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ИМЕНИ ЯНКИ КУПАЛЫ»

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Предназначен для проведения лабораторных занятий по лексикологии английского языка. Материал, представленный в практикуме, будет способствовать формированию у студентов научного представления о словарном составе английского языка. Представлены детально разработанные планы лабораторных занятий. Адресуется студентам специальностей: «Английский язык», «Современные иностранные языки», «Лингвистическое обеспечение межкультурных коммуникаций». Шрифтовое разнообразие, используемое в книге, по мнению авторов, будет способствовать лучшему усвоению предлагаемого учебного материала.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Данное издание предназначено для студентов III курса специальностей 1-02 03 06-01 «Английский язык», 1-23 01 02 «Лингвистическое обеспечение межкультурных коммуникаций», 1-21 06 01 «Современные иностранные языки», изучающих английский как первый иностранный язык соответствующей специальности и является составной частью учебно-методического комплекса по предмету «Лексикология английского языка».

Практикум ставит своей основной целью сформировать у студентов научное представление о словарном составе английского языка и его системности в современном состоянии путем изучения слова как основной единицы лексической системы языка.

Для достижения поставленной цели предполагается решить несколько задач:

- ознакомить студентов с общими закономерностями лексической системы английского языка на материале работ отечественных и зарубежных лингвистов;
- сформировать у студентов представление о системном характере лексической системы английского языка на основе учений о системности языка в целом;
- показать динамический характер языковой системы, то есть ознакомить студентов с особенностями функционирования слова и путями пополнения словарного состава английского языка;
- научить студентов самостоятельно анализировать эмпирический материал путем применения различных лингвистических методов исследования;
- расширить лингвистический кругозор студентов посредством изучения территориальной и диалектной дифференциации лексики на основе понятия литературной нормы.

Курс «Лексикология английского языка» общим объемом 54 часа изучается в течение одного семестра студентами III курса. На лекции отводится 22 часа, на семинарские занятия – 12 часов, на самостоятельную работу студентов – 20 часов. Изучение курса завершается дифференцированным зачетом.

В структуре изучаемого курса выделяются следующие основные темы: лексикология как лингвистическая дисциплина; общая характеристика словарного состава английского языка; структура слова; словообразовательная система современного английского языка; значение слова как лингвистическая категория; проблемы синонимии, антонимии, омонимии в английском языке; особенности сочетаемости лексических единиц; источники и процессы формирования сло-

варного состава английского языка; прикладная лексикология: лексикография, терминология; методы изучения лексики.

В данном практикуме представлены вопросы, которые подробно не рассматриваются на лекциях (прикладная лексикология: лексикография, терминология; лексика как система; особенности лексического состава английского языка, методология и методы лингвистического анализа; территориальные варианты и диалекты английского языка), а также дополнительный материал для самостоятельного изучения.

Планы семинарских занятий представляют собой список вопросов для обсуждения по определенной лексикологической проблеме и упражнения, выполнение которых необходимо для закрепления теоретического материала. Упражнения и иллюстративный материал подготовлены на основе данных современных учебников по лексикологии английского языка, словарей английского языка, лингвистических энциклопедических словарей, электронных носителей по соответствующей проблематике. Планы сопровождаются перечнем литературы, рекомендуемой для изучения.

Завершает публикацию список литературы, использованной для подготовки данного издания.

Особое место в освоении лексикологии английского языка занимает самостоятельная работа студентов, которая предполагает:

а) самостоятельное изучение учебной и научной литературы по предложенным лексикологическим вопросам с последующим обсуждением на семинарских занятиях;

б) подготовку докладов и сообщений по отдельным вопросам лексикологии, требующим более детального рассмотрения;

в) самостоятельное изучение дополнительного материала.

В связи с этим значительное место в практикуме отведено практическим материалам для самостоятельной работы студентов (тексты, упражнения, ключи к упражнениям), которые направлены на усвоение, углубление, закрепление и контроль теоретических знаний.

В результате изучения курса «Лексикология английского языка» студент должен иметь представление о лексикологии как о науке и основных ее разделах, владеть соответствующей терминологией, информацией о слове как основной единице лексической системы языка, знать закономерности и основные тенденции развития словарного состава английского языка, понимать национально-смысловую специфику слова, уметь пользоваться различными типами словарей, анализировать эмпирический материал, применяя соответствующие методы лингвистического анализа, и делать самостоятельные выводы из наблюдений над материалом. Все это будет способствовать более глубокому пониманию языковых процессов и эффективному продуцированию устной и письменной речи.

