

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ «ОДЕСЬКА ЮРИДИЧНА АКАДЕМІЯ»

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LEXICOLOGY

*Навчально-методичний посібник для здобувачів першого (бакалаврського) рівня
вищої освіти галузі знань 03 «Гуманітарні науки»
спеціальності 035 «Філологія»*



УДК 811.11:13(067)
L44

Рекомендовано Навчально-методичною радою
Національного університету «Одеська юридична академія»
(протокол № 4 від 17 січня 2024 року)

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L44 **Lexicology.** Навчально-методичний посібник для здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти галузі знань 03 «Гуманітарні науки» спеціальності 035 «Філологія» / уклад. Л.В. Строченко, Ю.О. Томчаковська, О.Г. Томчаковський, Л.Д. Швелідзе ; Нац. ун-т «Одеська юридична академія». – Університетська книга, 2024. – 60 с.

ISBN 978-617-521-063-5

Навчально-методичний посібник “Lexicology” призначений для здобувачів вищої освіти спеціальності 035 «Філологія» спеціалізації 035.04 «Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно)». У посібнику пропонується конспект лекцій та комплекс вправ для виконання на практичних заняттях / самостійної роботи при підготовці до практичних занять з навчальної дисципліни «Лексикологія». Комплекс вправ спрямований на вироблення навичок лексикологічних досліджень англійської мови.

УДК 811.11:13(067)

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О.Г. Томчаковський, Л.Д. Швелідзе 2024

ISBN 978-617-521-063-5

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ВСТУП

Навчально-методичний посібник призначений для здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти галузі знань 03 «Гуманітарні науки» спеціальності 035 «Філологія». Згідно з освітньою програмою «Англійська мова, німецька мова (переклад включно)» та відповідним навчальним планом, дисципліна викладається на третьому курсі (5 семестр).

Курс «Лексикологія» спрямований на ознайомлення здобувачів вищої освіти з основами словникового складу англійської мови, закономірностями його розвитку, функціонування, систематизації та опису, а також на формування навичок лексикологічних досліджень. Предметом дисципліни «Лексикологія» є теоретичне обґрунтування структури, семантики та функціонування словникового складу сучасної англійської мови у всій сукупності його характеристик – загальних, особливих та одиничних. Об'єктом лексикології є словниковий склад сучасної англійської мови у призмі його етимології, морфології, семантики, структури та лексикографії. Засвоєння курсу «Лексикологія» створює теоретичну базу для таких курсів, як «Стилістика» на 3 курсі, «Термінологія міжнародного морського права (контрастивний аспект)» на 4 курсі, а також для написання курсових робіт з мовознавства на 3 і 4 курсах.

У посібнику пропонується конспект лекцій та комплекс вправ для виконання на практичних заняттях / самостійної роботи при підготовці до практичних занять з навчальної дисципліни «Лексикологія». Комплекс вправ спрямований на вироблення навичок лексикологічних досліджень англійської мови в аспекті етимології, морфології, словотвору, семантики та фразеології.

Lecture 1. The objects and main trends of lexicology.

Sub-branches of lexicology. Types of dictionaries

The term "lexicology" originated from the combination of two Greek words: "lexis," meaning "word," and "logos," meaning "study" or "science." The term was first used in the mid-19th century by German linguist and philologist, Friedrich Christian Diez, who is considered one of the founders of modern lexicology. Diez used the term "lexicologie" in his work "Grammaire des langues romanes" (Grammar of Romance Languages) published in 1836. Since then, the term "lexicology" has been widely adopted in the field of linguistics to refer to the study of words and vocabulary within a language.

The objects of lexicology are words and their vocabulary. Lexicology is concerned with the study of words, their meanings, and their relationships within a language. It focuses on the structure and organization of a language's vocabulary, including the analysis of word formation, word meaning, and word usage.

The main trends of lexicology include:

Etymology which is the study of the origin and history of words. It examines the historical development of words and their roots, tracing their origins to different languages and time periods.

Word Formation. Lexicology analyzes the ways in which words are formed in a language. This includes studying prefixes, suffixes, root words, compound words, and other morphological processes that create new words.

Semantics which is the study of word meaning and how words acquire and convey meaning. Lexicology examines the different levels of word meaning, such as denotation (literal meaning) and connotation (associative or emotional meaning), as well as semantic relationships between words, such as synonyms, antonyms, and hyponyms.

Lexical Change. Lexicology investigates the processes and reasons for changes in word meanings and vocabulary over time. This includes studying semantic shifts, loanwords, neologisms (newly coined words), and the impact of social, cultural, and technological developments on language.

Lexical Variation. Lexicology explores lexical variation within a language, including regional dialects, sociolects (language variations associated with specific social groups), and individual idiolects (personal language variations).

Lexicography which is the practice of compiling dictionaries. Lexicology plays a crucial role in lexicography by providing the theoretical foundation and analysis of words and their meanings, which is then applied in the creation of dictionaries and other lexical resources.

Overall, lexicology aims to understand the structure, function, and evolution of a language's vocabulary, providing insights into the nature of human language and communication.

Lexicology, as a branch of linguistics, can be further divided into several sub-branches. Here are some sub-branches of lexicology:

Etymology or historical lexicology is the study of the origin and history of words. It focuses on tracing the historical development of words, their roots, and their connections to other languages.

Lexicography is the practice of compiling dictionaries. It involves the creation, organization, and presentation of lexical resources, such as dictionaries, thesauruses, and glossaries.

Semantics is the study of word meaning and how words acquire and convey meaning. It explores the relationships between words and the concepts they represent, including synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, and semantic fields.

General lexicology is concerned with the general principles and concepts that apply to the study of words and vocabulary across different languages. It focuses on the common features and characteristics of words, their meanings, and their relationships within a language. General lexicology examines topics such as word formation, word meaning, semantic relationships, and lexical change. It aims to establish general theories and principles that can be applied to the study of words in any language.

Special Lexicology focuses on the specific characteristics and features of words and vocabulary in a particular language or group of languages. It compares and

contrasts the vocabulary and word usage patterns of different languages, highlighting their similarities and differences. Special lexicology examines topics such as lexical borrowing, word formation processes specific to a language, semantic variations, and cultural influences on vocabulary. It aims to provide a detailed analysis and understanding of the vocabulary of a specific language or languages.

Contrastive lexicology is a branch of lexicology that focuses on comparing and contrasting the vocabulary of two or more languages. It examines the similarities and differences in word meanings, word usage patterns, and word formation processes between languages. The main goal of contrastive lexicology is to identify and analyze the lexical features that are unique to each language and those that are shared or similar across languages. By comparing the vocabulary of different languages, contrastive lexicology aims to highlight the challenges and differences that learners may encounter when acquiring a second language.

There are several main types of dictionaries, each serving different purposes and catering to specific needs.

A monolingual dictionary provides definitions, explanations, and examples of words and phrases in a single language. It is designed for native speakers or proficient users of that language. A bilingual dictionary contains translations of words and phrases between two languages. It is used to facilitate understanding and communication between speakers of different languages. A thesaurus provides synonyms (words with similar meanings) and antonyms (words with opposite meanings) for a given word. It helps users expand their vocabulary and find alternative words. An etymological dictionary focuses on the origins and historical development of words. It provides information about the linguistic roots, changes in meaning, and connections between words in different languages. A pronunciation dictionary includes phonetic transcriptions and guides to help users correctly pronounce words. It may use symbols or other notations to indicate the pronunciation of sounds.

An encyclopedic dictionary combines dictionary entries with additional information on various subjects, including facts, explanations, and descriptions. It provides more comprehensive knowledge beyond just word definitions.

An idiom dictionary focuses on idiomatic expressions, which are phrases or constructions that have a figurative meaning different from the literal interpretation of the individual words. It helps users understand and use idiomatic language appropriately. A collocation dictionary provides information about the typical word combinations (collocations) in a language. It helps users understand which words commonly go together and improves their fluency and accuracy in using language.

There are also specialized dictionaries for specific fields, such as medical dictionaries, legal dictionaries, technical dictionaries, and more.

A dictionary entry is organized in a specific format that includes various components.

1. Lemma. The entry begins with the word being defined. This is the term that the user wants to look up and find information about.

2. Part of Speech. The part of speech identifies the grammatical category or function of the word. It specifies whether the word is a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, etc.

3. Definition. The definition provides a concise explanation of the meaning of the word. It defines the word in a way that is easy for the user to understand.

4. Example Sentence. An example sentence demonstrates how the word is used in context. It helps the user understand the word's meaning and usage in a real-life situation.

5. Synonyms. Synonyms are words that have similar meanings to the entry word. They provide alternative choices for expressing the same concept or idea.

6. Antonyms. Antonyms are words that have opposite meanings to the entry word. They provide contrasting options for expressing a different concept or idea.

7. Etymology. The etymology section explains the origin and historical development of the word. It may include information about the word's linguistic roots, its historical usage, and any changes in meaning over time.

8. Related Terms. Related terms are words or concepts that are closely associated with the entry word. They provide additional context and connections to related ideas or fields of study.

9. Usage Note. The usage note section provides additional information or guidance about the word's usage. It may include explanations of any specific contexts or restrictions in which the word is commonly used.

The organization of a dictionary entry may vary slightly depending on the specific dictionary and its intended audience. However, these components are typically included to provide comprehensive and useful information about the word being defined.

Questions for self-check

1. What is lexicology and what are its main objects of study?
2. What are the main trends in lexicology?
3. What is the difference between synchronic and diachronic lexicology?
4. What is the importance of etymology in lexicology?
5. What are the sub-branches of lexicology?
6. What does lexicography refer to and how is it related to lexicology?
7. What is the purpose of a monolingual dictionary and what are some examples?
8. What is a bilingual dictionary and how is it different from a monolingual dictionary?
9. What is a specialized dictionary and what are some examples?
10. What is the role of corpus linguistics in lexicology and lexicography?

