологии английского языка и предназначено для студентов, углублённо изучающих язык.

Дисциплина, которой посвящено пособие, играет важную роль в профессиональной подготовке учителей иностранного языка. Лексикология, наряду со стилистикой, теоретической фонетикой и теоретической грамматикой составляет единый комплекс теоретических знаний по изучаемому языку. Курс лексикологии английского языка углубляет языковую подготовку студентов, развивает их исследовательские навыки, мотивирует применять полученные теоретические знания на практике и расширяет профессиональный кругозор.

Цель пособия состоит в том, чтобы помочь будущим выпускникам овладеть лексической нормой английского языка в тесной связи с её практическим применением в аутентичном языковом материале, что способствует совершенствованию навыков свободного владения речью на изучаемом языке.

В задачи данного пособия входит систематизация элементов теории лексикологии английского языка в доступной форме, формирование у студентов умения анализировать и выбирать лексические единицы в зависимости от регистра общения, коммуникативной ситуации, требований жанра создаваемого ими текста, придавать с помощью лексических средств необходимую экспрессивную окраску собственным высказываниям на изучаемом языке, избегать речевых ошибок,

а также применять полученные знания в процессе работы с аутентичным языковым материалом. Задания, предлагаемые студентам в практической части, способствуют развитию у обучающихся умения делать самостоятельные выводы из наблюдений над теоретическим материалом и применять теоретические положения курса в преподавании английского языка и в работе с аутентичными текстами (как рецепции, так и продукции последних).

Учебно-методическое пособие снабжено иллюстративным материалом из разных стилей языка (поэзия, художественная проза), что многообразно проявляет потенциал изучаемых языковых средств, а также практическими упражнениями, помещёнными в тематические разделы курса. Предлагаемые авторами упражнения носят коммуникативный характер и могут быть использованы в различных формах работы на занятии (индивидуально, в парах, в группах и т.д.).

Учебно-методическое пособие «Лексикология английского языка» включает в себя 2 основных раздела (лекционный и практический).

Предназначено для студентов бакалавриата и слушателей курсов повышения квалификации по языковым специальностям.

1 Introduction to Theory

1.1 Lexicology. Functional styles

1. The object of lexicology.
2. Types of word meaning.
3. Functional styles of the English language.

1. The object of lexicology

The word “lexicology” is of Greek origin (*lexis* = word, *logos* = science). Lexicology is a branch of linguistics which explores the vocabulary of the language.

Vocabulary is a system made up of all the *words* (basic units of the language) and *word equivalents* (phrasal verbs, set expressions, i.e. units which function as equivalents to words). For example, a stylistically neutral verb *continue* has its equivalents (formal *proceed* and informal *go on*).

Lexicology as a science consists of several branches. *Diachronic/historical lexicology* studies the development of a language over time (origin of words, changes in word meaning etc.). For example, a word “guy” originally meant an effigy of Guy Fawkes, who was one of the key figures in the Gunpowder Plot in 1605. Later, it became a tradition to dress effigies of Fawkes in old clothes and burn them in bonfires on the 5th of November (Guy Fawkes Night). Nowadays the term “guy” has evolved to denote any person of any age/gender. The evolution of the word “guy” is a matter of interest to diachronic lexicology.

Synchronic/descriptive lexicology describes vocabulary of the language at the current moment. It is focused primarily on the ways how words collocate and how they function in the language according to the styles and communicative situations they exist in. Collocations are natural word combinations which native speakers use without thinking. For example, such phrases as *since I can remember myself, say it out loud, as a matter of fact etc.* Knowing and using such word combinations is crucial to learners of English as collocations are what makes their speech natural and close to the one of native speakers.

Contrastive/comparative lexicology researches lexical differences between languages. For instance, scientists might compare idioms existing in different languages or ways of word formation. But it's important to note that it makes sense to compare only languages related to one family (e.g. Romanic languages – French, Italian etc.) and not different language families (English and Chinese).

2. Types of word meaning

A word is simultaneously a semantic, phonological and grammatical unit. It means that at the same time it has a lexical, a grammatical meaning and a sound form. For example, if we take a word “student”, it has a grammatical meaning “noun, singular”, a lexical meaning – “a person who studies at university” and a phonological form [stju:dnt].

In lexicology there are several approaches to word meaning. *Referential theory* (the oldest approach) was offered by Ferdinand de Saussure. Word meaning is seen as basic semantic triangle (the concept – the sound – the referent). The sound is the way the word

sounds, the referent is the object which the word names, and the concept includes the essential properties of this object which are reflected in human mind. For instance, if we analyse the word “bird”, its sound is [bɜ:d], its referent is the actual bird and its referent is our idea of a bird (a feathered animal with wings).

Functional theory states that meaning of a word is closely connected with its use in the language. We can research it by studying linguistic context in which the word appears. Functional theory explores how words relate to each other (“vocabulary chunks”) and how they are used in specific contexts. Vocabulary chunks include collocations, idioms, fixed expressions, phrasal verbs (e.g. *break the ice, strong coffee, heavy rain, make a decision, come what may, run out of smth* etc.). There are special techniques to learn chunks which might be useful for EFL learners:

1. Chunk identification/contextual learning. Students of English look for vocabulary chunks in various texts and pay special attention to the context where the chunks are used (formal/informal situation, genre of the texts etc.).

2. Repetition, visual aids, fill-in-the-blanks. Vocabulary chunks need a lot of practice and drilling to be memorized.

3. Chunk diary. Writing down chunks might be useful for visual learners.

4. Speaking practice. The most important part is to use chunks in oral/written speech production, especially in free speaking practice.

Lexicology primarily focuses on lexical meaning of a word and distinguishes 2 types of it: denotational and connotational meaning.

Denotational component is a primary, literal meaning of a word from dictionaries. For instance, the following 2 words have the same denotational meaning: a horse = a steed (large four-legged animal used for riding), but completely different associations and register (a horse is a general and neutral word; a steed is a literary poetic word for a white spirited horse). *Connotational component* carries our emotions, perception of the word, evaluation (positive or negative), stylistic reference. It is often based on our cultural and personal experience. For example, *a black cat* in Russia and the USA is associated with bad luck, while in Britain it is believed to bring good luck.

3. Functional styles of the English language

According to I.V. Arnold, a functional style is “a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication”. Spheres of communication may include a lecture, professional communication, an informal talk, a formal letter etc. Roughly we can classify them into 3 types: formal, informal and basic.

Informal layer of the English vocabulary consists of:

1. Colloquial words. E.g. *pal, chum, to have a crush on sb, doc, ta* (= goodbye), phrasal verbs and shortenings, *sort of/kind of* etc. Colloquial words are widely used in all kinds of informal situations and are understood by all speakers of the language.

2. Slang. It is defined by Oxford English Dictionary as “language of highly colloquial style considered below the level of standard educated speech”. Slang words are used only by a restricted group of speakers (teenagers, doctors etc.) and are not understood by other speakers. E.g. *to slay* = to succeed, perform especially well; *to flex* = to show off, boast.

3. Obscene words/vulgarisms. E.g. a group of bl-words (*bloody, blooming, bollocks* etc) and f-words (*freaking* etc.).

4. Dialect words (vocabulary typical for regional forms of English).

E.g. *aye, nowt, mozzies, loaf of bread, y'all* etc.

!!! Words can travel from one group to another (e.g. *guys, hello* etc.). Informal style can be used in literature:

1) to portray the characters;

2) to create a warm, informal atmosphere on the level of a friendly talk (especially in non-personal direct speech).

Formal layer of the English vocabulary consists of:

1. Learned/bookish words (associated with printed page) E.g. *proceed, endeavor, sufficient* etc.

2. Archaic and obsolete words (are outdated but still can be used in historical novels – to create the atmosphere, and in poetry). E.g. *thou, nay, morn*

3. Professional terminology E.g. terms – *labialization, interdental, bilingual* etc.

1.2 Etymology of the English Vocabulary

1. Etymology of the English vocabulary.

2. Native words.

3. Borrowed words.

4. Different classifications of the English borrowings.

The English vocabulary consists of native words (30%) and loans (70%). This unusually great number of loans has happened due to the frequent and durable contacts of the English people with other nations in the course of history.