LIST OF SYMBOLS



– ISSUES FOR DISCUSSION



– RECOMMENDED LITERATURE



– EXERCISES



– TEXT FOR ADDITIONAL READING

INTRODUCTION

There is a large amount of evidence which shows that people believe words to have magic powers. This is most easily illustrated with those very special words, people's names. In the traditions of modern Ethiopia, the real name of a child is concealed in case the child is bewitched through the use of the name. It is believed that knowledge of the name gives power over the person who bears that name. Beliefs of this type are widespread throughout the world. In Borneo, for example, the name of a sickly child is traditionally changed so that the spirits tormenting it will be deceived and leave the child alone. The spirits, apparently, can recognise people only by their names, not through other characteristics. An extreme example was reported by the early explorers in the Marquesas Islands. There it was possible for two people to exchange names as a sign of mutual respect. But this exchange of names also involved an exchange of responsibilities: obligations with respect to the family, friends and even enemies went with the change of name. A man might even be expected to go to war because of the responsibility to his new name. In some cultures, the use of a particular name is an offence. In imperial China, for instance, it was a crime to use the name of a reigning emperor. This could provide problems when the emperor's name was also a common word. If this occurred in an English-speaking country today where the emperor's name was Bill, it would be illegal to talk about a bill from the electricity company, a bill before parliament or the bill of a bird. Similar prohibitions are found among the Zulus: there a woman is not allowed to utter the name of her husband or the names of his parents. However, this is not the whole story [17, 1].

Seminar 1. PROBLEMS OF ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

(2 hrs)

TERMINOLOGY

Lexicography – a branch of applied linguistics, theory and practice of writing dictionaries.

Dictionary – 1. A book that contains a list of words in alphabetical order with their meanings explained or written in another language, or a similar product for use on a computer (*a French-English/English-French dictionary*); 2. A book which gives information about a particular subject, in which the entries are given in alphabetical order (*a science dictionary; a dictionary of quotations*); 3. A list of words in electronic form, for example, stored in a computer's spellchecker.

Diachronic dictionary – the dictionary which registers chronological development of a word over time.

Synchronistic dictionary – the dictionary which is concerned with the present-day meaning and use of words.

Nonce-word – a word invented for a particular occasion or situation.



1. Find out the definitions for the terms:

Lexicographer, dictionary-maker, compiler; vocabulary, glossary, concordance, thesaurus, entry, head-word, dictionary-entry; addendum, appendix (addenda, appendices), obsolete words, etymology; AS=OE, fr. pr, ON, obs., Teut=Germ; diacritical marks; frequency index (indices); illustrative quotations; unilingual/bilingual dictionary; translation dictionary, explanatory dictionary; historical dictionary, descriptive dictionary.

2. Give the main facts of the history of English lexicography.
3. Dwell on the main problems of modern lexicography.

4. What is the difference between the major types of reference books, such as a dictionary and an encyclopedia?

5. Discuss the fundamental principles which make learner's dictionaries different from all other.

6. What are the essential features of a new generation of "computer-corpus based" dictionaries? What are the advantages of archives of speech events called *corpora* in dictionary making?

7. What is the difference between terms and words of the general language? How can terms be singled out on the basis of dictionary definitions?

8. How are international terms different from those based on a national language?



1. Arnold, I.V. The English Word / I.V. Arnold. – M., 1986(1973). – Chapter XV. – P. 257 – 273.

2. Ginsburg, R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R.S. Ginsburg. – M., 1979. – Chapter IX. – P. 210 – 235.

3. Lescheva, L.M. Words in English: A Course in Modern English Lexicology / L.M. Lescheva. – Minsk, 2001. – Chapter 9. – P.136 – 154.

4. Гвишиани, Н.Б Современный английский язык. Лексикология / Н.Б. Гвишиани. – М., 2000. – С. 173 – 203.



1. Compare the entries for the following words in an encyclopedic dictionary and a linguistic dictionary. How different is the information you can find in each type of dictionary.
Eye, colour, light.

2. Find out as much as you can from whatever sources you have available, about one or more of the following words:
aga-saga, mickle, presenteeism, stakeholder, waif.

3. Examine the entries for the following words in 2-3 dictionaries of different types.

Height, nucleus, subjective.

How many numbered meanings does each dictionary identify?

In what way does the structure of the entry depend on the type of dictionary?

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

Coach (bus, give training)
cobble (stone for paving, mend shoes)
fence (round a field, sport activity using a sword)
mount (ascend, mountain)
rook (bird, chess piece)
stable (firmly fixed, place for horses)
table (piece of furniture, table of figures)
whim (fancy, machine used in mining).

5. Find the following idioms in a dictionary. Which headword are they under? Are they cross-referenced from the entries for any of the other words in the idiom?

*Fly in the ointment, fly off the handle,
turn in one's grave, turn over a new leaf,
spill the beans, full of beans.*

What additional information is given about the above idioms?

6. Find the definitions for the word aspect in different systems of terminology.

Interesting Facts

Before computerized corpora became available, dictionary editors used the approach pioneered by Dr. Johnson in the 18th century, basing their description of the language on large collections of citations (= short extracts from texts), collected by readers and showing a particular word or phrase in context.