Lecture 2. Origin of the English vocabulary.

Assimilation of borrowed words.

The history of the English language can be divided into several periods, each characterized by distinct linguistic developments and influences.

Old English (450-1100): This is the earliest recorded stage of the English language. Old English was spoken by the Anglo-Saxons and was heavily influenced by Germanic languages. The writing system used during this period was runic, but it later transitioned to the Latin alphabet.

Middle English (1100-1500): Middle English emerged after the Norman Conquest of England in 1066. The ruling Norman elite spoke Old French, which

heavily influenced the English language. During this period, English underwent significant changes in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

Early Modern English (1500-1800): This period saw the standardization of English and the rise of the printing press, which helped spread a standardized form of the language. English vocabulary greatly expanded during this time through borrowings from Latin, Greek, and other languages due to Renaissance and scientific advancements.

Late Modern English (1800-Present): This period is characterized by continued vocabulary expansion, especially through borrowings from other languages due to globalization and technological advancements. The Industrial Revolution and British colonization also contributed to the spread of English around the world. Late Modern English is the form of English spoken today.

It's important to note that these periods are approximate and that language change is a gradual process. Additionally, regional variations and dialects have always existed and continue to shape the English language.

The English vocabulary has a rich and diverse origin, with influences from various languages and cultures throughout history. Here is a brief overview of the origins of English vocabulary and the assimilation of borrowed words:

The English language is a Germanic language, and the core of its vocabulary comes from the Germanic family of languages. Old English, spoken from the 5th to the 11th centuries, was heavily influenced by Germanic languages such as Old Norse, Old High German, and Old Saxon.

Latin had a significant impact on English vocabulary, especially during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Latin was the language of the Roman Empire and the Catholic Church, and many Latin words were borrowed into English, particularly in the fields of law, science, medicine, and religion.

The Norman Conquest in 1066 brought French-speaking Normans to England, leading to a strong influence of French on the English language. French words, especially of Latin origin, were assimilated into English, particularly in areas of

government, administration, law, art, and cuisine. This period is often referred to as the "Anglo-Norman" or "Middle English" period.

Greek has also contributed significantly to the English vocabulary, particularly in areas of science, philosophy, mathematics, and medicine. Many scientific and technical terms in English are derived from Greek roots.

English has borrowed words from numerous other languages throughout its history. For example, Arabic contributed words related to science, mathematics, and trade; Spanish and Portuguese contributed words related to exploration and colonization; and Hindi and Urdu contributed words related to food, clothing, and cultural concepts.

English has become a global language, and as a result, it continues to assimilate words from other languages. With the rise of technology and globalization, English has borrowed extensively from languages such as Japanese (karaoke, sushi), Chinese (kung fu, dim sum), and Spanish (fiesta, sombrero), among others.

Native words in English are words that originated from the Germanic languages that were spoken by the Anglo-Saxon tribes in England. These words have been a part of the English language since its earliest stages. Here are some examples of native words in English: house, sun, moon, man, woman, child, earth, water, wind, tree.

These words are deeply rooted in the English language and have remained relatively unchanged throughout history. They reflect the everyday aspects of life and the natural world experienced by the Anglo-Saxon speakers.

Assimilation of borrowed words in English involves adapting and incorporating these words into the English phonetic, spelling, and grammatical systems. Borrowed words often undergo changes in pronunciation and spelling to fit the English language's phonetic patterns and rules.

Overall, the assimilation of borrowed words has greatly enriched the English vocabulary, making it a dynamic and diverse language with influences from various linguistic traditions and cultures.

According to the degree of assimilation borrowings can be classified into:

Completely assimilated borrowings, also known as denizens, are words borrowed from other languages that have been fully integrated into the English language. These words have undergone significant adaptation in terms of pronunciation, spelling, and grammatical structure to fit into the English language system. As a result, they are no longer perceived as foreign words by English speakers, e.g. *husband, table, street, take*.

Partially assimilated borrowings, also known as aliens, are words borrowed from other languages that have undergone some adaptation but still retain certain characteristics of their original language. These words may have retained their foreign spelling, pronunciation, or grammatical structure to some extent. While they are understood and used by English speakers, they are often recognized as being borrowed from another language. Aliens can be:

a) not assimilated semantically: *sherbet, toreador*;

b) not assimilated grammatically, e. g. nouns of Latin and Greek origin which retain their original plural form: *crisis – crises, phenomenon – phenomena*;

c) borrowings which aren't assimilated phonetically: *boulevard, foyer*;

d) not assimilated graphically: *Cliché, naïve*.

3) unassimilated borrowed words (barbarisms). They preserve their original spelling and other characteristics, always have corresponding English equivalents, e. g. *coup d'état, eureka, persona grata*, etc. [11].

Translation loans in English are words that have been borrowed from another language, but their meaning has been directly translated into English. These words often retain their original spelling, pronunciation, and grammatical structure, which may be different from standard English usage. Translation loans are commonly used in specialized fields or to describe concepts that do not have an exact equivalent in English.

These words are used in English with their original meanings intact, even though they may not conform to the grammatical or lexical rules of standard English. They add diversity and cultural richness to the English language, e. g. *first dancer* (from Italian *prima-ballerina*), *wonder child* (from German *wunderkind*), etc.

Etymological doublets are words that have the same etymological origin but have evolved into separate forms in different languages. These words often entered different languages through borrowing or linguistic evolution, resulting in similar but distinct forms, e.g. *canal* (Latin) – *channel* (French), *captain* (Latin) – *chieftan* (French).

Etymological hybrids are words that combine elements from different languages or language families to form a new word. These words often result from the borrowing and blending of words from multiple sources. The word "television" is a combination of the Greek word "tele," meaning "far," and the Latin word "visio," meaning "sight." This reflects the technology's ability to transmit images over long distances. The word "automobile" combines the Greek word "auto," meaning "self," and the Latin word "mobilis," meaning "movable." It describes a self-propelled vehicle.

International words, also known as loanwords or borrowed words, are words that have been adopted from one language into another. These words often retain their original spelling and pronunciation, although they may undergo some adaptation to fit the phonetic or grammatical rules of the borrowing language.

International words are commonly borrowed when a particular language lacks a suitable term for a concept or object, or when a borrowed word carries a certain prestige or association. They can come from a variety of sources, including other languages, cultures, or fields of study. International words enrich a language by bringing in new concepts, ideas, and cultural influences. They reflect the interconnectedness of different cultures and languages, and they contribute to the global nature of communication in today's world.

Questions for self-check

1. What are the main sources of the English vocabulary?
2. How did Latin influence the English vocabulary?
3. What role did French play in shaping the English vocabulary?
4. How did the Renaissance impact the English vocabulary?
5. What are some examples of words borrowed from Arabic into the English language?

6. How did the colonization of America contribute to the English vocabulary?
7. What is the process of assimilation of borrowed words?
8. How do borrowed words adapt to the English phonetic system?
9. What are some examples of borrowed words that have become fully assimilated into the English language?
10. How do borrowed words contribute to the enrichment of the English vocabulary?

Lecture 3. External structure of words. Classification of morphemes.

Structural types of words. Major word-building patterns: affixation, conversion.

The external structure of words refers to the way in which words are formed by combining different elements, such as roots, prefixes, and suffixes. This structure helps us understand the meaning and function of words in a language.

Roots are the core or base of a word, carrying its central meaning. They are usually derived from the language's original source or from other languages. For example, the root "struct" in the word "construction" means "to build."

Prefixes are added at the beginning of a word to change its meaning or create a new word. They often indicate negation, direction, or intensity. For example, the prefix "un-" in the word "unhappy" changes the meaning to "not happy."

Suffixes are added at the end of a word to modify its meaning or function. They can indicate verb tense, noun plurals, adjective forms, and more. For example, the suffix "-er" in the word "teacher" indicates the person who performs the action of teaching.

Combining forms are specific roots or elements that are used to create new words or forms of words. They are often borrowed from other languages or have specialized meanings. For example, the combining form "bio-" in the word "biology" means "life."

Inflectional endings are suffixes that are added to words to indicate grammatical information, such as verb tense, noun case, or adjective comparison. They do not change the core meaning of the word. For example, the "-s" ending in the word "cats" indicates plural form.

Understanding the external structure of words helps us recognize patterns, derive meanings, and form new words in a language. It also enables us to analyze and study the morphology of a language, which is the study of word structure and formation.

There are several structural types of words based on their internal structure. *Simple words* are the most basic type of words, consisting of a single morpheme. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a language. Examples of simple words include "book," "cat," and "run." *Compound words* are formed by combining two or more simple words to create a new word with a different meaning. The meaning of a compound word is often a combination of the meanings of its individual parts. Examples of compound words include "sunflower," "blackboard," and "lifeguard." *Derived words* are formed by adding affixes, such as prefixes or suffixes, to a base word. Affixes modify the meaning or function of the base word. Examples of derived words include "unhappy" (with the prefix "un-" added to "happy") and "careful" (with the suffix "-ful" added to "care"). *Inflected words* undergo changes in form to indicate grammatical information, such as tense, number, gender, or case. Inflectional changes do not change the core meaning of the word. Examples of inflected words include "cats" (plural form of "cat") and "walked" (past tense form of "walk"). *Clipped words* are formed by shortening a longer word without changing its meaning. This often results in a more informal or colloquial form of the original word. Examples of clipped words include "phone" (short for "telephone") and "ad" (short for "advertisement"). *Blended words* are formed by combining parts of two or more words to create a new word. This often occurs when two words are merged together to represent a combined concept. Examples of blended words include "brunch" (breakfast + lunch) and "smog" (smoke + fog). Understanding the structural types of words helps us analyze and categorize words in a language, and provides insights into how words are formed and how their meanings can change through linguistic processes.