! The earlier the date of borrowing, the more complete the assimilation of the loan word is.

Assimilation is the adaptation of the lexical unit to the language laws of its new sphere – sound system, stress position, morphological structure, grammatical peculiarities, semantic structure, etc.

2. Native words

Native words belong to the original English stock. They are known from the earliest manuscripts in Old English such as Nowell Codex (Beowulf manuscript) or Junius Manuscript.

Native words are divided into: the Indo-European stock (the oldest layer of the English vocabulary) and the Germanic stock (The Anglo-Saxon element).

Words of the Indo-European stock have parallels in different Indo-European languages: Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Russian, Polish and others. For example, mater, madre, mere, mother, мать.

Words of the Indo-European stock denote:

- A. Terms of kinship (*father, mother, brother, son, daughter*).
- B. Parts of the body (*foot, heart, nose*).
- C. Animals (*swine, cow, goose, cat*).
- D. Plants (*tree, birch, corn*).
- E. Times of day (*day, night*).
- F. Natural phenomena (*star, stone, moon, water*).
- G. Basic verbs (*come, be, sit, stand, eat*).

H. Numerals (*one, two, three*).

I. Personal pronoun *I*.

In the 5th century of our era the Anglo-Saxon tribes came to Britain and brought their dialects. Now we refer to them as Old English. The Anglo-Saxon element is still at the core of the language. Words of the Germanic/Anglo-Saxon stock denote:

A. Body parts (*head, hand, arm, finger, bone*).

B. Animals (*bear, fox, calf*).

C. Plants (*oak, grass*).

D. Natural phenomena (*rain, frost, ice*).

E. Seasons (*winter, spring, summer*).

F. Landscape (*sea, land*).

G. Human dwellings (*house, room*).

H. Sea vessels (*boat, ship*).

I. Adj (*green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high*).

J. Basic words (*see, speak, tell, say, make, give, drink*).

3. Borrowed words

In lexicology we differentiate between the term *origin of borrowing* and the term *source of borrowing*. Origin of borrowing is the language where the word appeared for the first time. Source of borrowing is the language from which the word arrived in English. For example, the word “paper” appeared in Greek (the origin of borrowing), but it came into English from French (the source of borrowing).

The earliest borrowings in English are closely connected with Celts and their culture. We can find *the Celtic element* mostly in geographical names. E.g. Avon (amhuin = river), Loch Lomond, Loch Ness (loch = lake), London (Llyn-dun = a hill/fort

near the river. The Romans later changed the Celtic name to Londinium).

Moreover, in modern English there are several dialectal words of Celtic origin.

E.g. *dun* (brown-grey colour), *bannock* (a small round bread), *cradle* (a small bed for a baby), *wee* (adj, little) etc.

The Latin element of the English language is divided into two waves of borrowings.

The 1st wave took place in the 1st century BC after the Roman Invasion. Among borrowed words there were:

A. Everyday objects (*butter, cheese, wine, kitchen, cup, kettle, dish, pea*).

B. Trade and city culture words (*cheap, pound, inch, street, port, wall* etc.).

C. Geographical names (suffix *-chester* – from Latin word *castra* = military camp).

The 2nd wave happened in the 7th century AD. A lot of church vocabulary came with Christianity (*monk, nun, priest, candle, church, angel* etc.). After the Renaissance in English appeared many Latin scientific terms (*diameter, alibi, radius, anesthetic, equator, tropical, e.g., a.m., i.e., a.m., p.m., etc.*).

The Scandinavian element was borrowed by the English between 793 and 1066. During the so-called Scandinavian Invasion Vikings travelled to the British Isles to raid, conquer, settle or trade.

The Scandinavian element includes:

A. Nouns: *anger, husband, sky, window* (Sc. wind auga).

B. Adjectives: *ill, low, odd, ugly, awkward*.

C. Verbs: *crawl, gasp, get, give, lift, die, take, struggle*.

D. Pronouns: *same, both, they*.

E. Affixes in the names of places:

(Sc. *by(r)*- "settlement, village") Derby, Rugby, Grimsby;

(Sc. *foss*- "waterfall") Fossbury, Fossway;

(Sc. *thorp*- "village") Althorp, Beythorp.

Some English words changed their meanings due to the meanings of the corresponding Scandinavian words, e.g.: Sc. *draumr* – *dream* (Old English “joy”).

The Norman-French element of English chronologically consists of 2 parts. Several words were borrowed from the Norman dialect after 1066 (the Battle of Hastings): e.g. *proud, turn, false, market, chancellor*. Massive borrowings from French happened between 13th and 16th century (from the French national literary language) and are connected with French cultural and literary influence. They mostly included:

A. Law terms (*accuse, prison, justice*).

B. Military terms (*army, battle, soldier, pursue*).

C. Religious terms (*saint, pray, religion, service*).

D. Trade and pleasant affairs (*barber, butcher, chair, beef, veal, pleasure, delight, leisure, comfort*).

E. Rank (*duke, prince, viscount, baron, count*).

F. Terms of art (*art, beauty, colour, image, palace*).

G. Educational terms (*lesson, science*).

The English language is very flexible and adaptable so there has been a variety of other elements in its vocabulary. Such elements mostly include realia and cultural phenomena present in the language – source of borrowing.

For example,

Russian (*borsch, taiga, tsar, vodka, babushka, marshrutka*).

Spanish (*armada, banana, barbecue, canyon, cargo, cocoa, cigar, chocolate*).

Italian (*bankrupt, umbrella, soda, gondola, casino, violin, solo, piano, forte*).

Australian (*boomerang, kangaroo, walkabout*).

German (*rucksack, kindergarten, gastarbeiter*).

Japanese (*geisha, kimono, samurai, harakiri*).

Arabic (*algebra, elixir, azimuth, Islam, sherbet*).

4. Different classifications of the English borrowings

There are several bases for classifying English borrowings.

On the borrowed aspect there are:

A. Phonetic borrowings – words that are loaned with spelling, pronunciation and meaning, then they undergo assimilation. E.g. *table, people, chair, labour*.

B. Translation loans – a foreign word combination is translated. E.g. *to take the bull by the horns* (from Latin), *by heart* < *par coeur* (French).

C. Semantic borrowings – e.g. *pioneer* was originally “explorer”, but in Russian – *пионер*, so in English also appeared a new meaning – a member of the pioneer organization.

D. Morphemic borrowings – e.g. *beauti-* (French – *beauté*) + *ful* (English suffix).

To the degree of assimilation there are:

A. Completely assimilated words (they don't look/sound foreign) E.g. *sport, president*.

B. Partially assimilated words:

1) non-assimilated semantically (*taiga, kvas*);

2) non-assimilated grammatically (*cactus* – *cacti*, *phenomenon* – *phenomena*);

3) non-assimilated phonetically (*bourgeois*, *memoires*).

C. Non-assimilated words/barbarisms (with original spelling, meaning, pronunciation). E.g. *dolce vita*, *chiao*, *Hasta la vista!*

1.3 Types of Word Formation

1. Main types of word formation.

2. Minor types of word formation.

Word-formation is a special branch of Lexicology that studies the patterns of forming new lexical units in a language. English word formation types are divided into major (affixation, word composition, conversion) and minor ones (abbreviations, acronyms, clipping, blending, backformation, onomatopoeia, reduplication, stress interchange in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin).

1. Main types of word-formation

Affixation refers to adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is a general notion and it might be divided into suffixation and prefixation. Suffixation is the formation of words by adding a suffix to the stem of a definite part of speech. The main function of suffixation is to form one part of speech from another (e.g. *friend* – *friendship*). Prefixation is the formation of words by adding a prefix to the stem of a definite

part of speech. The main function of prefixes is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, for example to make opposites (*to write – to rewrite*).

Conversion consists of making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of the part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word is unchanged. For instance, *hand (n) → to hand, yellow (adj) → to yellow*.