Seminar 2. GENETIC COMPOSITION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY (2 hrs)



1. Define the following terms:
semantic extension, narrowing of meaning; a loan word, etymological doublets, loan translations (calques), semantic loan, hybrid, folk etymology, source of borrowings, origin of the word; phonetic assimilation, grammatical assimilation, lexical assimilation.

2. Speak about:

- Native words in the English word-stock.
- Foreign elements in the English word-stock.
- Sources of borrowings and stages of the borrowing process.
- Latin, Greek, Scandinavian, French, Portuguese, Spanish, Italian, Russian loan words.
- Assimilation of borrowings.
- Internationalisms and their sources.



1. Arnold, I.V. The English Word / I.V. Arnold. – M., 1986 (1973). – Chapter XIV: Native words versus loan words.

2. Ginsburg, R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R.S. Ginsburg. – M., 1979. – Chapter VI: Etymological survey of the English Word Stock. – P. 160 – 175.

3. Pyles, Th. The Origins and Development of the English Language / Th. Pyles, J. Algeo. – L., 1982. – Chapter 12. – P. 292 – 316.

4. Расторгуева, Т.А. История английского языка / Т.А. Расторгуева. – М., 2001. – С. 296 – 328 (Development of English vocabulary from the 12th to the 19th century).

5. Расторгуева, Т.А. Курс лекций по истории английского языка / Т.А. Расторгуева. – М., 1972. – С. 130 – 150.



7. The word JUNK was originally a sailor's word meaning 'OLD ROPE', now it means 'RUBBISH, USELESS STUFF' - this is an example of EXTENSION OF MEANING. The word MEAT originally meant 'FOOD', now it means 'ONE SPECIAL TYPE OF FOOD' - this is an example of NARROWING OF MEANING.

Consult the dictionaries and establish what kind of semantic change was involved in the development of the words:

1) *to starve* (originally meant 'to die'); 2) *gambit* (chess: 'an opening in which White offers a pawn-sacrifice'); 3) *to discipline* (originally 'provide discipline, train, control'); 4) *to refute* (originally 'disprove, confute'); 5) *bird* (originally 'a young bird'); 6) *fowl* (originally 'bird'); 7) *deer* (originally 'beast, animal').

2. What meanings of the verb stand do you know?

Translate the following into Russian:

1. Will he stand us a champagne?
2. She stood us a good dinner.
3. Who is going to stand the treat?
4. I can't stand the man.
5. He couldn't stand the heat.
6. We stand a poor chance of winning.
7. Who stands to win?
8. What do we stand to gain by it?
9. I stand corrected.
10. What I said yesterday still stands.

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

Бизнесмен, битник, бутсы, бульдозер, кемпинг, круиз, мо-
касины, мотель, сервис, стриптиз, хепенинг, хеппи-энд,
хиппи, хипстер, хобби.

4. Using a dictionary compare the meaning of the following pairs of words and explain why they are called 'etymological doublets'.

Abridge – abbreviate, artist – artiste, captain – chieftain, card – chart, cavalry – chivalry, catch – chase, corps – corpse, egg – edge, gage – wage, hotel – hospital, hale – whole, liquor – liqueur, of – off, pauper – poor, raise – rear, senior – sir, scar – share, skirt – shirt, shade – shadow, whit – wight; kirk – church, nay – no, skin – hide, sky – heaven; warden – guardian, chair – cathedral, camera – chamber.

5. What do you think is the difference between the words in the following pairs:

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

Insert the stylistically correct word from the list above into the following sentences:

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

6. Give adjectives of Latin origin corresponding to the following nouns:

cat, dog, ear, egg, eye, father, hair, life, mouth, nose, sea, side, sight, son, star, sun, time, town, uncle, youth.



Seminar 3. METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF LEXICOLOGICAL ANALYSIS (2 hrs)



1. The Background of Modern Lexicological Research.
2. The Stages of Investigation (observation, classification, generalisation, prediction, verification).
3. The Methods and Procedures of Analysis:
 - 3.1. Contrastive analysis.
 - 3.2. Statistical and quantitative methods of analysis.
 - 3.3. Immediate Constituents analysis.
 - 3.4. Distributional analysis and cooccurrence patterning.
 - 3.5. Transformational analysis.
 - 3.6. Componental analysis.
 - 3.7. Semantic differential techniques.



1. Arnold, I.V. The English Word / I.V. Arnold. – M., 1986 (1973). – Chapter XVI: Methods of Lexicological Research. – P. 274 – 290.
2. Ginsburg, R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R.S. Ginsburg. – M., 1979. – Chapter X. – P. 234 – 261.
3. Токарева, И.И. Принципы и методы исследования языка / И.И. Токарева. – Минск, 2004.