Affixation is a major word-building pattern that involves adding affixes, such as prefixes and suffixes, to a base word to create new words. Affixation is a productive process in many languages and allows for the creation of a wide range of words with different meanings and functions. Prefixes are affixes that are added to the beginning

of a base word. They often change the meaning or create a new word with a different semantic category. For example, the prefix "un-" added to the base word "happy" creates the word "unhappy," which means "not happy." Similarly, the prefix "pre-" added to the base word "test" creates the word "pretest," which means "a test given before something else." Suffixes, on the other hand, are affixes that are added to the end of a base word. Like prefixes, suffixes can change the meaning or function of a word. For example, the suffix "-er" added to the base word "teach" creates the word "teacher," which refers to a person who teaches. The suffix "-able" added to the base word "read" creates the word "readable," which means "able to be read." Affixation can also involve both prefixes and suffixes being added to a base word. For example, the base word "comfort" can be transformed into the word "discomforting" by adding the prefix "dis-" and the suffix "-ing." This creates a word that means "causing discomfort." Affixation is a versatile word-building pattern that allows for the creation of new words and the modification of existing ones. It helps to expand the vocabulary of a language and provides a way to express different meanings and nuances.

Conversion, also known as zero derivation or functional shift, is a major word-building pattern in which a word changes its grammatical category or part of speech without the addition of any affixes. It involves using an existing word in a new context or function. Conversion typically occurs when a word shifts from one part of speech to another, such as a noun becoming a verb or a verb becoming a noun. This process allows for the creation of new words and expands the flexibility and versatility of a language. Examples of conversion include:

Noun to verb:

- "email" (noun) -> "email" (verb) - "I will email you the document."
- "text" (noun) -> "text" (verb) - "She will text her friend."

Verb to noun:

- "run" (verb) -> "run" (noun) - "He went for a run."
- "jump" (verb) -> "jump" (noun) - "Her jump was impressive."

Adjective to noun:

- "green" (adjective) -> "green" (noun) - "I prefer the greens in this painting."

- "old" (adjective) -> "old" (noun) - "The olds have a lot of wisdom."

Noun to adjective:

- "paper" (noun) -> "paper" (adjective) - "Please give me a paper bag."

- "wine" (noun) -> "wine" (adjective) - "I love the wine glass."

Conversion is a productive word-building pattern and is often influenced by context and usage. It allows for concise and efficient communication by repurposing existing words in a new grammatical category.

Questions for self-check

1. What is a morpheme and how is it classified?
2. Explain the difference between free and bound morphemes.
3. What are the three main types of bound morphemes?
4. Define the concept of derivational morphemes and give an example.
5. What is the difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes?
6. What are the structural types of words based on the number of morphemes they contain?
7. Explain the concept of root and affix in word structure.
8. What is affixation and how does it contribute to word formation?
9. Define conversion as a word-building pattern and provide an example.
10. How do affixation and conversion contribute to the expansion of the English vocabulary?

Lecture 4. Major word-building patterns: compounding, shortening

Minor word-building patterns.

Compounding is another major word-building pattern that involves combining two or more words to create a new word with a different meaning. Compounding is a productive process in many languages and allows for the creation of a wide range of words. In compound words, the meaning of the whole word is often a combination of the meanings of its individual parts. The individual words that make up a compound word are called "constituents" or "components." These constituents can be either free

morphemes (words that can stand alone) or bound morphemes (affixes or smaller units of meaning).

There are different types of compound words based on the relationship between the constituents:

Noun-Noun Compounds: These compounds consist of two nouns combined to create a new noun. Examples include "sunflower," "blackboard," and "lifeguard."

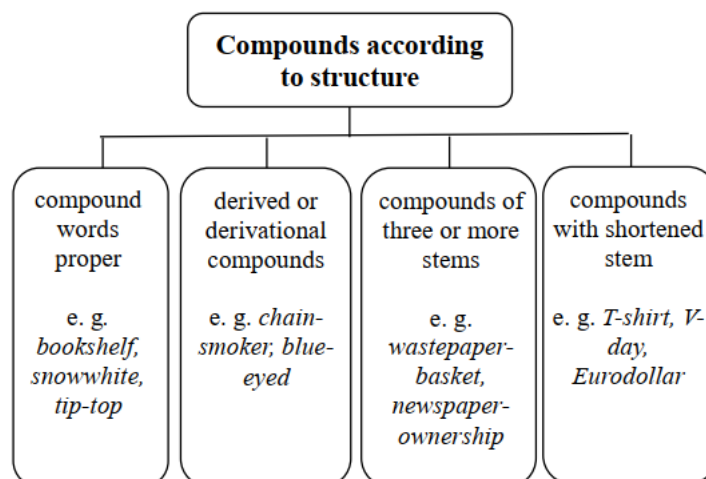
Verb-Noun Compounds: These compounds consist of a verb and a noun combined to create a new noun. Examples include "honeycomb," "watermelon," and "firefighter."

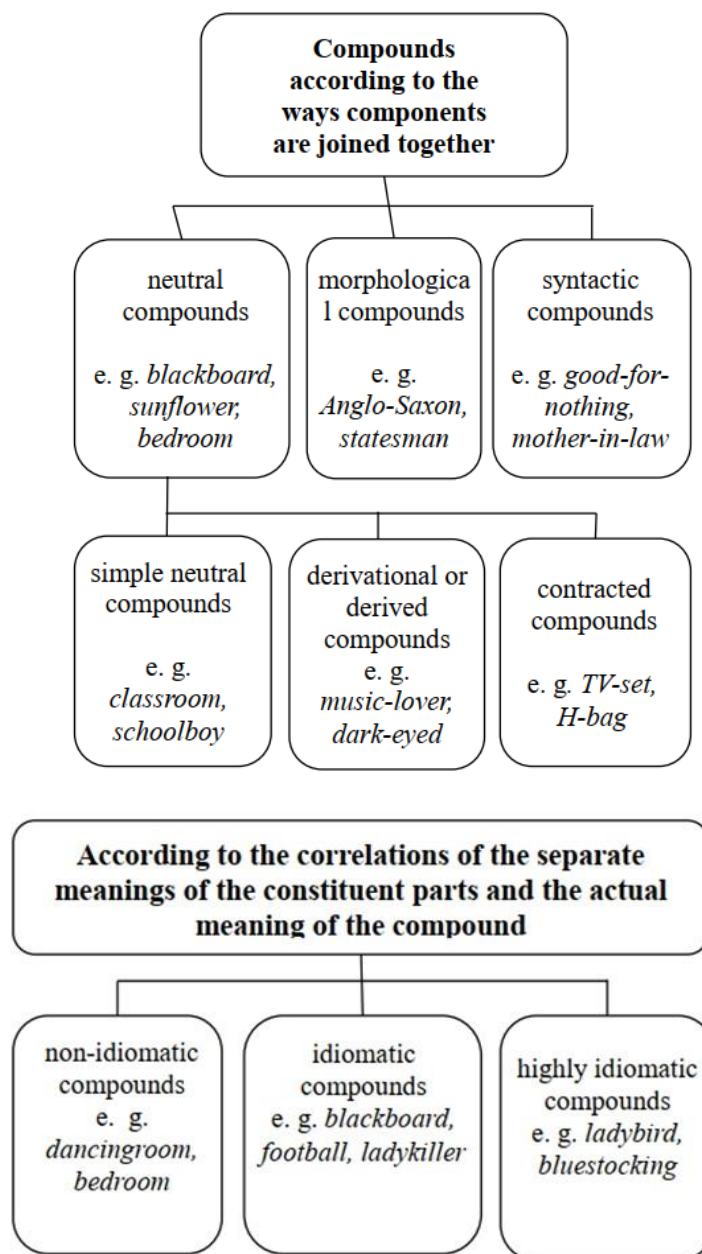
Adjective-Noun Compounds: These compounds consist of an adjective and a noun combined to create a new noun. Examples include "greenhouse," "blackboard," and "hotdog."

Noun-Verb Compounds: These compounds consist of a noun and a verb combined to create a new verb. Examples include "sunbathe," "dog-sit," and "bookend."

Adjective-Verb Compounds: These compounds consist of an adjective and a verb combined to create a new verb. Examples include "soften," "darken," and "brighten."

Adjective-Adjective Compounds: These compounds consist of two adjectives combined to create a new adjective. Examples include "red-hot," "high-pitched," and "fast-paced."

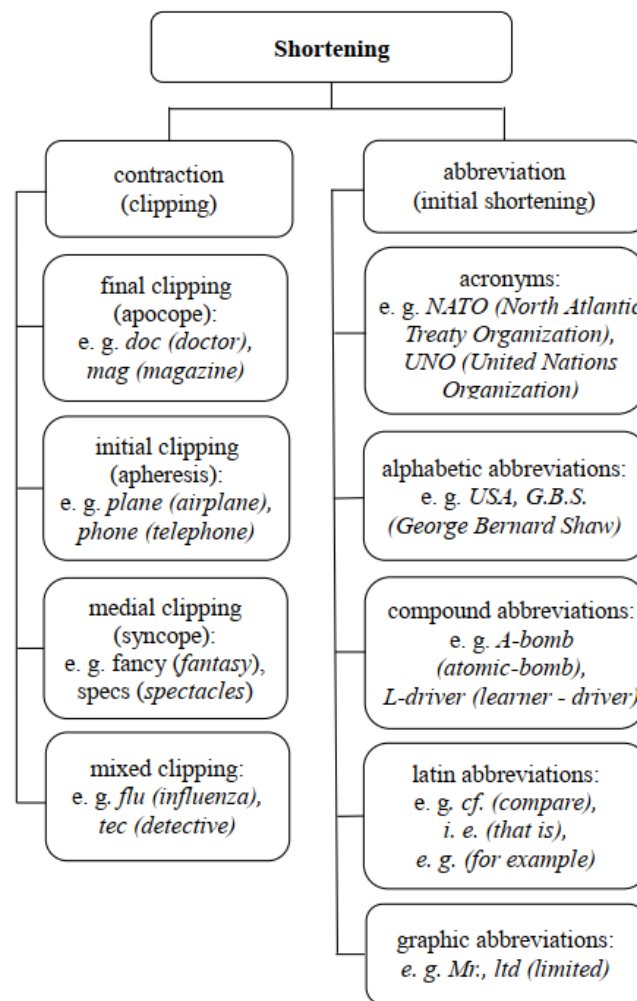




[Retrieved from: 11]

Compounding allows for the creation of new words that can convey specific meanings or contexts. It is a flexible word-building pattern that plays a crucial role in expanding the vocabulary and expressive capabilities of a language.