Word composition is forming new words by combining two or more stems. Such words are called compounds. From structural point of view compounds may be divided into:

1) neutral compounds (putting 2 stems together without any linking elements). E.g. *bedroom, cornflower*;

2) morphological compounds (they have linking elements: *o, i, s, a*). E.g. *speedometer, handicraft, sportspeople, nowadays*;

3) syntactical compounds (they are formed from segments of speech including prepositions, conjunctions, articles, adverbs). E.g. *Jack-of-all-trades, merry-go-round, forget-me-not, son-in-law*.

2. Minor types of word formation

Back-formation (Reversion) is the way of word-building by subtracting the final morpheme from already existing word to form a new one. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. The process is based on the analogy.

E.g. *editor → to edit, babysitter → to babysit, typewriter → to type, burglar → to burgle*.

Blending refers to merging parts of different words. The results of such word formation type are called blends.

E.g. *spiced + ham = spam, breakfast + lunch = brunch, smoke + fog = smog*.

Onomatopoeia (Sound Imitation) is producing new words by imitating sounds that made by animals, insects, people and inanimate objects.

E.g. *moo, cuckoo, crash, splash, whisper, giggle, whiff.*

Shortening refers to cutting off a part of the word. Shortening produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word.

There are two types of shortening:

1. *Clipping* is shortening of a word by two or more syllables (usually nouns and adjectives) without changing its class or paradigm. Clippings might be:

a) initial clippings (the beginning of the word is clipped), e.g. *telephone – phone;*

b) medial clippings (the middle is clipped), e.g. *madam – ma'am;*

c) final clippings (the last part is clipped), e.g. *doctor – doc;*

d) both initial and final clippings, e.g. *influenza – flu, refrigerator – fridge.*

2. *Abbreviation* is a word made from the initial letters of a word group.

E.g. *BBC, ASAP, RSVP* etc.

Abbreviations include acronyms (abbreviations which are pronounced as one word), for example *AIDS* or *PIN*.

Stress Interchange is forming new words by shifting the stress. In English stress interchange is mostly seen in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin (= taken from French): nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. 'accent – to ac'cent, 'record – to rec'ord.

Reduplication is forming new words by doubling a stem:

- 1) without any phonetic changes, e.g. *bye-bye*;
- 2) with a variation of the root-vowel or consonant, e.g. *easy-peasy, mumbo-jumbo, itsy-bitsy, teeny-weeny*.

1.4 Semantic Change

1. Semasiology vs. semantics.
2. Semantic change.
3. Nature of semantic change.

1. Semasiology vs. semantics

Semasiology in Soviet and Russian scientific discourse is the branch of Linguistics that studies lexical meaning of the word. British and American scholars call this branch Semantics. Lexical meaning is the realisation of a concept or emotion by means of a definite language system. It is not homogenous and includes denotative (denotational) and connotative (connotational) components. There is also further division into smaller elements of meaning or semes. For example, the meaning of the word *brother* consists of at least two denotational semes (your mother/father's child; a male).

2. Semantic Change

Any language is a living system, which develops and changes in the course of time. Word meaning can undergo some changes in the process of historical development of the language. There might be certain causes for semantic change:

A. Extra-linguistic (historical) causes. They include changes in economic, social and scientific life of the community. E.g. *mouse*: nowadays it means not only an animal but also a computer device.

B. Linguistic causes. New meanings might develop because of influence of synonyms or because of borrowings. For example, in Old English *deer* meant “any beast”. Later English borrowed general word *animal* from French and *deer* changed its meaning to only one kind of animal with antlers.

3. Nature of Semantic Change

In order for a semantic change to happen there must be a connection (association) between the old meaning and the new one. There are two kinds of associations:

- a) similarity of meanings (linguistic metaphor);
- b) contiguity of meanings (linguistic metonymy).

Metaphor is transference based on similarity of meanings. It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Metaphors can be based on different types of similarity:

- a) similarity of shape, e.g. neck of a bottle, eye of a needle, nose of a ship;
- b) similarity of position, e.g. foot of a mountain, head of the department;
- c) similarity of function/behaviour, e.g. hand of a clock (to point);
- d) similarity of colour, e.g. orange, pea green etc.

Metonymy is transference based on contiguity of meanings. A new meaning appears due to psychological links between different objects and phenomena (one object makes part of the other or is closely connected with it).

Types of metonymic relations:

1) name of the place ← people who work in it. For example, the Kremlin – Russian government, the White House – the Administration of the USA;

2) material ← object made from it, e.g. canvas – painting;

3) geographical or proper names become common nouns, e.g. champagne – Champagne Province in France;

4) names of inventors and things they invented, e.g. Watt, Ohm, Colt;

5) the name of a painter/writer and his/her works, e.g. Dali – a Dali (a painting by Dali), Dickens – all Dickens (all the books by Dickens).

3. Results of Semantic Change

Results of semantic change might be seen in:

1) the change of the denotational component:

a) restriction of meaning,

e.g. *meat*: any food → a certain kind of food;

b) extension of meaning,

e.g. *to arrive*: to come to shore on a ship → to come;

2) the change of the connotational component:

a) deterioration (the meaning becomes derogatory and gets negative connotations). E.g. *villain*: a farm servant → a vile person;

b) amelioration (the meaning becomes more positive) E.g. *knight*: manservant → noble, courageous man.

1.5 Homonyms. Synonyms. Antonyms

1. Homonyms.
2. Synonyms.
3. Antonyms.

1. Homonyms

Homonyms are words identical in sound and/or spelling, but different in their meaning and distribution. E.g. *bank*: 1) a shore, a river bank; 2) a financial institution. In English homonyms are very frequent, mostly in monosyllabic words (nearly 90 % of homonyms).

Homonyms are divided into:

- a) homonyms proper (identical in both sound and spelling), e.g. *bank*;
- b) homophones (identical in sound but different in spelling), e.g. *piece-peace, knight-night, scent-sent-cent*;
- c) homographs (the same in spelling but different in sound), e.g. *to bow – bow, lead – to lead*.

Another classification of homonyms is **based on the part of speech** homonyms belong to. If both homonyms belong to the same part of speech, they are lexical, e.g. *to read – read, knight – night, to lie – to lie*. Homonyms belonging to different parts of speech are called lexico-grammatical, e.g. *left – left, eye – I, knows – nose*.

There are several sources of homonymy.

1. Phonetic changes in the course of the language development. E.g. *knight – night, sea – see, write – right*.

2. Borrowing which duplicates a native word in its form. E.g. *write* (native) – *rite* (Latin *ritus*), *fair* (adj, native) – *fair* (noun, French), *bank* (shore, native) – *bank* (institution, Italian).

3. Word building: conversion, e.g. *pale – to pale, water – to water, comb – to comb*; shortening, e.g. *fan – fan* (from *fanatic*), *van – from vanguard and from caravan*; sound imitation, e.g. *bang – to bang; mew – to mew*.

2. Synonyms

Synonymy is one of the most controversial points in linguistics. Roughly we may say that when two or more different words are associated with the same or nearly the same denotative meaning, the words are synonyms. Synonyms can be classified as stylistic and ideographic. Stylistic synonyms differ in their stylistic connotations, e.g. *father – parent – daddy*. Ideographic synonyms may differ in the following connotations:

1) degree or intensity, e.g. *to like – to admire – to love – to adore – to worship*;

2) duration, e.g. *to glance – to stare; to say – to talk*;

3) manner, e.g. *to stagger – to trot – to pace – to march*;

4) cause, e.g. *to shiver – to shudder; to blush – to redden*;

5) emotive connotation, e.g. *alone – lonely*;

6) evaluative connotation, e.g. *well-known – famous – celebrated – notorious*.

In English we have several sources of synonymy:

A. Borrowings from other languages or from dialects and regional variants.

E.g. *to ask* (native) – *to question* (French) – *to interrogate* (Latin), *girl* – *lass* (Scottish), *lake* – *loch* (Scottish);

B. Word-building:

1) conversion, e.g. *a laugh* (from *to laugh*) – *laughter*;

2) shortening, e.g. *veteran* – *vet*, *refrigerator* – *fridge*, *to telephone* – *to phone*;

C. Euphemisms, e.g. *drunk* – *merry* – *elevated*, *lavatory* – *restroom*;

D. Phraseology, e.g. *naked* – *in one's birthday suit*; *to die* – *to join the silent majority*, *to kick the bucket*, etc.