1. Translate the sentences. Comment on the structure and way of formation of the words in bold type. Enumerate the structural

types of English words known to you and productive ways of words formation.

1. Where am I going? To the same **nowhere**? Worse. I'm not even going ... I'm there. 2. Her evidence **alibied** him. 3. Here for the first time I heard a definite regional accent unaffected by **TV-ese**. 4. What do I do about a kid who calls me "Hi, **teach**?" "Nothing, maybe he calls you "Hi, teach" because he likes you. Why not answer "Hi, **pupe**"? 5. The earth is **pear-shaped**. 6. Thousands of communities have **mushroomed** around airports. 7. There is a **stowaway** on the flight. 8. He rented a **drive-yourself** car. 9. This was an **Incident-packed** game. 10. Give the windows double glazing to **soundproof** them. 11. She has the **close-to-the-door-when-there's-anything-interesting-going-on** technique very highly developed. 12. Scots prepare a big **demo** on rents.

2. Use explanatory and translation dictionaries to compare the semantic structure of the following words in different languages. Which of the meanings are the same and which are different.

Car – машина, sweet – сладкий, red – красный, clock – часы, dinner – обед, stage – сцена, high – высокий, blow – удар, land – земля, letter – письмо, glass – стекло, ticket – билет.

3. Analyze the meaning of the italicized word in different contexts.

How many meanings of one word can you identify?

I. 1) He bought a *chair* at the furniture store. 2) He was condemned to the (electric) *chair*. 3) Please address the *chair*. 4) He will *chair* the meeting. 5) He was appointed to the *chair* of philosophy at the university.

II. 1) The horse *runs*. 2) The man *runs*. 3) The water *runs*. 4) The tap *runs*. 5) His nose *runs*. 6) The motor *runs*. 7) The vine *runs* over the door. 8) He *ran* his horse in the last race. 9) She *ran* the water into the tub. 10) He *ran* his business well.

4. Analyse the meaning of the following word combinations. How is it affected by the order of the elements?

Business district – district business, boat deck – deck boat, deck lounge – lounge deck, laboratory research – research laboratory, flower garden – garden flower, child problem – problem child, horse race – race horse, life boat – boat life, pet shop – shop pet, water tap – tap water.

5. Analyse the meaning of the following word combinations. Prove that the meaning of the first element is different in the two combinations. Why?

Operating table – operating surgeon, climbing equipment – climbing tourists, laughing eyes – laughing gas, sleeping children – sleeping pills, reading lamp – reading public, writing clerks – writing implements, dancing girl – dancing hall, walking shoes – walking man, swimming pool – swimming boy.

6. Analyse the double meanings (ambiguity) of the following sentences.

I once shot an elephant in my pajamas.

Yoko Ono will talk about her husband John Lennon who was killed in an interview with Barbara Walters.

Two cars were reported stolen by the Groveton police yesterday.

The license fee for altered dogs with a certificate will be \$3 and for pets owned by senior citizens who have not been altered the fee will be \$1.50.

We will sell gasoline to anyone in a glass container.

New Housing for Elderly Not Yet Dead

12 on Their Way to Cruise Among Dead in Plane Crash

N.J. Judge to Rule on Nude Beach

Hershey Bars Protest

Reagan Wins on Budget, But More Lies Ahead.

Complaints About NBA Referees Growing Ugly.

7. Use the method of componental analysis to analyse the semantic structure of the following words from the lexical group 'furniture'. Think of the function for each piece, its shape, size, which rooms and other things they are associated with (for example, food, entertainment).

Chair, sofa, couch, table, dresser, coffee table, rocker, desk, bed, bureau, night table, chest, bookcase, cabinet, closet, bench, buffet, lamp, stool, drawers, piano, cushion, magazine rack, hi-fi, cupboard, stereo, mirror, television, shelf, rug, pillow, wastebasket, radio, sewing machine, stove, clock, drapes, refrigerator, picture, closet, vase, ashtray, fan, telephone.

Seminar 4 & 5. TERRITORIAL VARIANTS AND DIALECTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (4 hrs)



- I.** The main territorial variants of the English language around the world.
1. General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world.
 2. American English: lexical differences between the British and American variants against the historical background.
- II.** Local varieties of the English Language.
1. The features of local dialects in the British Isles.
 2. The features of local dialects in the USA.
- III.** See whether you can answer the following questions:
1. In what countries is English the national and official language?
 2. What is the difference between a territorial variant and a local dialect of a language?
 3. Why can't we call American English a separate language?
 4. What are the reasons for the existing divergences in the vocabulary of British and American English?
 5. Into what groups can the existing cases of lexical difference between the two variants be classified?
 6. What tendency do lexical differences between British and American English show?
 7. What dialects and regional variants are observed in the British Isles? What is their nature? What tendencies do they show?