Shortening is another major word-building pattern in which a word is shortened by removing one or more syllables or letters. This process often results in a new word with a similar or related meaning to the original word.



[Retrieved from: 11]

Shortening is a common word-building pattern that allows for more concise and efficient communication. It is often influenced by common usage and can vary across different regions or communities.

Minor word-building patterns include:

Sound imitation, also known as **onomatopoeia**, is a word-building pattern that involves creating words that imitate or mimic the sounds associated with the objects or actions they represent. Onomatopoeic words are often used to vividly describe sounds and add sensory detail to language.

In onomatopoeia, the sound of the word itself suggests the sound it represents. For example:

"Buzz" - imitates the sound of a bee.

"Splash" - imitates the sound of water hitting a surface.

"Meow" - imitates the sound made by a cat.

"Boom" - imitates a loud and deep sound, like an explosion.

"Sizzle" - imitates the sound of something frying or cooking.

"Chirp" - imitates the sound made by a bird.

Onomatopoeic words can be found in various languages and are used across different literary genres, including poetry, children's literature, and comic books. They add a playful and descriptive element to writing and contribute to the overall imagery and atmosphere of a text. It's important to note that not all languages have the same onomatopoeic words, as the sounds and associations may vary across cultures. Additionally, onomatopoeic words can sometimes be subjective, as different people may interpret sounds differently.

Reduplication is a word-building pattern that involves the repetition of all or part of a word to create a new word with a similar or related meaning. This pattern is found in many languages and can serve various purposes, including indicating intensity, plurality, or repetition. There are different types of reduplication:

Full reduplication: This involves repeating the entire word, either with or without any changes. For example:

- "Papa" -> "Papa-papa" (indicating fatherly affection)
- "Go" -> "Go-go" (indicating continuous movement)

Partial reduplication: This involves repeating only part of the word, typically a syllable or a portion of it. For example:

- "Tick-tock" (imitating the sound of a clock)
- "Chit-chat" (referring to casual conversation)

Rhyme reduplication: This involves repeating a portion of the word that rhymes with the original word. For example:

- "Fiddle-faddle" (referring to trivial or foolish talk)
- "Hocus-pocus" (referring to magic or trickery)

Reduplication is a versatile word-building pattern that can add emphasis, create playful or poetic effects, and convey specific meanings or nuances. It is often influenced by cultural and linguistic factors and can vary across different languages and dialects.

Back formation, also known as **reversion**, is a word-building pattern that involves creating a new word by removing a supposed affix or morpheme from an existing word. This process is based on the mistaken belief that the existing word was derived from the new word. Back formation is a common word-building pattern, and its occurrence is often influenced by language change and evolution. It can result in the creation of new words that become widely accepted and integrated into the language.

Blending is another minor word-building pattern that involves combining parts of two or more words to create a new word. This process typically involves taking the beginning or end of one word and combining it with the beginning or end of another word. Blending can occur in various ways:

Portmanteaus involves combining the sounds and meanings of two words to create a new word that represents a combination of both. Examples include:

- "Brunch" (breakfast + lunch)
- "Smog" (smoke + fog)
- "Spork" (spoon + fork)

Compound blending involves combining two or more words to create a new word that represents a combination of their meanings. Examples include:

- "Netflix" (internet + flicks)
- "Brexit" (Britain + exit)
- "Sitcom" (situation + comedy)

Blending is a creative and flexible word-building pattern that allows for the creation of new words that reflect the evolving nature of language. It often occurs in response to cultural, technological, or linguistic changes and can vary across different regions or communities.

Sound interchange, also known as gradation, is a word-building pattern that involves the alteration or substitution of sounds within a word to create a new word with a related meaning. This pattern often occurs due to phonetic changes or shifts in language over time. Sound interchange is a natural part of language evolution and can reflect historical changes or regional variations. It contributes to the richness and

diversity of words within a language and allows for the creation of new words with different meanings or forms.

Change of stress, also known as distinctive change, is a word-building pattern that involves a shift in the placement of stress within a word, leading to a change in its meaning or grammatical function. This pattern can occur in languages where stress plays a significant role in word formation and can result in the creation of new words or forms. Examples include:

- \"CONduct\" (noun) -> \"conDUCT\" (verb)
- \"REcord\" (noun) -> \"reCORD\" (verb)
- \"CONtent\" (adjective) -> \"conTENT\" (noun)
- \"ABsent\" (adjective) -> \"abSENT\" (noun)
- \"PREsent\" (noun) -> \"preSENT\" (adjective)
- \"EXport\" (noun) -> \"exPORT\" (verb)

Distinctive change of stress adds to the complexity and flexibility of word formation and allows for the creation of words with different meanings or grammatical functions. It is a natural part of language evolution and contributes to the richness and diversity of vocabulary within a language.

Questions for self-check

1. What is compounding in word formation and provide an example.
2. Explain the concept of shortening as a word-building process and give an example.
3. What is blending and how does it differ from compounding? Provide an example.
4. What is sound imitation and how does it contribute to word formation? Give an example.
5. How does a change in stress pattern contribute to the formation of new words? Provide an example.
6. Define reduplication as a word-building process and provide an example.
7. What is back-formation and how does it contribute to word formation? Give an example.

8. How do compounding, shortening, blending, sound imitation, change of stress, reduplication, and back-formation contribute to the expansion of the English vocabulary?

9. Can you provide an example of a word that combines both compounding and shortening?

10. How do these word-building processes reflect the creativity and adaptability of language users?

Lecture 5. Internal structure of words. Lexical meaning.

Transference of meaning. Change of meaning

Lexical meaning refers to the dictionary definition or the basic, literal meaning of a word. It represents the core concept or idea that a word conveys. It is the primary, inherent meaning that is associated with a word, regardless of the context or usage. For example, the lexical meaning of the word "dog" refers to a domesticated mammal that is commonly kept as a pet or used for various purposes like hunting or herding. Lexical meaning is essential for understanding and using words accurately in communication.

The structure of lexical meaning refers to the components or elements that make up the meaning of a word. It involves understanding the different aspects that contribute to the overall definition and interpretation of a word. The structure of lexical meaning can be analyzed through the following components. Denotation refers to the literal or primary meaning of a word, representing the basic concept or idea that a word signifies. It is the dictionary definition or the core meaning of a word that is shared by most speakers of a language. Connotation refers to the associated or secondary meanings of a word, which may vary depending on context, speaker, or cultural factors. Connotations can be positive, negative, or neutral, and they contribute to the emotional or evaluative aspects of a word's meaning. Semantic features are the distinctive characteristics or attributes associated with a word's meaning. They can be used to categorize or classify words based on shared features. For example, the word "dog" can be characterized by semantic features such as "mammal," "domesticated," and "canine."

Transference of meaning, also known as semantic change or semantic shift, refers to the process by which the meaning of a word or phrase evolves or changes over time. It involves a shift in the associations or connotations of a word, leading to a new or expanded meaning. There are several types of transference of meaning.

Metaphorical extension occurs when a word or phrase is used in a figurative or metaphorical sense, leading to a new meaning. For example, the word "bridge" originally referred to a physical structure that connects two points, but it has been metaphorically extended to mean a connection between two ideas or concepts. Dead metaphors are metaphors that have become so ingrained in language that they are no longer recognized as metaphorical expressions. They have become part of everyday language and are used literally. Examples include "foot of the mountain" and "face of the clock."

Metonymy occurs when the meaning of a word is transferred to something closely associated with it. For example, the word "crown" can refer to both the physical headgear worn by a monarch and the position or authority of a monarch.

Transference of meaning is a natural process that occurs as language evolves and adapts to cultural, social, and historical changes. It adds depth and nuance to language, allowing for more expressive and nuanced communication.

Change of meaning:

Broadening occurs when the meaning of a word expands to include a wider range of related concepts. For example, the word "book" originally referred to a written or printed work, but it has broadened to include e-books and audio books. Originally, "mouse" referred to a small rodent. However, with the invention of the computer mouse in the 1960s, the term broadened to include the electronic device used to move a cursor on a screen.

Narrowing occurs when the meaning of a word becomes more specific or limited than its original usage. For example, the word "meat" used to refer to any type of food, but it has narrowed to specifically mean animal flesh. Originally, "girl" referred to a child of any gender. However, its meaning narrowed to specifically refer to a young female in the 14th century.

Questions for self-check

1. What is lexical meaning and how does it differ from grammatical meaning?
2. Explain the concept of denotation and connotation in lexical meaning.
3. What is transference of meaning and how does it occur in language?
4. Provide an example of transference of meaning in everyday language usage.
5. What are the different types of transference of meaning?
6. Explain the concept of metaphor and metonymy as forms of transference of meaning.
7. How does metonymy differ from metaphor in terms of transference of meaning?
8. What is the difference between extension and narrowing of meaning?
9. Can you provide an example of a word that has undergone a change in meaning over time?
10. How does cultural and societal change contribute to the change of meaning in language?