3. Antonyms

Antonyms may be defined as two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and often used together but having contradictory denotative meanings.

Classification of antonyms is based on the way they are built.

1. Root words form absolute antonyms (having different roots), e.g. *right* – *wrong*.

2. Derivational antonyms are created by negative affixes added to the same root, e.g. *happy* – *unhappy*, *helpful* – *helpless*.

Another type of antonyms is contextual antonyms, i.e. words, which are contrasted in actual speech and are not opposed outside certain contexts, e.g. *Some people have much to live on but little to live for*. *On* and *for* are antonyms in this context.

Polysemantic words may have different antonyms when used in different meanings, e.g. *short* – *long* (a long story, a short

story), *short – tall* (a short man, a tall man), *short – civil* (to be short with somebody, to be civil with somebody).

Almost every word can have one or more synonyms. Comparatively few have antonyms.

2 Tutorial

2.1 Topics for Discussion

The following topics for discussion are suggested by the course (refer to Table 1).

Table 1 — Topics for discussion

<p style="text-align: center;">Lexicology as a Science</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The object of lexicology. 2. The layers of the English vocabulary. 3. Branches of lexicology. <p>Methods of lexicological research.</p> <p><i>Glossary: lexicology, word, vocabulary, neologisms, historisms, archaisms.</i></p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Etymology of the English vocabulary</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Etymology of the English vocabulary. 2. Native words. 3. Borrowed words. 4. Different classifications of the English borrowings. <p><i>Glossary: native words, assimilation, borrowed word/loan, translation loan.</i></p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Types of Word Formation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Main types of word formation (affixation, conversion, word composition). 2. Minor types of word formation (graphical abbreviations, acronyms, clipping, blending, backformation, onomatopoeia, 	<p style="text-align: center;">Meaning as a Linguistic Notion</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Referential and functional approach. 2. Aspects of lexical meaning (denotational, connotational and pragmatic aspect). 3. Word meaning and motivation (phonetical, morphological,

<p>reduplication, stress interchange in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin).</p> <p><i>Glossary: word-formation, affixation, conversion, abbreviation, clipping, blending, onomatopoeia.</i></p>	<p>semantic).</p> <p>4. Polysemy (as a linguistic phenomenon, types of linguistic context, extra-linguistic context as means of disambiguation).</p> <p><i>Glossary: denotational meaning, connotational meaning, polysemy.</i></p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Semantic Change</p> <p>1. Causes of semantic change (extra-linguistic and linguistic factors).</p> <p>2. Linguistic metaphor and metonymy.</p> <p>3. Types of semantic change (in denotative and connotative meaning of a word).</p> <p><i>Glossary: semantic change, metaphor, metonymy.</i></p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Synonymy and Antonymy</p> <p>1. Synonyms. Definition and sources of synonymy in English.</p> <p>2. Classifications of synonyms (by Vinogradov and by Anthrushina). Euphemisms as a special group among stylistic synonyms.</p> <p>3. Antonymy. Definition and classification of antonyms.</p> <p><i>Glossary: synonyms, antonyms, euphemisms.</i></p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Homonymy</p> <p>1. Definition of homonymy and sources of homonyms.</p> <p>2. Classification of homonyms (homonyms proper, homophones, homographs). Paronyms as false homonyms.</p> <p>3. Pun based on homonymy.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Phraseology</p> <p>1. Phraseological units vs. free word-combinations: definition and criteria.</p> <p>2. Classification of phraseological units by V.V. Vinogradov (ph.fusions, ph.unities, ph.collocations).</p>

<p><i>Glossary: homonyms proper, homophones, homographs, pun.</i></p>	<p>3. Classification of phraseological units according to their origin: native (British literature, traditions and superstitions, history) and borrowed (ancient myths, the Bible, world history, other languages).</p> <p><i>Glossary: phraseological unit, phraseological fusions, unities and collocations.</i></p>
<p>Regional Varieties of the English Language. On the British Isles</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Irish English. 2. Scottish English. 3. Cockney. 4. Brummie. <p><i>Glossary: RP, Cockney rhyming slang, scotticisms, glottal stop.</i></p>	<p>Regional Varieties of the English Language. Outside the British Isles</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. American English. 2. Australian English. 3. Canadian English. 4. Hinglish. <p><i>Glossary: GA, spelling variation, rhotic accent, flapping.</i></p>

2.2 Tasks for Practical Analysis

Layers of the English Vocabulary

Ex. 1. Find words in the extract from *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner* by S.T. Coleridge that refer to *the literary layer* of the language. Fill in the chart:

Historisms (e.g. <i>yeomanry</i>)	Poetic words (e.g. <i>woe</i>)	Archaic forms proper (e.g. <i>brethren</i>)

S.T. Coleridge

The Rime of the Ancient Mariner (1834)

It is an ancient Mariner,
 And he stoppeth one of three.
 ‘By thy long grey beard and glittering eye,
 Now wherefore stopp’st thou me?’

The Bridegroom's doors are opened wide,
 And I am next of kin;
 The guests are met, the feast is set:
 May’st hear the merry din.’

He holds him with his skinny hand,
 ‘There was a ship,’ quoth he.
 ‘Hold off! unhand me, grey-beard loon!’
 Eftsoons his hand dropt he.

He holds him with his glittering eye –
 The Wedding-Guest stood still,
 And listens like a three years’ child:
 The Mariner hath his will.

The Wedding-Guest sat on a stone:
He cannot choose but hear;
And thus spake on that ancient man,
The bright-eyed Mariner.

‘The ship was cheered, the harbour cleared,
Merrily did we drop
Below the kirk, below the hill,
Below the lighthouse top.

The Sun came up upon the left,
Out of the sea came he!
And he shone bright, and on the right
Went down into the sea.

Higher and higher every day,
Till over the mast at noon –’
The Wedding-Guest here beat his breast,
For he heard the loud bassoon.

The bride hath paced into the hall,
Red as a rose is she;
Nodding their heads before her goes
The merry minstrelsy. <...>

And now the STORM-BLAST came, and he
Was tyrannous and strong:
He struck with his o’ertaking wings,
And chased us south along.

With sloping masts and dipping prow,
As who pursued with yell and blow
Still treads the shadow of his foe,
And forward bends his head,
The ship drove fast, loud roared the blast,
And southward aye we fled.

And now there came both mist and snow,
And it grew wondrous cold:
And ice, mast-high, came floating by,
As green as emerald.

And through the drifts the snowy clifts
Did send a dismal sheen:
Nor shapes of men nor beasts we ken –
The ice was all between.

The ice was here, the ice was there,
The ice was all around:
It cracked and growled, and roared and howled,
Like noises in a swound!

At length did cross an Albatross,
Thorough the fog it came;
As if it had been a Christian soul,
We hailed it in God's name.

It ate the food it ne'er had eat,
And round and round it flew.

The ice did split with a thunder-fit;
The helmsman steered us through!

And a good south wind sprung up behind;
The Albatross did follow,
And every day, for food or play,
Came to the mariner's hollo!

In mist or cloud, on mast or shroud,
It perched for vespers nine;
Whiles all the night, through fog-smoke white,
Glimmered the white Moon-shine.'

'God save thee, ancient Mariner!
From the fiends, that plague thee thus! –
Why look'st thou so?' – With my cross-bow
I shot the ALBATROSS. <...>

Ex. 2. Find words in the extract from TV series *The Bear* (season 1 episode 34.40–11.20) that refer to *the informal layer* of the language. Fill in the chart:

Colloquial words	Slang	Obscene words	Professionalisms	Barbarisms (e.g. chef)	Nonce-word

! Pay attention to the difference between colloquial words (understood by everyone) and slang words/professionalisms (understood only by a group of people).