1. Arnold, I.V. The English Word / I.V. Arnold. – M., 1986 (1973). – Chapter XIII. – P. 236 – 247.

2. Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary. – L., 1987. – 1704 p.
3. Ginsburg, R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R.S. Ginsburg. – M., 1979. – P. 200 – 209.
4. Lescheva, L.M. Words in English / L.M. Lescheva. – Minsk, 2001. – Chapter 8. – P. 123 – 136.
5. McCrum, R. The Story of English / R. McCrum, W. Cran, R. MacNeil. – L., 1992 (2002). – 440 p.
6. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by A.S.Hornby. – Oxford, 2000 (1989).
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8. Varieties of English / ed. by A.P. Klimenko, I.I. Tokareva. – Minsk, 2002. – P. 55 – 133.
9. Швейцер, А.Д. Очерк современного английского языка в США / А.Д. Швейцер. – М., 1963. – С. 7 – 12, 84 – 89.



PART I

1. Analyse the structure of the following American words, and decide what are the most productive morphological means in American English.

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

2. Many words were borrowed by the first American settlers from other languages. Analyse the origin of the following words and decide what languages they were borrowed from. Comment on the nature of the language contacts.

Cookie, hickory, ranch, squash,
nosh, banjo, canoe, coyote,
mustang, chowder, mazel tof,
wigwam, war-path, tobacco,

canyon, prairie, Ohio, caboose,
buffalo, gopher, jazz, rodeo,
kitsch, cafeteria, Yankee, Kentucky,
Louisiana, raccoon, bagel.

3. Give the English spelling for the following words and point out the main cases of difference between the English and American spelling:

amphitheater; anemia, anes-
thesia, analyze, anapest, cali-
ber; catalog, center; check,
color; councilor; counselor;
defense, favor, favorite, flutist,

genecology, habor; honor;
jeweler; labor; license, luster;
mold, odor, offense, quarreled,
tire, traveling, vapor; vigor;
woolen.

4. Analyse the meaning of the following words in Br E and Am E and point out the words:

a) which have other word-equivalents in British English; explain their meanings;

b) the meaning of which in American English is entirely different from that in British English;

c) the general meaning of which is the same in both American and British English, but which have acquired an additional specific meaning in American English:

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

5. Listen to the recording and compare the pronunciation of the following sounds and sound combinations in Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA):

Sounds	RP	GA
rounded / unrounded [o] in o'clock, stopped, vodka		
rhotic / non-rhotic pronunciation work, earth, tremor, later, are, started, horse		
link [r] after I'd had, a quarter of an hour		
intrusive [r] a double vodka or two		
differentiation of the centering diphthongs in experience, steering, air, fury, during		
strong vs weak suffix vowels in momentary, hostile		
[ɑ:] vs [æ] in bath, after, past, vast, ask, calm, gas		
vowels in thought, north, awesome, horse, force		
[ou] in local, momentary		
smoothing in two o'clock, diabolical		
[j] in new, during, supernatural		
[t] tapping unforgettable, quarter, later, sitting, waiting, started		

PART II

TASKS AND QUESTIONS to do while watching THE VIDEOFILM "THE STORY OF ENGLISH"

PART 7: THE MUVVER TONGUE

Section 1

1. What kind of English is the program concentrating on? _____
2. What is the origin of the word Cockney? _____

3. List some of the characteristics of Cockney _____

4. What do the following Cockney terms mean?

a) trouble and strife _____ b) tomato-Job _____

c) rabbit and pork _____ d) yob _____ e) taf _____

5. What has Cockney been influenced by? _____

Examples: _____

6. Who used Cockney up to 1750 and what happened to it afterwards? _____

7. What do the following details taken from Henry Meachin's diary tell us?

"alff a hundred in red and wyht" _____ "frust be-tweyn the rybes" _____ "chynes about their nekes" _____

8. What happened after the publication of Samuel Johnson's dictionary? _____

9. Dr. John Wells explains that new pronunciations in the English language often arise in Cockney. What stages do these 'new pronunciations' go through? _____

10. Complete the following cloze passage taken from the video film:

Up to the eighteenth century, up to, say, about 1750, _____ was the speech of anybody and everybody in the city of _____ but the second half of the 18th century was an _____ of great social change. Because it was an age of change you had a new _____ class who wanted a new way to _____ themselves. The way they picked on was _____. If you spoke properly, if you had a good grammar, enounced words in a _____ way then you marked yourself as a _____ of the upper class. Until the 18th century, there was virtually no formal guidance about the proper _____ and _____ of English. The language was in such a state of _____ that writers like Jonathan Swift proposed an academy to _____ it. It was not until Samuel Johnson started work on his _____ in this house that what we now know as _____ standard English began to emerge. Before Dr. Johnson, _____ like Jonathan Swift had

warned that English was being _____ as they put it by change. Johnson, a man who raised common sense to the heights genius, scorned the idea of _____ in language. To believe in that he said was to believe the _____ of eternal life. Yet paradoxically the work that was done in this house gave the language its first _____ authority and it's an important _____ in the history of English. The two volumes of Johnson's dictionary linked spoken English to a _____ standard. Now the educated middle-class learnt to _____ like the dictionary and scorned the _____ Cockneys who did not. The dictionary's 40,000 _____ provide the basis of standard English and its influence has _____ to this day.