Lecture 6. Homonymy. Synonymy. Antonymy.

Homonymy refers to the linguistic phenomenon where two or more words have the same pronunciation or spelling but different meanings. Homonyms can be classified into two main categories:

Homophones: These are words that have the same pronunciation but different meanings and spellings. Examples include "two" and "too," "there" and "their," and "flower" and "flour."

Homographs: These are words that have the same spelling but different meanings and pronunciations. Examples include "tear" (to rip) and "tear" (a drop of liquid from the eye), "lead" (to guide) and "lead" (a heavy metal), and "bow" (to bend forward) and "bow" (a knot or a weapon).

Homonymy can lead to confusion and ambiguity in communication, especially in written texts or when the context is not clear. Understanding the different meanings

and contexts in which homonyms are used is crucial for accurate comprehension and effective communication.

Synonymy refers to the relationship between words that have similar or identical meanings. Synonyms are words that can be used interchangeably in a given context without changing the overall meaning of a sentence or expression. They provide variety and flexibility in language use, allowing speakers and writers to avoid repetition and create more nuanced and expressive communication. It is important to note that while synonyms share similar meanings, they may still have subtle differences in connotation, register, or usage. Understanding these nuances is crucial for using synonyms accurately and appropriately in different contexts. Thesauruses and dictionaries are helpful resources for finding synonyms and expanding one's vocabulary.

Synonyms can be classified into different categories based on their relationship and similarity in meaning. *Absolute synonyms*: These are words that have exactly the same meaning in all contexts and can be used interchangeably without any difference in meaning. For example, "buy" and "purchase" are absolute synonyms. *Contextual synonyms*: These are words that have similar meanings but may be used in different contexts or have a slightly different connotation. For example, "house" and "home" are contextual synonyms, with "home" often conveying a sense of warmth and personal attachment. *Gradable synonyms*: These are words that have similar meanings but differ in intensity or degree. They represent a scale of intensity for a particular concept. For example, "hot," "warm," and "lukewarm" are gradable synonyms for the concept of temperature.

Antonymy refers to the relationship between words that have opposite meanings. Antonyms are words that can be used to express contrasting or opposite concepts. They provide a way to demonstrate contrast and opposition in language. Antonyms can be classified into different categories based on their relationship and degree of contrast. Here are some common classifications of antonyms:

Gradable antonyms: These are antonyms that represent opposite ends of a scale or spectrum. They indicate degrees of a particular quality or attribute. For example, "hot" and "cold" represent opposite ends of the temperature scale.

Complementary antonyms: These are antonyms that represent mutually exclusive concepts or states. They indicate a binary opposition where one concept excludes the other. For example, "alive" and "dead" are complementary antonyms.

Relational antonyms: These are antonyms that express opposite relationships or roles. They indicate a contrast in the way two entities or concepts are related to each other. For example, "parent" and "child" are relational antonyms.

Converse antonyms: These are antonyms that represent opposite perspectives or viewpoints of the same concept. They indicate a reciprocal relationship. For example, "buy" and "sell" are converse antonyms.

Understanding antonyms is important for effective communication, as they allow for contrasting and emphasizing different ideas or concepts. Dictionaries and thesauruses are helpful resources for finding antonyms and expanding one's vocabulary.

Questions for self-check

1. What is homonymy and how does it differ from polysemy? Provide an example.
2. Explain the concept of synonymy and provide an example of synonymous words.
3. What are the different types of synonyms? Provide examples for each type.
4. How do antonyms differ from synonyms? Provide an example of antonyms.
5. What are the different types of antonyms? Provide examples for each type.
6. Can a word have both synonyms and antonyms? Provide an example.
7. How does context play a role in determining the meaning of homonyms?
8. Can you provide an example of a sentence that demonstrates homonymy?
9. How does the use of synonyms and antonyms contribute to effective communication?

10. How do homonymy, synonymy, and antonymy impact language learning and understanding?

Lecture 7. Phraseology of the English language.

Phraseology refers to the study and use of fixed expressions or phrases in a language. In the English language, phraseology plays a crucial role in communication, as it allows speakers and writers to convey meaning efficiently and effectively. Here are some aspects of the phraseology of the English language:

Idioms are expressions that have a figurative meaning different from the literal meaning of the individual words. They are unique to a particular language or culture and often require knowledge of the idiomatic usage to understand their intended meaning. Examples of English idioms include "kick the bucket" (to die), "break a leg" (good luck), and "the ball is in your court" (it is your turn to take action).

Proverbs are short, traditional sayings that express a general truth or piece of advice. They are commonly used in everyday speech and writing to convey wisdom or moral lessons. Examples of English proverbs include "actions speak louder than words," "don't count your chickens before they hatch," and "the early bird catches the worm."

Collocations are combinations of words that frequently occur together and have become natural and idiomatic in the language. They are fixed expressions that are commonly used by native speakers. Examples of English collocations include "make a decision," "take a shower," and "catch someone's attention."

Phrasal verbs are combinations of verbs and particles (prepositions or adverbs) that create idiomatic meanings. They often have figurative or idiomatic meanings that are different from the literal meanings of the individual words. Examples of English phrasal verbs include "break up" (end a relationship), "look up" (search for information), and "put off" (postpone).

The origins of idioms in the English language can be traced back to various sources, including historical events, cultural references, literature, and folklore. Here are some common origins of idioms in English. Many idioms in English have their

roots in historical events or practices. For example, the idiom "raining cats and dogs" is believed to have originated from the 17th-century streets of London, where heavy rain would cause dead animals to be washed into the streets. Another example is the idiom "barking up the wrong tree," which is thought to have originated from hunting dogs mistakenly barking at the wrong tree during a chase. Idioms often reflect cultural references and traditions. For instance, the idiom "the ball is in your court" comes from the game of tennis, where the ball is hit into the opponent's court, indicating that it is their turn to make a move. Similarly, the idiom "the whole nine yards" is believed to have originated from the length of ammunition belts used in World War II fighter planes.

Idioms can also have their origins in literature and folklore. For example, the idiom "beware of Greeks bearing gifts" comes from the story of the Trojan Horse in Greek mythology. The idiom "sour grapes," meaning to disparage something one desires but cannot have, originates from Aesop's fable "The Fox and the Grapes."

Idioms can stem from specific occupations or everyday life experiences. For instance, the idiom "kick the bucket" meaning to die, is believed to have originated from the act of a person standing on a bucket while attempting suicide by hanging. The person would kick the bucket away, leading to their death.

The English language has also borrowed idioms from other languages. For example, the idiom "carpe diem" meaning "seize the day" comes from Latin. The idiom "fait accompli" meaning a thing that has already happened or is certain to happen is borrowed from French.

It is worth noting that the exact origins of idioms can sometimes be challenging to trace definitively, as they often evolve and change over time. Additionally, idioms may have different origins in different regions or cultures, leading to variations in their meanings and usage.

Questions for self-check

1. What is phraseology and why is it important in language?
2. Explain the concept of idiomatic expressions and provide examples.
3. How do proverbs and sayings contribute to the phraseology of English?

4. What are phrasal verbs and how do they differ from regular verbs?
5. Can you provide examples of common phrasal verbs and their meanings?
6. How does collocation play a role in phraseology?
7. Give examples of collocations in English and explain their significance.
8. What are fixed expressions and why are they important in phraseology?
9. How does the use of clichés and jargon contribute to the phraseology of English?
10. How can studying phraseology enhance language proficiency and communication skills?

SEMINARS

Seminar 1. General notes on lexicology as a branch of linguistics.

Etymological analysis of modern English vocabulary

Plan

- 1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Branches of lexicology.*
- 2. Types of dictionaries*
- 3. The origin of the English vocabulary. Native words. Borrowings.*
- 4. The structure of an entry in the etymological dictionary*

Exercise 1. Identify the origin of the following words using Online etymological dictionary <https://www.etymonline.com/>

Window, sky, sea, red, heart, grass, new, daisy, landscape, cookie, coffee, opera, book, democracy, inspiration, canoe.

Exercise 2. Distribute the following Latin borrowings into several groups according to the semantic sphere and the time of borrowing.

pound, construct, absolute, pulpit, port, devil, cheese, external, abstract, butter, genius, cheap, dish, cup, plant, abbot, school, minimum, formula, street, monk, mental, wine, chalk, nun, wall, senior, immortal, cook, devil, beet, butter, minster, oil, grammar, crisis, master, port, solar, mill, monastery, moratorium.

Seminar 2. Assimilation of borrowings. Etymological doublets.

Etymological hybrids. Translation loans. International words

Plan

- 1. Assimilation of borrowings.*
- 2. Translation loans. Etymological doublets. Etymological hybrids. International words.*
- 3. Choose any word you like and be ready to speak about its etymology.*

Exercise 1. Explain the etymology of the following words. Write them out in three columns: a) fully assimilated words; b) partially assimilated words; c) unassimilated words.

seem, autumn, reason, protégé, espadrilles, law, eau-de-cologne, wine, market, phenomenon, dish, corps, kohlrabi, zinc, chair, kamikaze, plant, ski, prestige, au revoir, kitchen, bishop, society, chivalry, fiancé, garage, joy, happy, aunt, egg, kimono, plant, battle, face, façade, bona fide, poncho.

Exercise 2. Explain why the following words are considered to be hybrids:
gentleman, fruitful, unpretentious, skillful, extremely, painstaking, red-coloured, respectful, overanxious, overjoyed, underestimate.

Exercise 3. State the origin of the following etymological doublets. Compare their meanings.

1. shirt - skirt, shriek - screech, shrew - screw, shabby - scabby;
2. catch - chase, captain - chieftain, cant - chant, cavalry - chivalry, card - chart, canal - channel, ward - guard.

Exercise 4. Read the following. Identify examples of international words.