Etymology of the English vocabulary

Ex. 3. Read extracts from a novel *The People's Act of Love* by J. Meek and find *words borrowed from Russian*. What kind of borrowings are they (phonetic, morphemic, semantic borrowings or translation loans)? How assimilated are they (if not, in what aspect)?

(1) When Kyrill Ivanovich Samarin was twelve, years before he would catch, among the scent of textbooks and cologne in a girl's satchel, the distinct odour of dynamite, he demanded that his uncle let him change his second name. He didn't want to be 'Ivanovich' any more. The Ivan from whom the patronymic came, his father, had died when he was two, soon after his mother, and he had lived with his uncle ever since. His uncle's name was Pavel; why couldn't he be called Kyrill Pavlovich?

(2) As Samarin grew up, people in Raduga, the town on the Volga where he and his uncle lived, stopped thinking of him as an unfortunate orphan and began to refer to him as *schastlivchik*, the lucky one.

(3) Manor houses were being burned down by peasants angry at the compensation they still owed landowners for the privilege of being freed from serfdom forty years earlier.

(4) Anna Petrovna. That's the kind of name that allows you to imagine any kind of woman, doesn't it, Gleb Alexeyevich? Blonde pigtails, short red hair, a young student, an old *babushka*, maybe with a limp, maybe without. On a name like that you can

draw your own picture. It's not like, I don't know, Yevdokiya Filemonovna, who could only be a brunette, with warts and a big bosom. Anna Petrovna. A highly moral person, probably.

(5) There are Whites and there are Reds. The Whites are for the Tsar – he's dead now, the Reds killed him – and the Reds are for everybody being equal.

(6) Has a Tungus shaman been bothering the people lately? Some native charlatan who wandered out of the woods not long ago on a mangy reindeer, talking prophecies and trying to cadge drinks?

(7) The square was hidden in the rain and the dark; the derelict church, Balashov's store, the abandoned offices of the pelt broker and the dairy cooperative, the houses, the statue of Alexander III, the kiosks where the Russians sold smoked fish, sunflower seeds, tracts and journals and month-old newspapers, and, lately, personal effects, watches and jewellery and ornaments.

(8) He gave Mutz the thumb-between-the-fingers. "You'd be next against the wall, comrade bourgeois".

(9) A Cossack put his boot against the camera. Anna looked into his face high up and dark and beating with fighting rage.

'Eh, báryshnya,' he said. 'What's the apparatus, what's it for, what are you here? Studentka! What's the apparatus, eh, clever you, godless studentka?'

‘I’m taking photographs.’

‘What photographs?’

‘Of the things that happen.’

‘Lord, what a clever bitch,’ said the Cossack, and swung back his sabre arm. Anna put her arms round the camera and hunched her head into her shoulders. The Cossack put down his sabre and stepped his horse back.

Another horseman was beside Anna, a regular cavalryman, a hussar.

‘Back,’ said the hussar to the Cossack.

‘She was with the scum, your honour,’ said the Cossack. ‘Yid agitators, and these mutineers.’

‘Can’t you see she’s a respectable girl?’

‘Your honour, respectable girls don’t carry cameras.’

‘Do we cut girls’ throats now because they have cameras?’

‘Da nu, b́arin,’ laughed the Cossack. Half his mouth was gold and his nose was broken and he was a goodlooking red tanned southern boy. ‘Bit of the blunt edge of a little sabreling, nothing terrible,’ he said. ‘Something for her to remember us by.’

Ex. 4. Think of words that have come from your own language into English. Try to find words from these topic areas, which are particularly rich in borrowed words in English.

1. Food and drink.
2. Animals, flowers and landscape features.
3. Industrial products and inventions.
4. Clothing and home items.
5. Politics and society.
6. The arts, sports and leisure activities.

Ex. 5. Read the extracts from *Clockwork Orange* by A. Burgess and find examples of Nadsat slang constructed by the author.

Nadsat slang is mode of speech used by members of the teen subculture in the novel. Most of Nadsat consists of anglicised loan words copying the original Russian pronunciation. For example, “pony” from “понимать”, “to understand”.

Answer the questions.

1. Which Russian words do they come from? Explain their meaning in English.
2. What makes them sound as slang words in the novel?
3. Do you see irony/pun based on homophones in some of them?

(1) <...> there was offices and then there was the starry beat-up biblio and then was the bolshy flatblock called Victoria Flatblock after some victory or other, and then you came to the like starry type houses of the town in what was called Oldtown. You got some of the real horrorshow ancient domies here, my brothers, with starry lewdies living in them <...> and old ptitsas who were widows and deaf starry damas with cats who, my brothers, had felt not the touch of any chelloveck in the whole of their pure like jeeznies.

(2) What was ittying on was that this starry ptitsa, very grey in the voloss and with a very liny like litso, was pouring the old moloko from a milk-bottle into saucers and then setting these saucers down on the floor, so you could tell there were plenty of mewling kots and koshkas writhing about down there. And we could viddy one or two, great fat scoteenas, jumping up on to the

table with their rots open going mare mare mare. And you could viddy this old baboochka talking back to them, govoreeting in like scoldy language to them.

(3) In the room you could viddy a lot of old pictures on the walls and starry very elaborate clocks, also some like vases and ornaments that looked starry and dorogoy. Georgie whispered: “Real horrorshow deng to be gotten for them, brothers”.

(4) ‘First veshch,’ I whispered, ‘is to try the regular way, the front. I will go very polite and say that one of my droogs has had a like funny fainting turn on the street.’

(5) So I pushed the old zvonock a malenky bit more urgent. I then bent down to the letter-slit and called through in a refined like goloss: ‘Help, madam, please. My friend has just had a funny turn on the street. Let me phone a doctor, please.’ Then I could viddy a light being put on in the hall, and then I could hear the old baboochka’s nogas going flip flap in flip-flap slippers to nearer the front door.

(6) A malenky bit bezoomny she was, you could tell that, through spending her jeezny all on her oddy knocky.

(7) I banged my gulliver smack on the hall-wall, my glazzies being tight shut, very agonizing.

Word Formation. Abbreviations and Acronyms

Ex. 6. Fill in the gaps with the correct Latin abbreviations: *AD*, *NB*, *i.e.*, *e.g.*

1. The file extension, _____ the letters that follow its name, such as .docx, jpg, mp3, tells you what type of file it is.

2. This helmet dates from 500 _____. It's over 1,500 years old.

3. Type your message here. _____, press "save" before pressing "send", or you may lose your message.

4. Fruits, _____ lemons, pears or grapes, are sometimes added when cooking poultry.

Ex. 7. How are the abbreviations and acronyms pronounced in the following sentences? What do they stand for?

1. NATO is an alliance of North American and European countries.

2. Their FAQ page is completely useless. You can never find what you are looking for.

3. I forgot my PIN and couldn't get into my bank account online.

4. Do you believe in UFOs?

5. Write back ASAP.

6. The VAT rate is different in various countries of the EU.

7. A lot of people now prefer to use BCE instead of BC in their speech.

8. AIDS spread rapidly in the 1980s.

9. He manages to get into the VIP lounge at most airports. I don't know how he does it.

10. Where's the USB connection on this laptop? I can't find it.

11. This party invitation says RSVP.
12. There's PTO on the document, what should we do next?

Ex. 8. Correct these false statements about *academic abbreviations*.

1. Smedley and Jones (eds.) means they wrote this book/article.
2. See fig. 7 means look at number 7 in a list.
3. Markov et al. means Markov wrote this article with another person.
4. Cf. Oswald (1987) means "read Oswald (1987)".

Word Clipping

Ex. 9. Answer the questions. What do shortened words stand for?

1. Do you have wi-fi where you live or do you prefer mobile web?
2. What kind of films do you prefer: sci-fi films, biopics or sitcoms? Why? Give an example of them.
3. Which is cheaper to rent in your city: a two-bedroom flat or a bedsit?
4. What kind of biodata might interest your potential employer?

Blending

Ex. 10. What words have been combined to make these blends? What do they mean? Explain their meanings in English.