Section 2

1. What percentage of original Australians were Cockney? _____

2. Which of the following words were 'borrowed' and which 'adopted'?

coolabahs tree _____ wallaby _____ budgerigar
_____ boomerang _____ wombat _____ billa-
bong _____ kangaroo _____

3. Some words which are thought of as being Australian English, in fact, originate elsewhere. Where do the following words originate and what do they mean?

a) cobber _____

b) wowser _____

c) billy _____

d) corker _____

4. How is Australian English described? _____

5. Australian English belongs to a family of English languages. What are the other members and why are they called so? _____

6. What differences are there between Cockney and Australian? _____

7. What unique step did the company "MOJO" take? _____

8. How is confidence in Australian cultural identity shown? _____

9. How, according to one Australian writer, might Australian and American English be compared? _____

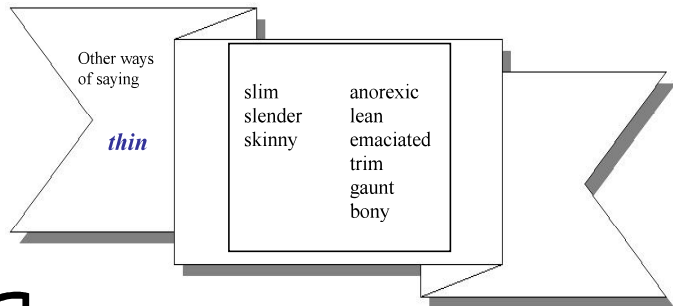
10. What does the Australian expression "A kangaroo loose in the top paddock" mean? _____



Seminar 5. THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM (2 hrs)



1. Different types of word grouping.
 - 1.1. Part-of-speech (lexical-grammatical) classification.
 - 1.2. Contextual classification.
 - 1.3. Logical classification.
 - 1.4. Classification by semantic nuclei.
 - 1.5. Root-synonymy.
2. The theory of semantic field.
3. Lexical sets. The difference for different languages in the lexical sets covering certain semantic fields. The idea of 'same' or 'different'; the concept of 'meaning equivalence'.
4. The three main stylistic layers of the English vocabulary: neutral, literary-bookish, colloquial (literary colloquial, non-literary-colloquial).
5. Synonymy and synonymic series. Ideographic and stylistic synonyms.
6. Antonyms.



1. Arnold, I.V. The English Word / I.V. Arnold. – M., 1986 (1973). – Chapter X: English Vocabulary as a System. – P. 199 – 219; Chapter IX: Synonyms and Antonyms. – P. 177 – 198.

2. Ginsburg, R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R.S. Ginsburg. – M., 1979. Meaning Relations in Paradigmatics and Semantic. Classification of Words. – P. 51 – 62.

3. Readings in Modern English Lexicology. – L., 1969. – P. 16 – 20.



1. Define the following terms and concepts:

parts of speech, context, semantic field, lexical sets, synonymy, types of synonyms (ideographic, stylistic synonyms), antonymy, types of antonyms.

2. Following is a list of nouns. Classify them into subgroups, proceeding from the assumption that this part of speech can be further subdivided into the name of an object, the name of an action (momentary single action, action viewed as a process, etc.), the name of the doer of an action, etc.

These nouns can also be subdivided into a) concrete nouns and b) abstract nouns: or accountable nouns and b) uncountable nouns. Classify them into such groups as well.

Abbey, alteration, ace, back, blame, bureau, circus, confession, cream, cut, day, division, dive, docker, fortune, gipsy, giggling, hurry, jump, knocker, laughter, maker, monument, person, process, run, satisfaction, shape, table, writer.

3. Read pages 16-20 from St. Ullmann's book "Language and Style" // Readings in Modern English Lexicology. – L., 1969 and answer the following questions:

1. Why is the described organisation of the vocabulary considered doubtful? 2. It is fundamentally wrong to consider words in isolation. Why? 3. How would you call the three types of groups discussed by the author?

4. Classify the following words into logical groups, comprising the general and the particular, i. e. based on the 'genus-proximum-differentia-specifica' principle:

animal, asparagus, beet, building, bull, bungalow, bush, cabbage, carrot, cat, cottage, dog, fiction, flower, football, grass, horse, mansion, novel, onion, plant, polo, short story, sport, story, swimming, tennis, tree, vegetable, villa.