1. Albert Einstein was a genius in the field of physics.
2. Only a small percent of the population has the ability to solve complex mathematical problems.
3. She is an expert in computer programming and can solve any coding issue.
4. Studying chemistry requires a deep understanding of the periodic table and chemical reactions.
5. The doctor specializes in internal medicine and treats a wide range of diseases and ailments.

Seminar 3. Types of morphemes in English. Classification of word-building patterns in English according to the degree of their productivity.

Affixation. Conversion

Plan

1. *Structural types of words*
2. *Morphemes and their types*

3. *Word-building patterns: classification*

4. *Affixation*

5. *Conversion*

Exercise 1. Analyze the morphological structure of the give words: identify the number of morphemes and their types according to the semantic and the structural classifications of morphemes.

1. calculable

2. fruitfulness

3. geography

4. half-cooked

5. ill-fixed

6. inartistic

7. northeasterly

8. psychologist

9. receive

10. self-centeredness

11. semi-smiling

12. sleepier

13. two-sevens

14. uncharacteristically

15. waterproof

16. bad-mannered [Retrieved from: 7].

Exercise 2. Form words with the following productive affixes. State to what part of speech they belong to. Give their Ukrainian equivalents.

a) -er(-or), -ist, -eer(-ier), -ian(-an,-n), -ant(-ent), -ness, -ism, -dom, -hood, -ship, -(i)ty, -ment, -ance(-ence), -ion(-tion), -age, -ing, -al, -ie(-y), -ful, -less, -able (-ible), -y, -ish, -ly, -ary(-ory), -ic(-ical), -ive, -ous(-eous), -ious), -ward, -ed, -ize, -ate, -(i)fy, -en;

b) un-, de-, anti-, non-, in-(il-,im-,ir-), dis-, out-, over-, under-, re-, co-, ex-, pre-, post-, sub-, super-, extra-, ultra-, inter-, trans-, mis-, be-, en-(em-).

[Retrieved from: 7].

Exercise 3. Fill in the blank with the negative prefixes (im-, in-, il-, un-, dis-) which correspond to the words given in brackets.

1. She is (likely) to miss the train because she always arrives early.
2. The (polite) customer refused to wait in line and caused a scene.
3. The (honest) politician was caught lying to the public.
4. The (organized) student always forgets to bring their homework.
5. The (satisfied) customer demanded a refund for their faulty product.

[Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 4. In the given conversion pairs state the semantic relations between the words

- 1) crowd, n – to crowd
- 2) eye, n – to eye
- 3) fool, n – to fool
- 4) leather, n – to leather
- 5) to cheat – cheat, n
- 6) to forge –forge, n
- 7) to knock – knock, n
- 8) to tear – tear, n [Retrieved from: 7].

Seminar 4. Compounding. Shortening Plan

1. *Compounds and their types*
2. *Shortening: types and classification*

Exercise 1. Classify the following compound words.

1. Bookshelf
2. Butterfly
3. Football
4. Raincoat
5. Sunflower

6. Firefighter
7. Headphones
8. Toothbrush
9. Moonlight
10. Bedroom
11. Newspaper
12. Airport
13. One-eyed
14. Anglo-Saxon
15. Townsfolk
16. Tragicomic

Exercise 2. Form compounds using the stems given.

hole, key; ring, wedding; book, keep; sun, burn; back, break; loud, speaker; suit, bathing; bare, head; ship, build; half, ruin; music, love; fresh, salt; basket, waste-paper; thick, skin; goal, keep; ship, war; short, sight; share, hold.

[Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 3. Classify the following words according to the type of contracting:

exam, disco, bus, plane, fridge, Tony, ad, phone, maths, teeny, Nick, mag, pram, retro, flu, doc, cab, chute, mayo, Fred, gas, Liz, van [Retrieved from: 7].

Exercise 4. Pick out all the abbreviations from the sentences given below.

Comment on their formation.

1. She spent years conducting research for her Ph.D. thesis on quantum physics.
2. The doctor ordered X-rays to determine the extent of the patient's injuries.
3. The employees gathered at the Company H.Q. for an important meeting.
4. The organization is dedicated to raising awareness and finding a cure for AIDS.
5. His high IQ allowed him to solve complex problems quickly.
6. It is important to protect your skin from the harmful effects of UV rays.
7. UNESCO works to promote education and cultural understanding worldwide.

8. The M.P. addressed the concerns of the constituents during the town hall meeting.

9. Mr. Johnson is the CEO of the successful tech company.

Exercise 5. Give English words or phrases corresponding to the following Latin abbreviations.

A.D., a.m., e.g., B.C., P.S., cf., id., ibid., etc., i.e., NB. [Retrieved from: 4].

Seminar 5. Reduplication. Sound imitation. Blending. Back-formation.

Change of stress. Sound interchange

Plan

1. *Sound imitation*

2. *Reduplication*

3. *Back formation*

4. *Blending*

5. *Sound interchange*

6. *Change of stress*

Exercise 1. Determine the source words of the following verbs formed through back formation.

typewrite, catalyse, edit, baby-sit, audit, stage-manage, ush, emplace, house-keep, househunt, televise, donate, legislate, tape-record, free-wheel, swindle. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 2. Comment on the formation of the following blends and translate them into Ukrainian.

1. Brunch

2. Smog

3. Spork

4. Chocoholic

5. Sitcom

6. Fantabulous

7. Breathalyzer
8. Blogosphere
9. Motel
10. Brangelina
11. Hangry
12. Frenemy
13. Infomercial
14. Staycation
15. Webinar
16. Labradoodle
17. Jeggings
18. Glamping
19. Brunchfast
20. Spanglish

Exercise 3. Give English equivalents to the following onomatopoeic words.

Бурмотіти, гавкати, каркати, нявкати, іржати, шипіти, щебетати, мукати, тріщати, рипіти, тупотіти, шльопати, дзенькати, шарудіти, вити, цвірінькати, тікати, скреготати, гарчати, гуркотіти [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 4. Give verbs corresponding to the following adjectives and nouns, transcribe and translate them.

Present, conduct, forecast, concrete, compound, conflict, record, progress, exit, contrast, import, transport, perfect, contest, survey [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 5. Give nouns corresponding to the following verbs and adjectives and translate them into Ukrainian.

Bathe, wide, knit, live, strong, feed, practise, speak, broad, breathe, choose, bleed. [Retrieved from: 7].

Exercise 6. Define the particular type of word-building process by which the following words were made and say as much as you can about them.

A mike; to babysit; to buzz; a torchlight; homelike; theatrical; old-fashioned; to book; unreasonable; SALT; Anglo-American; to murmur; a pub; to dillydally;

OK okay; eatable; a make; a greenhorn; posish; a dress coat; to bang; merry-go-round; H-bag; B.B.C.; thinnish; to blood-transfuse; a go; to quack; M.P.; to thunder; earthquake; D-region; fatalism; a find [Retrieved from: 7].

Seminar 6. Lexical meaning of a word and its components. Metaphor.

Metonymy. Generalization and specification of meaning

Plan

1. *Lexical meaning of the word*
2. *Semantic structure of the word. Monosemy. Polysemy.*
3. *Transference of meaning: metaphor, metonymy*
4. *Change of meaning (broadening, narrowing)*

Exercise 1. Which of the following words are monosemantic? (use a dictionary)

Abandon, abdicate, aphorism, apathy, application, arch, band, behold, bronchitis, catapult, central, denture, divide, flabby, flask, intercede, measure, memorial, mischance, miser, minx, plangent, prominent, promise, promote, prompt, sinecure, upstanding, wreath, xenophobia.

Exercise 2. Write the definitions to illustrate as many meanings as possible for the following polysemantic words. Find two more examples of polysemantic words using a dictionary

face,

heart,

nose,

smart,

to lose. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 3. Identify the denotative and connotative elements of meaning in the following pairs of words.

Example: *celebrated* – *notorious celebrated*: *denotational aspects*: ‘widely known, admired and talked by people because of good qualities’; *components of the*

connotational aspect of lexical meaning: evaluation (positive);
notorious: *denotational aspect: 'widely known because of something bad, for example, for being criminal, violent, or immoral'; components of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning: evaluation (negative)*

to conceal – to disguise,
to choose – to select,
to draw – to paint,
money– cash,
odd – queer,
photograph – picture,
big – large,
clever – wise,
sky – heavens [Retrieved from: 7].

Exercise 4. Explain the logical associations in the meanings of the same words in the following word combinations. Define the type of transference which has taken place.

A wing of a bird - a wing of a building – on wings of joy; an eye of a man – an eye of a needle; the heart of a man – the heart of the matter; a hand of a man – a hand of a clock – a farm hand; a foot of a man – the foot of a mountain; the coat of a girl – the coat of a dog; a star in the sky – a film star; a green leaf – green years – green with envy; warm weather – a warm welcome; black shoes – black winter – black despair; the father of the family – the father of invention; nickel (*metal*) – a nickel (*coin*); bronze – a bronze; glass – a glass; Ford (*proper name*) – a Ford (*car*); Kashmir (*town in North India*) - cashmere. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 5. Comment on the change of meanings in the italicized words.

1. As the building burned, tongues of flame licked the sky, illuminating the night with their fiery dance.
2. Despite the daunting challenge, she faced it with an iron nerve, never letting her fear show.

3. She looked at him with eyes burning with a desire for adventure and excitement.

4. When she heard the good news, emotions sparkled in her eyes, reflecting her joy and excitement.

5. The overwhelming emotion squeezed his heart, leaving him breathless and teary-eyed.

6. With his charismatic personality and magnetic presence, he drew people to him like a magnet.

7. In the heat of the argument, his anger melted away, replaced by a sense of understanding and empathy.

8. Some books are to be tasted, others swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested.

Exercise 6. Read the following extracts and explain the semantic processes by which the italicized words acquired their meanings

1. '*Bureau*, a desk, was borrowed from French in the 17th c. In Modern French (and English) it means not only the desk but also the office itself and the authority exercised by the office. Hence the familiar bureaucracy is likely to become increasingly familiar. The desk was called so because covered with *bureau*, a coarse cloth of a brown russet.