Infomercial, podcast, veggieburger, swimathon, freeware, guesstimate, docudrama, breathalyzer, mansplaining, wexting, meanderthal.

Choose 5 words from the list and use them in your own sentences.

Word composition

Ex. 11. Rewrite the sentences replacing the underlined word with given Latin and Greek word parts.

1. I had to put off my trip to Japan. (POST)

I had to postpone my trip to Japan.

2. She asked the singer for his signature on the back of her table napkin. (GRAPH)

3. She took a degree in the science of crime at Stockholm University. (OLOGY)

4. The novel is largely based on the writer's own life. (BIO)

5. It's an exhibition looking back at the painter's life and work. (RETRO)

6. Working at home and keeping in contact with the office by phone, text messaging and e-mail is now quite common. (TELE)

7. Some English philosophers in the 19th century believed in the abolition of industry. (DE)

8. Crime committed through the internet is a huge cause for concern. (CYBER)

Affixation

Ex. 12. Fill in the gaps with the words given below. What do their prefixes mean?

Redevelop, eco-friendly, inappropriate, misuse, outnumber, e-commerce, reconsider, inaccuracy, imperfect, incapable, misbehave, inability.

1. They are planning to _____ the area around the old bus station.

2. It is _____ to use informal language in a formal essay.

3. The YES votes _____ the NO votes by two to one.

4. Ivan's English is excellent but he still tends to _____ idioms occasionally.

5. We all hope you will _____ your decision to turn down your offer of a job.

6. I'm afraid I only have an _____ understanding of the situation myself.

7. These students do not usually _____ in class.

8. An _____ to drive is a serious problem for anyone in this line of business.

9. Lance seems to be _____ of understanding even the simplest instructions.

10. Paula lost marks in her test because of the _____ of her measurements.

11. More and more businesses use the internet in order to sell their products so _____ is becoming more and more important to the economy.

12. More farmers are now choosing to use _____ fertilisers that don't harm the environment or wildlife.

Ex. 13. Rewrite the sentences replacing the underlined phrase with words containing given parts + a prefix (over, under, up etc.).

1. There are more women than men on my course.
(NUMBER)

2. The hotel gave me a luxury room instead of the ordinary one I booked. (GRADE)

3. Would you like to spend the night there or come back the same day? (NIGHT)

4. The problem that lies under the surface is a very serious one. (LYING)

5. For me, the advantages of air travel are more significant than disadvantages. (WEIGH)

6. I think this hotel charges too much. (PRICE)

7. It's slippery walking just here. Be careful. (FOOT)

8. I felt that what she said was critical of my position and weakened it somewhat. (MINE)

9. The company experienced a rise in popularity after it changed its name. (TURN)

10. It would be a mistake to think Frances was less intelligent than she really is. (ESTIMATE)

Ex. 14. Read the information about English prefixes *con-*, *pro-* and *e-*. *Con-/com-* often suggests mixing things together, often in verbs of communication (*converse, commiserate, condolences, congeal, contaminate*).

Pro- can suggest pushing something forward or increasing it (*promote, proliferate, procrastinate, procreate*).

E- can give an idea of something coming out of something (*eject, emit*).

Now match these definitions to a word in italics from above. Use a dictionary.

1. To keep delaying something that must be done

2. To make something poisonous or less pure

3. To throw out with force _____
4. Suddenly to increase a lot in number

5. To sympathise with someone's unhappiness

6. To change from a liquid or soft state to a solid or hard state _____
7. To produce young (formal) _____
8. To chat (formal) _____
9. To send out (a beam, noise, smell or gas)

10. To encourage people to buy or use something

Ex. 15. The chart below contains productive English suffixes. Complete the chart with the correct phrases.

Suffix	New example in phrase	Meaning
-able (means "can be")	<i>A debatable issue</i> _____	An issue that can be debated. A situation that can be managed.
-conscious (considering one aspect of life especially important)		Employers who are very aware of money

-free (without)		A city centre without any cars
-rich (with a lot of something)		A drink which provides a lot of energy
-led (controlled/influenced by something)		Fashion that is dictated by the French
-minded (having particular opinion/attitude)		Friends who are very focused on sports
-proof (resisting the damage of something)		A car with protection against bullets
-related (connected with something else)		Crime that is connected in some way with drugs
-ridden (containing a lot of something)		A city with a lot of crime
-worthy (deserving something)		A person who deserves others' trust

Use the phrases in your own sentences.

Ex. 16. Match each adjective with two nouns below it best collocates with.

Student-led: rebellion, demonstration

1. Additive-free.
2. Avoidable.
3. Disposable.
4. Guilt-ridden.
5. High-minded.
6. Newsworthy.
7. Oil-rich.

8. Ovenproof.
9. Soundproof.
10. Stress-related.

Knives and forks, income, drinks, mistake, delay, foods, room, criminal, expression, glove, story, booth, illness, speech, personality, dish, country, principles, problems, economy.

Ex. 17. Rewrite the sentences using the suffix given in brackets.

1. The weather can't be predicted. (-able)

The weather is unpredictable.

2. Our lives are not without any stress. (-free)
-

3. Poisonous mushrooms can be easily identified. (-able)
-

4. The new speed cameras are supposed to be indestructible by vandals. (-proof)

5. He thinks so much about his career that he has no time for his family. (-minded)

6. During the Civil War, the country was totally overcome by terror. (-ridden)

7. The soil on that farm contains a lot of nutrients. (-rich)
-

8. The bank decided that he did not have enough income to allow him credit. (-worthy).

Ex. 18. Using a productive suffix, make up words with the following meanings.

1. Food for vegetarians must be this _____
2. Connected with class _____
3. Containing a lot of vitamins _____
4. Can be dry-cleaned _____
5. Very aware of people's clothes _____
6. Initiated by the government _____

Use the words in your own sentences.

Word meaning. Connotation

Ex. 19. Match the colours with their associations in English.

1. Purple	A. Purity
2. Green	B. Evil
3. Yellow	C. Royalty
4. Red	D. Inexperienced
5. White	E. Danger
6. Black	F. A coward

Ex. 20. Read the following information about colour metaphors and associations in English.

Blue = depression (*to feel blue*), physical/unskilled (*blue-collar workers*).

Red = anger (*to see red*), danger (*red alert, a red flag*), special importance (*red-carpet treatment, a red-letter day*), communist/left wing (*red views*).

Green = nausea (*to look green*), envy (*turn green with envy*), care for the environment (*green tourism*).

Black = depressing or without hope (*a black future*), anger (*to look black as thunder*), illegal activities or incorrectness (*black market, black sheep, black mark*).

Grey = lack of clarity (*a grey area*), brains (*grey matter, grey cells*).

White = purity (*whiter than white, white as snow*), being pale (*white as a sheet*), *white-knuckle* – terrifying, office work (*white-collar workers*).

Now match the situations 1–8 with the responses A–H.

1. That child looks a bit green.
 2. He seems to have the blues most days.
 3. That TV programme always makes him see red.
 4. It's a bit of a grey area, isn't it?
 5. They seem to be trying to blacken his name.
 6. Do you like white-knuckle rides?
 7. White-collar workers earn more.
 8. They are going to vote for the green party.
- A. No, they make me feel sick.
 - B. Yes, it's not at all clear what we should do.
 - C. Yes, but they need qualifications.
 - D. I think he's going to be sick.
 - E. Yes, they want to do their bit for the environment.
 - F. Yes, he can't stand the presenter.
 - G. Yes, ever since his wife left him.
 - H. I wonder what they've got against him?

Use the phrases in your own sentences.

Ex. 21. Are these statements about English associations T or F?
Correct the false ones.

1. If you say someone has a dog's life, you think they have an easy life.

2. If you call a businessman a snake, you trust him.

3. If you say someone's being ratty, you mean they are irritable.

4. If someone is catty, they tend to be lazy.

5. If something is fishy, it's suspicious.

6. If you call someone a sheep, you mean they are very independent-minded.

7. If you say someone is hawk-eyed, you mean they have very big eyes.

8. Cowboy builders are very careful and trustworthy.

9. A hawk politician is aggressive and hard-line.

10. If you call a person a shark, it means you like him/her.

11. If you call a person a real diamond, it means he/she is extremely rich.

Linguistic Metaphor

Ex. 22. Choose the word from the box that can be used metaphorically to complete the sentence.