5. Arrange the following units into three lexical sets: feelings, parts of the body, education:

academy, affection, arm, back, belly, body, bone, book, brow, calf, calmness, cheek, chest, classes, classmate, coaching, college, contempt, contentment, correspondence, course, curriculum, day-student, delight, don, drill, ear, education, elbow, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, envy, erudition, excitement, exercise, exhilaration, eye, face, faculty, finger, foot, forehead, frustration, grammar, hair, happiness, hate, head, headmaster, heel, homework, ignorance, impa-

tience, indifference, indignation, instruction, jealousy, joint, kindness, knee, knowledge, knuckle, learning, lecturer, leg, lesson, library, limb, love, malice, master, neck, nose, passion, pedagogy, primer, professor, rapture, reader, relief, restlessness, satisfaction, scholar, schoolboy, schooling, science, scientist, sympathy, teacher, teaching, staff, temple, tenderness, textbook, thigh, thrill, thumb, toe, torso, training, tuition, tutor, undergraduate, university, unrest, waist, wrath.

Using dictionaries add more words to the lexical sets formed from the words given above.

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

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

ailing, arrogant, battle, begin, behold, bicker, brawl, bright, callous, clever, commence, conflict, conquest, consume, cruel, defeat, devour, diseased, dispiteous, dumb, easy, eat, engorge, facile, fatuous, fight, food, grub,

hard-boiled, haughty, high-hat, hoity-toity, horse, ill, inept, ingest, intelligent, light, obduracy, pace, proud, quarrel, sagacious, see, shrewd, snobbish, snooty, squabble, steed, stride, stroll, stupid, supercilious, tiff, walk.

7. With the help of dictionaries explain the meaning of each member of the synonymic series given below:

bystander – spectator – looker-on; cry – weep – shed tears – sob – snivel – wail – whimper; distinguished – illustrious – famous – noted – eminent – celebrated.

8. Find antonyms to the following words:

add, asleep, correct, despair, different, esteem, exclude, handsome, high, mount, profound, reject, scarce, truth, weak.



LIST OF QUESTIONS FOR THE PRELIMINARY

1. Lexicology as a linguistic subject: the subject of lexicology studies and its connection with other disciplines; word as a speech unit; general problems of the theory of the word.
2. Motivation of a word: the definition of motivation and its types; theories of word meaning; types of lexical meanings; changes of meanings.
3. Polysemy in English. Homonymy and paronymy: semantic structure of a polysemantic word; homonymy as a semantic word variation and a decline of polysemy; paronymy as a particular case of homophony.
4. Context and its role in word-meaning realization: function of context; types of linguistic contexts.
5. Free word-combinations and phraseological units: classification of idioms and their difference from free word combinations.
6. The structure of a word and word-building processes: types of morphemes; morphological structure of a word; word-building patterns of the English word; conversion, word-compounding; affixation; shortening; the "stone-wall" problem and the "make-up" problem.
7. Ways of vocabulary enrichment: borrowings and their sources; neologisms and occasionalisms; ways of creating neologisms: phonological, semantic, syntactical or morphological neologisms.
8. The system of English vocabulary: general characteristics of the English word-stock; principles of words classification; different kinds of word groupings; semantic relationships between the members of the group; relationships of equivalence (synonymy) and their types; relationships of contrast (antonymy); their sources. Relationships of inclusion (hyponymy, meronymy); euphemisms.



MATERIALS FOR SELF-STUDY

Unit 1. DICTIONARIES



Writing dictionary definitions is a highly skilled task. The definitions have to be accurate, comparable with definitions of other related words in the dictionary, they must avoid circularity (if the definition of word *x* uses word *y*, the definition of *y* must not presuppose that you understand *x*), and above all, they must be understandable. It frequently seems that some of these requirements are mutually incompatible, but the good lexicographer (or dictionary-writer) pays attention to all of them.



Exercise 1. Write a definition of a word such as *chair* or *table* as if for a dictionary. Do not look it up in any dictionary before you begin! If possible, have someone else criticise your definition by asking questions such as “Would this definition fit a stool, a sofa, a bench etc.?” If your definition becomes more than a couple of lines long, try to shorten it while keeping it accurate and comprehensible.

Exercise 2. Below are listed the definitions from *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* (9th edition) for the following words: *crabby*, *gloomy*, *glum*, *morose*, *sulky*, *sullen*, *surlly*. Which definition belongs to which word? What is your conclusion about the definitions given?

- bad-tempered and unfriendly; churlish;
- depressed; sullen;
- irritable, morose;
- looking or feeling dejected, sullen; morose;
- morose, resentful, sulky, unforgiving, unsociable;
- sullen and ill-tempered;
- sullen, morose or silent, esp. from resentment or ill temper.