(From *The Romance of Words* by E. Weekley)

2. An Earl of Spencer made a short overcoat fashionable for some time. An Earl of Sandwich invented a form of light refreshment which enabled him to take a meal without leaving the card-table. Hence we have such words as *spencer* and *sandwich* in English.

(From *The Romance of Words* by E. Weekley)

3. A common name for overalls or trousers is *jeans*. In the singular *jean* is also a term for a durable twilled cotton and is short for the phrase *jean fustian* which first appeared in texts from the sixteenth century. *Fustian* (a Latin borrowing) is a cotton or cotton and linen fabric, and *jean* is the modern spelling of Middle English *Jene* or

Gene, from *Genes*, the Middle French name of the Italian city *Genoa*, where it was made and shipped abroad.

(From *The Merriam-Webster Book of Word Histories*)

4. Formally *barn* meant "a storehouse for barley"; today it has widened to mean "any kind of storehouse" for animals or equipment as well as any kind of grain. The word *picture* used to refer only to a representation made with paint; today it can be a photograph or a representation made with charcoal, pencil or any other means. A *pen* used to mean "feather" but now has become generalized to include several kinds of writing implements — fountain, ballpoint, etc. The meaning of *sail* as limited to moving on water in a ship with sails has now generalized to mean "moving on water in any ship".

(From *Teaching English Linguistically* by J. Malmstrom, J. Lee)

Seminar 7. Homonyms, synonyms and antonyms in English: sources and classification

Plan

1. *Homonyms: sources and classification*
2. *Antonyms: structural types*
3. *Synonyms: classification*

Exercise 1. Find homonyms in the following extracts. Classify them into homonyms proper, homographs and homophones.

- 1) "Mine is a long and a sad tale!" said the Mouse, turning to Alice, and sighing. "It is a long tail, certainly," said Alice, looking down with wonder at the Mouse's tail; "but why do you call it sad?".
- 2) Our Institute football team got a challenge to a match from the University team and we accepted it. – Somebody struck a match so that we could see each other.
- 3) It was nearly December but the California sun made a summer morning of the season. – On the way home Crane no longer drove like a nervous old maid.
- 4) On their left a few feathery coconut palms stretched their necks above the

clumped vegetation. – Johnny puffed at his cigarette in his closed palm.
5) She wished she could run a million miles away. Away from her husband who had cried and wailed constantly for a week. – "He's still too weak. Don't stay long."
[Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 2. Provide the following words with homonyms. Give their Ukrainian equivalents:

fair, mood, school, pupil, seal, may, like, firm, club, scale, spring, long, mess, can, bear, band. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 3. Find homographs to the following words and transcribe them:
wind, tear, polish, row, bow, object, desert, bass. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 4. Find homophones to the following words. Translate them into Ukrainian:

piece, right, sail, see, knight, cite, son, meat, fare, heal, sole, whole, weather, suit, buy, plate. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 5. Pick out synonyms from the sentences below. Comment on their shades of meaning and stylistic reference.

1. a) The doctor glanced quickly at Eleanor and then away.
 - b) He looked at her now, peering through the bars.
 - c) Mrs. Dudley stood below and watched them in silence.
 - d) Our professor would stop, glare and drum the edge of the table.
 - e) "Like it?" he says, and eyes you expectantly...
 - f) Haines surveyed the tower and said at last: "Rather bleak in wintertime, I should say."
 - g) I stared at him, and I suppose something in my face stopped him.
2. a) They held hands across the table and talked about parents and childhood as if they had just met.
 - b) It wasn't like Wolf to babble when business was on hand.
 - c) I had to ride back to New York in a bus with a delegation of schoolteachers coming back from a weekend in the mountains – chatter-chatter, blah-blah...

3. a) She crossed to the window and looked down to where the pool sparkled in the early sunshine.
 - b) A sarcastic smile played upon Machiavelli's thin lips and his eyes gleamed.
 - c) New York was not the great glittering unfriendly place it might have been.
 - d) The drawing-room shone and glistened with the spotlessness of a house without children.
 - e) Haines stopped to take out a smooth silver case in which twinkled a green stone.
4. a) "You are a very clever woman, Mrs. Merrowdene. I think you understand me."
 - b) He was intelligent, learned quickly, and everyone adored him.
 - c) I thought you were smart enough to figure it out.
 - d) He was inexperienced, of course, but quick-witted.
5. a) Ten minutes go by and the first man gives a yell and goes mad.
 - b) He shouted like an insane thing.
 - c) Behind Miss Marple's back Charmian made a sign to Edward. It said, "She's ga-ga."
 - d) "For the Lord's sake, have you gone completely balmy?"
 - e) "I'm a crazy, jealous fool!" [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 6. Give synonyms to the words in italics.

1. Isabel sat *still* at her dressing table.
2. There was *complete* silence.
3. It was an ordinary bus *trip* with crying babies and hot sun.
4. That *idea* stirred Caroline.
5. When she *laughed* it came out loose and young.
6. She *longed* for him with all her heart for him to take her in his arms so that she could lay her head on his breast.
7. I was *astonished* at seeing him so changed.
8. There was a *scent* of honey from the lime-trees in flowers.
9. He merely *blushed* and said that he was jolly well going to go, because this girl was in Cannes.
10. Her voice was *trembling* with excitement. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 7. Find synonymic dominants in the following groups of synonyms:

ask, inquire, demand, interrogate, question;

choose, elect, pick out, select;

odd, strange, queer, quaint;

affair, business, case, matter, thing;

gratify, please, exalt, content, satisfy, delight;

cry, weep, sob;

alone, single, solitary, lonely;

man, chat, fellow, lad;

fabricate, manufacture, produce, create, make;

reflect, think, meditate, brood. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 8. Find antonyms to the words given below:

narrow, poor, to die, clean, light, young, enemy, quick, to rise, slowly, employed, to start, unknown, selfish, order, active, to close, impossible, to descend, down, to lose, dull.

Seminar 8. Origin and types of idioms in English

Plan

1. Phraseology: definition

2. Idioms: classification,

3. Origins of idioms

Exercise 1. Consult the dictionary and state the meaning and origin of the following phraseological units:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1) a drop in the bucket/ocean | 6. the iron curtain |
| 2) a whipping boy | 7. the massacre of the innocent |
| 3) cross the Rubicon | 8. to bury the hatchet |
| 4) of the same leaven/batch | 9. to fiddle while Rome burns |
| 5) the apple of discord | 10. to run the gauntlet [Retrieved from: 7]. |

Exercise 2. Translate the following phraseological units giving their literal and figurative meaning:

- 1) to draw the curtain over
- 2) to hang up one's boots
- 3) to lock the stable door when the steed is stolen
- 4) to put one's cards on the table
- 5) to put somebody out to pasture
- 6) to saddle the right horse
- 7) to see somebody in the flesh
- 8) to spill the beans
- 9) to touch the bottom
- 10) to turn the corner [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 3. Complete the following proverbs and sayings and explain their meaning:

- 1) A rolling stone...
- 2) A stitch in time ...
- 3) Beauty is in the eye ...
- 4) Better late than ...
- 5) Cleanliness is next to ...
- 6) Honesty is...
- 7) Keep your friends close and
- 8) Make hay while ...
- 9) Once bitten ...
- 10) One man's trash is ...
- 11) People who live in glass houses ...
- 12) Steel waters ...
- 13) The grass is always greener ...
- 14) The pen is mightier than ...
- 15) You can't make an omelet ...[Retrieved from: 7].

Exercise 4. Group the phraseological units in the following sentences according to the semantic principle.

1. He went to the bed and sat on the edge but didn't lie down. It was not in the cards for him to sleep that night.
2. Junior was the apple of her eye, and she had big marital plans for him when that time came.
3. Kay was a very different cup of tea from Brenda and the Grenville sisters.
4. He gave a little start and then suddenly burst into a shout of laughter.
5. Speaking with great affection, you're really on the wrong track there.
6. He took no notice of me.
7. He didn't work, and he spent a great deal of money, and he painted the town red.
8. From the age of twelve she knew, that she could wrap men around her little finger, an expression her mother was fond of using.
9. If she couldn't have her way and get John for good and all, she felt like dying of privation. By hook or by crook she must and would get him!
10. In the small hours he slipped out of bed, and passing into his dressing-room, leaned by the open window. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 5. Group the phraseological units in the following sentences according to the structural principle.

1. There was a man I cared about, and this afternoon he told me out of a clear sky that he was poor as a churchmouse.
2. Then I got a shock that stiffened me from head to toe.
3. What it symbolized was a fact of banking-corporate life: You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours.
4. I know a man who would love meeting you. The perfect nut for you to crack your teeth on.
5. There was a list of diets up in the kitchen, but Auntie had it all at her finger-tips.
6. He started getting serious as hell, like my Dad.
7. "There you are! Dartie's gone to Buenos Aires!" – Soames nodded.
8. The question caught John, as it were, between wind and water.

9. "Good heavens," Sarah exclaimed. "I'd forgotten about that."