Ball, eye, hands, head heart, jungle, mouth, light, rein, thumb.

1. Helen asked me to keep a close _____ on her little boy while the children were playing in the garden.

2. You don't need to worry about your grandfather – he's in safe _____ in the hospital.

3. Our hotel offers excellent facilities in the _____ of the old city centre.

4. When the writer refers to the urban _____, he is suggesting that the city is a dangerous and unpleasant place.

5. As a rule of _____, you can expect to deal with about 20 orders a day.

6. Joe is always on the _____; he always knows what's going on.

7. Can you see that small boat at the _____ of the river?

8. It's up to the _____ of the school how the budget is spent.

9. I'm afraid we need to keep a tight _____ on our spending this year.

10. I never used to understand opera, but an excellent TV series helped me see the _____.

Choose 5 metaphors and use them in your own sentences.

Ex. 23. The following sentences contain idioms based on metaphors. What do they mean? What aspect of life do they draw its image from (cooking, sport etc.)?

1. Oscar's going to be holding the reins while the boss is on holiday.

2. It's hard to know what to do when management keeps moving the goalposts.

3. Starting his own dry-cleaning business was just another of his half-baked ideas.

4. We've had to tighten our belts since Sam lost his job.

5. The company needs to take its customers' criticisms on board.

6. Are you still on track to finish your essay by this evening?

7. Joanna worked around the clock to finish decorating the room before her parents came home.

8. I'm sure you can take him at face value – he seems perfectly honest to me.

Make up 5 sentences with the metaphors.

Ex. 24. Read about common metaphorical concepts in English and do the task below.

Intelligence and understanding → light (*a bright person, a dim person, see the light, cast light on something*).

Intensity of feeling/passion → temperature (*blow hot and cold, a hotheaded person, a cold-hearted person*).

Movement of people/traffic → movement of water (*people flooding the hall, people trickling out of the hall, a stream of traffic*).

Time → money (*spend/waste/use time profitably, invest time*).

Business → military operation (*business strategy/tactics/campaigns*).

Find the metaphor in each of the following sentences and say which concept it exemplifies.

1. She is the brightest student in class.

The brightest student (intelligence → light).

2. This book throws a great deal of fresh light on the history of the period.

3. The company launched a successful advertising campaign last year.

4. We could save half an hour at least if we went through the wood.

5. Try to keep cool even if he argues with you.

6. We spent months trying to achieve our sales targets.

7. Police tried to control the flow of the fans as they left the concert.

Ex. 25. Read about orientational metaphors in English [Lakoff, Johnson, 1981].

Some metaphors in English have to do with spatial orientation: up-down, in-out, on-off etc. these spatial orientations arise from how our bodies function in our physical environment.

HAPPY IS UP, SAD IS DOWN

I'm feeling up.

That boosted my spirits.

You're in high spirits.

I'm feeling down.

Physical basis: Drooping posture goes along with sadness and depression, straight posture – with positive emotional state.

CONSCIOUS IS UP, UNCONSCIOUS IS DOWN

Get up.

He rises early in the morning.

He's under hypnosis.

Physical basis: Humans and other mammals sleep lying down and stand up when they awaken.

HEALTH AND LIFE ARE UP, SICKNESS AND DEATH ARE DOWN

He's at the peak of health.

Lazarus rose from the dead.

He's sinking fast.

He dropped dead.

Physical basis: Serious illness forces us to lie down physically. When you're dead, you're physically down.

HAVING CONTROL OR FORCE IS UP, BEING SUBJECT TO CONTROL OR FORCE IS DOWN

I have control over her.

I am on top of the situation.

He's at the height of his power.

He's under my control.

He fell from power.

He's my social inferior.

Physical basis: Physical size typically correlates with physical strength, and the victor in a fight is typically on top.

Now match the following sentences with orientational metaphors.

Example. His health is declining – *SICKNESS AND DEATH ARE DOWN*

1. He's in top shape. _____

2. Wake up. _____

3. He's low man on the totem pole. _____
4. He fell ill. _____
5. He's in the upper echelon. _____
6. My spirits rose. _____
7. She's really low these days. _____
8. He came down with the flu. _____
9. He fell asleep. _____
10. That boosted my spirits. _____
11. He's in superior position. _____
12. He sank into a coma. _____
13. My spirits sank. _____

Think of at least 1 more example for each orientational metaphor.

Ex. 26. Read about ontological metaphors of the concept LOVE in English [Lakoff, Johnson, 1981].

Throughout our lives we have to deal with a lot of abstract things (emotions, ideas, economic and political terms etc.) that need categorizing and quantifying. There are several metaphors, which help us see abstract things as entities or substances, group and measure them.

LOVE IS A JOURNEY

Look how far we've come.

We're at a crossroads.

We're stuck.

I don't think this relationship is going anywhere.

LOVE IS A PATIENT

This is a sick relationship.

They have a strong healthy marriage.

It's a tired affair.

Their relationship is in really good shape.

LOVE IS A PHYSICAL FORCE (ELECTROMAGNETIC,
GRAVITATIONAL)

I could feel the electricity between us.

I was magnetically drawn to her.

His whole life revolves around her.

The atmosphere around them is always charged.

LOVE IS MADNESS

I'm crazy about her.

He constantly raves about her.

He's insane about her.

LOVE IS MAGIC

She cast her spell over me.

The magic is gone.

She had me hypnotized.

She's bewitching.

LOVE IS WAR

He's known for his many rapid conquests.

She fought for him but his mistress won out.

She's besieged by suitors.

He's slowly gaining ground with her.

Now match the following sentences with ontological LOVE metaphors.

Example. He won her hand in a marriage. – *LOVE IS WAR*

1. We gravitated to each other immediately. _____

2. Their marriage is on its last legs. _____
3. He made an ally of her mother. _____
4. There is incredible energy in their relationship. _____
5. She drives me out of my mind. _____
6. We'll just have to go our separate ways. _____
7. He was charmed by her. _____
8. This relationship is a dead-end street. _____
9. I'm just wild about him. _____
10. Our marriage is on the rocks. _____
11. He fled from her advances. _____
12. There were sparks between us. _____
13. The marriage is dead – it can't be revived. _____
14. They lost their momentum. _____
15. He has me in a trance. _____

Think of at least 1 more example for each LOVE metaphor.

Collocations

Ex. 27. Read about how some adjectives and nouns typically collocate in English.

The real thing

It's a synthetic material that looks like *the real thing*.

The genuine article

These trainers are *the genuine article* and not some cheap imported copy.

A formidable opponent/reputation/task/challenge

The *task was formidable* but we managed to complete it.

Now underline the normal collocation in these sentences. If both are correct, put a tick.

1. The photos of the pyramids are wonderful. One day I'd love to see *the real/genuine* thing.

2. He just doesn't live in *the real/genuine* world. He lives in a fantasy world all the time.

3. This handbag is made of *real/genuine* leather.

4. She's a very *real/genuine* person. If she promises something, she'll do it.

5. This home-made champagne is nice, but it's not as good as the *real/genuine* article.

6. After his death, she went to the hospital to collect his personal *affairs/effects*.

7. George was a *formidable/threatening* opponent, and I respected him for that.

8. A *brisk/brusque* walk before breakfast helps to *enforce/sharpen* the appetite.

9. The death *tally/toll* in the earthquake has now risen to 200,000.

10. Let's take a *plodding/leisurely* stroll along the beach.

Ex. 28. Which collocation is more likely? Choose the correct answer.

1. A strong car / a powerful car

2. Strong tea / powerful tea

3. Auburn hair / an auburn carpet

4. A doleful party / a doleful expression

5. A lengthy room / a lengthy meeting

Make up 5 sentences with the collocations.

Polysemy

Ex. 29. Look at the sentences and think how you would translate the word in italics.