10. She and Dennis could talk without restraint; they knew each other through and through. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 6. Pick out the synonymous pairs of phraseological units. Give their Ukrainian equivalents:

To smooth the ice; the day pigs fly; safe and sound; every day is not Sunday; by a short cut; to catch it hot; to ride Shank's mare; an old salt; that's where the shoe pinches; to turn a blind eye to smth; to pin smb to the wall; after a Christmas comes a Lent; to kick up a dust; to come to the wrong shop; such master, such servant; to spoil one's game; in a bee line; to take the wind out of one's sails; on tomorrow come never; to leg it; to drive smb into a corner; to have one's heart in one's mouth; to paint the lily; after dinner comes the reckoning; a sea dog; to close one's eyes to smth; alive and hearty; to raise a big smoke; such as a tree is, such is the fruit; to get it in the neck; there's the rub; one's heart sinks into one's boots; if you dance you must play the fiddle; to bark up a wrong tree. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 7. Choose antonyms to the following phraseological units:

a) milk for babes; Tom Thumb; to know smth from A to Z; to keep one's chin up; under a bushel; a green hand at smth; within one's reach; big wigs; as slow as a snail; to keep one's tongue between one's teeth; cold as a fish; not to care a rap for smth; to be worse than one's word; not to have a penny to bless oneself with; to be in one's good books; as rich as Croesus; to open a door to smth:
b) as quick as a flash; long drink of water; to be in one's bad books; to roll in money; to close the door to smth; small potatoes; not to know A from B; above one's reach; as poor as a church mouse; to make much of smth; to keep one's word; an old hand at smth; a hard nut to crack; to hang down one's head; hot as pepper; to wag one's tongue; above board. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 8. Give the proverbs from which the following phraseological units have developed:

A velvet paw; a bee in one's bonnet; to take care of the pence; a bird in the bush; to cast pearls before swine; to make hay; a silver lining; a black sheep; the early bird;

the last straw; to cry over spilt milk; to put all one's eggs in one basket. [Retrieved from: 4].

Exercise 9. Describe the meaning of one of the idioms in a short passage with your own illustration:

To work for peanuts, to crunch the numbers, to test the waters, from rags to riches, a pretty penny, cup of tea, to egg someone on, one smart cookie, to spice things up.

Exercise 10. Find the Ukrainian equivalents to the following proverbs:

1. Two heads are better than one. 2. Like cures like. 3. Second thoughts are best. 4. Don't cross your bridges before you come to them. 5. As you sow, you shall mow. 6. East or West, home is best. 7. First catch your hare, then cook him. 8. Don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs. 9. A fault confessed is half redressed. 10. Enough is as good as a feast. [Retrieved from: 4].

TOPICS FOR REPORTS AND PRESENTATIONS

1. The Evolution of the English Language
2. Historical Development of Lexicology
3. The Process of Word Formation in the English Language
4. The Role of Morphology in Word Formation
5. Historical Development of Word Formation in English
6. Productivity and Creativity in Word Formation
7. Lexical Meaning and its Role in Communication
8. Semantic Change and Shift in Lexical Meaning
9. Polysemy and Homonymy in Lexical Meaning
10. Idioms and their Cultural Significance in English
11. Homonyms: Words with Different Meanings but the Same Spelling or Pronunciation
12. Antonyms: Words with Opposite Meanings
13. Synonyms: Words with Similar Meanings
14. Lexical Variation and Dialects in the English Language
15. Regional Variants and Dialects in English-speaking Countries
16. Sociolects and Stylistic Variation in English
17. Lexical Borrowing and Loanwords in English
18. Variants in Spelling and Pronunciation in English
19. Lexical Studies in Specific Domain or Field (e.g., medical, legal, sports)
20. Lexical Studies in Specific Language or Culture

TEST FOR SELF-CHECK

1. What is word motivation?

- A. Motivation is the correlation between the phonetic form of the word and its lexical meaning.
- B. Motivation is the correlation between the morphological form of the word and its lexical meaning.
- C. Motivation is the correlation between the direct and the transferred meanings of a word.
- D. Motivation is the correlation between the etymological form and lexical meaning of a word.

2. Which are major word-building patterns?

- A. Sound Imitation, Blending, Change of Stress, Back-Formation.
- B. Sound Gradation, Compounding, Shortening, Blending.
- C. Derivation, Compounding, Shortening, Conversion.
- D. Derivation, Compounding, Change of Stress, Back-Formation.

3. Give definition of Compounding.

- A. Compounding is a minor word-building pattern which produces new words by means of shortening two or more words and joining the remaining parts into one word.
- B. Compounding is a major word-building pattern which produces new words by means of joining the root-morphemes into one word.
- C. Compounding is a major word-building pattern which produces new words by means of adding derivational affixes to the root morpheme.
- D. Compounding is a minor word-building pattern which produces new words by means of imitating the sounds of objective reality.

4. Give definition of lexical meaning given by Referential Approach.

- A. Lexical meaning is the correlation among the 3 points of the semasiological triangle: referent, concept and sign.
- B. Lexical meaning is the produce of context.
- C. Lexical meaning is the correlation between referent and concept.
- D. Lexical meaning is the correlation between referent and sign.

5. *What types of semantic change do you know?*

- A. change of the connotative meaning of the word.
- B. change of the nominative meaning of the word.
- C. extension, specialization, elevation, degradation.
- D. specialization, elevation.

6. *What types of transfer of lexical meaning do you know?*

- A. personification and elevation.
- B. metaphor and metonymy.
- C. metaphor and extension.
- D. specialization and synecdoche.

7. *Give a definition of Homonymy.*

- A. Homonymy is the correlation between the direct and the transferred meanings of a word.
- B. Homonymy is the plurality of meanings of one and the same word.
- C. Homonymy is the coincidence in form of several words.
- D. Homonymy is the coincidence in meaning of several words.

8. *Which are completely assimilated borrowed words?*

- A. Denizens.
- B. Aliens.
- C. Barbarisms.
- D. Etnographisms.

9. *What is a translation loan?*

- A. Translation loan is a word per word translation.
- B. Translation loan is a letter per letter translation.
- C. Translation loan is transfer of meaning.
- D. Translation loan is change of meaning.

10. *Tallish, disappear, readable, walkie-talkie.*

The words are:

- A. Morphologically motivated
- B. Phonetically motivated
- C. Semantically motivated
- D. Non-motivated

11. *Undernourish, overfulfil, unusual, reproduce.*

The words are produced by:

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| A. Derivation | C. Blending |
| B. Compounding | D. Shortening |

12. *story, flu, fridge, through.*

The words are produced by:

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| A. Graphical shortening | C. Abbreviation |
| B. Lexical shortening | D. Semi-abbreviation |

13. *story, fence, sport, phone.*

The words are produced by:

- | | |
|--------------|-----------------------------|
| A. Apheresis | C. Apocope |
| B. Syncope | D. Mixed lexical shortening |

14. *to hand, the rich, to father, a smoke.*

The words are produced by:

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| A. Conversion | C. Change of Stress |
| B. Sound-Gradation | D. Sound Imitation |

15. *to advice → advise, bath → to bathe.*

The words are produced by:

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| A. Blending | C. Back-formation |
| B. Sound Imitation | D. Sound Gradation |

16. *beggar → to beg, blood transfusion → to bloodtransfuse.*

The words are produced by:

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------|
| A. Back-formation | C. Derivation |
| B. Change of Stress | D. Conversion |

17. *CIA, GI, FBI, USA.*

The words are:

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| A. Abbreviation | C. Acronym |
| B. Semi-abbreviation | D. Quazi-abbreviation |

18. *-ous, -able, -less, -ish.*

- A. Noun-forming suffixes
- B. Verb-forming suffixes

- C. Adjective-forming suffixes
- D. Verb-forming suffixes

19. *-ful, -er, -dom, -ly.*

- A. Native suffixes
- B. Greek suffixes

- C. Romanic suffixes
- D. Russian suffixes

20. *co-, ab-, ex-.*

- A. Suffixes
- B. Prefixes

- C. Semi-affixes
- D. Grammatical Suffixes

21. *to look → to have a look*

- A. Substantivation
- B. Reconversion

- C. Partial Conversion
- D. Complete Conversion

22. *whisper, giggle, neigh.*

The words are produced by:

- A. Sound Gradation
- B. Conversion

- C. Back-formation
- D. Sound Imitation

23. *brain-wash, lily-of the-valley, handiwork.*

- A. Motivated Compounds
- B. Non-motivated Compounds

- C. Demotivated Compounds
- D. Disguised Compounds

24. *merry-go-round; officer-in-charge.*

The way of joining the root morphemes is:

- A. Neutral
- B. Morphological

- C. Syntactic
- D. None of the above

25. *to present (v) – present (n); to import (v) - import (n)*

The words are produced by:

- A. Sound Gradation
- B. Conversion

- C. Change of Stress
- D. Sound Imitation

26. *catch, chase, capture.*

- A. Etymological doublets
- B. Etymological triplets

- C. Change of nominative meaning
- D. Change of connotative meaning

27. *glass, a glass.*

A. Polysemy

B. Homonymy

C. Change of nominative meaning

D. Change of connotative meaning

28. *Girl, wife, poison.*

A. Extension of meaning

B. Specialization of meaning

C. Elevation of meaning

D. Degradation of meaning

29. *Villain, vulgar, knave.*

A. Extension of meaning

B. Specialization of meaning

C. Elevation of meaning

D. Degradation of meaning

30. *Train (of a dress), iron (lady), bitter (smile).*

A. Metaphor

B. Metonymy

C. Extension of meaning

D. Specialization of meaning

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Навчальне видання

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LEXICOLOGY

*Навчально-методичний посібник для здобувачів першого (бакалаврського) рівня
вищої освіти галузі знань 03 «Гуманітарні науки»
спеціальності 035 «Філологія»*

В авторській редакції

Підписано до друку 19.01.2024 р.
Формат 60×84 1/16. Папір офсетний.
Друк цифровий. Ум. друк. арк. 3,49. Обл.-вид. арк. 2,31.
Тираж 150 прим. Замовлення № 14-02/12.

Відділ реалізації. Тел.: (067) 542-08-01. E-mail: info@book.sumy.ua

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доцтво суб'єкта видавничої справи ДК № 7461 від 05.10.2021

овано на обладнанні ПФ «Видавництво “Університетська книга”»