Fair

- A. It's only *fair* that we should share the housework.
- B. The Frankfurt Book *Fair* is a very important event for most publishers.
- C. The forecast is for the weather to stay *fair* for the next week.
- D. I've got *fair* skin and burn easily in the sun.
- E. His marks in his final exams ranged from excellent to *fair*.

Flat

- A. The firefighters managed to save children from the burning third-floor *flat*.
- B. The countryside round here is terribly *flat* and boring.
- C. To join the Fitness Club, you pay a *flat* fee of 500£.
- D. The sonata is in B *flat* minor.
- E. She finished the exercise in five minutes *flat*.

Capital

- A. Fill in the form in *capital* letters.
- B. Wellington is the *capital* of New Zealand.
- C. You need plenty of *capital* to open a restaurant.
- D. *Capital* punishment has been abolished in many countries.

Mean

- A. What does this word *mean*?
- B. I didn't *mean* to hurt you.
- C. He's far too *mean* to buy her flowers.

D. The *mean* temperature for July is 25° C.

E. You shouldn't be so *mean* to your little sister.

Match one of the meanings with *fair*, *flat*, *capital* or *mean* and with an example from above.

1. Intend *mean B*

2. Exactly _____

3. Proper, just _____

4. City with the seat of government _____

5. Light in colour _____

6. Unkind _____

7. Fixed _____

8. Neither very good nor very bad _____

9. Money _____

10. Unwilling to spend money _____

Ex. 30. Which word can fill all the gaps in each group of sentences?

Example:

I have *made* a mistake.

I am glad you *made* it.

It was hard but we *made* a significant profit.

1. He struck a _____ and we slowly began to look around the dark cave.

The teenage cooks in the competition were a _____ for any of the adults.

Their marriage has been called a _____ made in heaven.

2. That bird has an unusually long _____ .

Don't forget to keep the receipt when you pay your hotel _____ .

Parliament is currently discussing a _____ proposing changes to copyright legislation.

3. Hannah gave us a lovely _____ of glasses as a wedding present.

Let's now try and _____ a date for our meeting next week.

My father has very _____ opinions about how people should behave.

4. I've applied for a _____ in our company's Paris office.

The end of the race is indicated by a _____ with a flag on it.

Why not _____ your query on an online forum?

5. I didn't get my assignment back because the teacher hadn't had time to _____ it.

Sales have already passed the million _____.

You've got a red _____ on your cheek. It looks like lipstick.

6. You need to be a special kind of person to _____ a successful business.

Do you fancy going for a _____ this evening?

Thanks to the hot weather, our shop has had a _____ on ice-cream.

Ex. 31. Explain these jokes based on polysemy.

1. I wondered why the tennis ball was getting bigger. Then it hit me!

2. Smaller babies may be delivered by a stork but the heavier ones need a crane.

3. You know prices are rising when you buy a winter jacket and even down is up.

4. If a deaf man appears in court is that still called a hearing?

5. Should the stealing of someone's coffee be known as a mugging?

6. I'm on a nut-free diet. I have to avoid people who drive me nuts.

7. My son has been eating electrical cable, so I've had to ground him until he conducts himself properly.

8. My local hospital has a saying "Thieves Operate Here". Personally I'd prefer that to be surgeons.

9. Don't tell your secrets in a garden. The potatoes have eyes, the corn has ears and the beanstalk.

10. A hole has been found in the perimeter wall surrounding the nudist camp. The police are looking into it.

Homonyms and Paronyms

Ex. 32. Read about easily confused words in English.

Intervene – interfere

The UN should *intervene* to stop the civil war. (step in, neutral)

She shouldn't *interfere* in things that don't concern her. (negative and critical)

Shade – shadow

We sat in the *shade* of a big oak tree. (out of the sun, pleasant connotation)

The evening sun cast long *shadows*. (dark areas/shapes)

They lived in the *shadow* of a chemical factory. (in a place dominated by, negative connotation)

Continually – *continuously*

The phone's been ringing *continually*. It's driving me crazy. (very frequently, negative connotation)

Stir the mixture *continuously* until it boils. (without stopping, from a recipe).

Theme – *topic*

The *theme* of the festival was "1,000 years of culture". (the main idea that everything followed)

The *topic* of conversation soon changed to news. (what the people talked about)

Security – *safety*

The *security* officer noticed a broken window. (concerned with protection of property)

The *safety* officer told him that he must wear a helmet. (concerned with prevention of accidents).

Now choose the correct word in these sentences.

1. I have always tried not to intervene / interfere in things that are not my business.

2. Security / Safety at the factory is not good. There have been several accidents lately.

3. There are some themes / topics I don't like to talk about with my friends, such as politics or religion.

4. He was dozing happily in the shade / shadows of an old beech tree.

5. The teacher intervened / interfered to stop the argument between the two students.

6. The theme / topic of the wedding was Bohemian Chic.

7. The receptionist called the safety / security officer as soon as it became clear that there had been a burglary.

8. He was continually / continuously complaining about something or other.

9. The moon sometimes casts wonderful shadows / shade on the sea.

10. You have to press the button continually / continuously until the green light comes on. Don't take your finger off it or it won't work.

Ex. 33. Read about English phrasal combinations with different word order and different meaning.

Breakout (from prison) – outbreak (of a disease).

Lookout (keeping watch) – outlook (a point of view/attitude, expectations for the future).

Upend (move into a vertical position) – end up (finish).

Uphold (support) – hold up (delay).

Outdo (do better than) – do out (decorate).

Outrun (run faster than) – run out (there's none left)

Upset (make someone worried, unhappy or angry) – set up (arrange or organise something).

Decide whether the particle should go before or after the verb in the following sentences. Use the dictionary.

Example. Six men _____ broke *out* of the prison. (OUT)

1. The cheetah is so fast it can _____ run _____ a fast-moving vehicle. (OUT)

2. The police _____ held _____ the traffic while the President's car passed. (UP)

3. Sean made an insensitive comment and didn't realise how much he'd _____ set _____ Wendy. (UP)

4. The committee _____ her _____ complaint, and she was awarded compensation. (UP)

5. We decided to _____ do _____ the living room and went online to choose paint colours. (OUT)

6. We _____ ended _____ eating in a dingy cafe on the edge of town. (UP)

7. The radio's not working. The batteries have _____ run _____ . (OUT)

8. We _____ ended _____ the sofa and used it to block the doorway. (UP)

Ex. 34. Choose a noun that can be associated with the following sentences.

Lookout, outbreak, breakout, upset, outlook, setup

1. There has been violence in the capital city.

2. My stomach was bad so I couldn't go to work.

3. The prospects for the economy are good over the coming years.

4. I wanted to learn more about how the business was organised.

5. She made sure nobody was looking, and her husband did the shoplifting.

6. Four prisoners have escaped from a maximum security prison.

2.3 List of Terms

1. Lexicology
2. Word
3. Vocabulary
4. Neologisms
5. Historisms
6. Archaisms
7. Native words
8. Assimilation
9. Borrowed word/loan
10. Translation loan
11. Word-formation
12. Affixation
13. Conversion
14. Abbreviation
15. Clipping
16. Blending
17. Onomatopoeia
18. Denotational meaning
19. Connotational meaning
20. Polysemy
21. Semantic change
22. Metaphor
23. Metonymy
24. Synonyms
25. Antonyms
26. Euphemisms

27. Homonyms proper
28. Homophones
29. Homographs
30. Pun
31. Phraseological unit
32. Phraseological fusions
33. Phraseological unities
34. Phraseological collocations
35. RP (Received Pronunciation)
36. Cockney rhyming slang
37. Scotticisms
38. Glottal stop
39. GA (General American)
40. Spelling variation
41. Rhotic accent
42. Flapping.

2.4 Self-Check Questions

1. Etymological formation of the English word-stock.
2. Word as the basic unit of the language.
3. Word-building.
4. Semasiology. Meaning as a linguistic notion.
5. Homonyms. Synonyms. Antonyms.
6. Fundamentals of the English phraseology

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