Finding an idiom or a phrase

1. Decide which is the keyword in the idiomatic expression. Usually this word is a noun or verb, sometimes an adjective or adverb.
2. Look up the keyword in the dictionary to see if the idiom is there. If not, try one of the other words.
3. Idioms are given after the definitions of different senses of the word.

Unit 2. BORROWINGS. WHERE WORDS COME FROM



When one language takes a word from another one, it is usually said to **BORROW** the word, and the word is called a **LOAN-WORD**. The terms are actually very inappropriate in this context. If you borrow a pen from someone, then that pen starts off as being their property and goes back to being their property when you have finished with it, with you having control of it in the meantime. If French borrows the word tennis from English, English still keeps the word and French will probably never 'give it back'.

In most cases, speakers do not object to having their words borrowed. However, in some colonial situations speakers of the colonised language find the term 'borrowing' offensive when their words are taken into the colonising language because it seems to imply co-operation on the part of the lender; in other cases this seems to cause no problem for either party. But despite the problems associated with the term, no alternatives are generally accepted, and we must retain 'borrowing' and 'loan-word'. Some language communities, such as Iceland and France, make positive attempts not to borrow words from outside, this sometimes being seen as demeaning to the borrowing language. Other communities are much more relaxed about this.

Two kinds of borrowing can be distinguished, although the two categories frequently overlap. The first is the kind of borrowing that takes place when the borrowing of the word ac-

companies the borrowing of the item that it denotes. In these cases the word is almost always borrowed from the language of the area where the item is usually found. Clear examples are provided by words for foods and wild life that have been borrowed into English.

Sometimes people borrow words for reasons of prestige. In these cases it might fairly be claimed that there is no real need for the borrowed word or phrase. In such cases the use of the borrowed word may tell us more about the speaker or writer than about the state of the language. Words and phrases in this category are sometimes (though not always) used consciously to impress or to display learning. These are words like *soupgon* (French) instead of hint or suspicion, *inter alia* (Latin) instead of among other things, *ipso facto* (Latin) instead of by that very fact, *ça ne fait rien* (occasionally *son fairy ann* as a representation of the English pronunciation) (French) instead of it doesn't matter, *mahana* (Spanish) instead of it will get done eventually. In some cases sayings or proverbs are borrowed, as with *che sard sard*, *Kinder Kirche Küche*, *liberte egalite fraternite* (respectively, Italian: 'what will be will be'; German: 'children, church, kitchen' (the supposed role of women); and French: 'freedom, equality, brotherhood'). For people who speak the source languages, some of these expressions undoubtedly express cultural values as well as their purely linguistic content, and are thus felt to be more effective than their English translations. This point is not necessarily true for all the people who use these words and phrases, though.

The next, very important, group of loan-words is those that have come from French. Some of these, like *castle*, came into English before the Norman conquest, but many were introduced in the years after the Norman conquest when all the lords and priests spoke French. Not surprisingly, they brought with them words for government and religion, and also for fine food and wealth. English continues to borrow words from French today, but among the loans from this early period are *battle*, *biscuit*, *dinner*, *emerald*, *evidence*, *hermit*, *judge*, *miracle*, *parliament*, *plaintiff*, *prayer*, *realm*, *siege*, *tax*, and literally hundreds of others. There are so many French words in English that it sometimes seems that English must be more closely related to French than to German, but just the opposite is the case, as becomes clear when we look at structures and not just vocabulary [17, 14-15].



Exercise 1. Consider each of the marked words in the passages below. They are all loan-words in origin. Can you guess which ones come from French and which ones come from Scandinavian?

Parish priests, who were now allowed to *marry*, were to be elected by their congregations unless the living was in the *gift* of a noble.

(Oakley, Stewart. *The Story of Denmark* . P. 101).

Foreign *artisans* and entrepreneurs were encouraged to settle in Denmark, in particular artisans possessing new *skills*.

(*Ibidem*, p. 110).

Exercise 2. Can you guess where each of the words listed below has been borrowed from?

Words borrowed	Source language
<i>barbecue</i>	
<i>bouillabaisse</i>	
<i>chocolate</i>	
<i>curry</i>	
<i>frankfurter</i>	
<i>molasses</i>	
<i>moussaka</i>	
<i>paella</i>	
<i>smorgasbord</i>	
<i>spaghetti</i>	
<i>tea</i>	
<i>tomato</i>	
<i>coyote</i>	
<i>gnu</i>	
<i>jackal</i>	
<i>jaguar</i>	
<i>kangaroo</i>	
<i>kīwi</i>	
<i>macaw</i>	
<i>mammoth</i>	
<i>merino</i>	
<i>orangutan</i>	
<i>springbok</i>	



ETYMOLOGY is the study of the origins of words. We have already seen that we can borrow words from various places or create our own from English. With passing time, the origins of these words can become obscure. For instance, you could not guess by looking at it that the word *lord* was originally a compound word made up of the elements corresponding to modern English *loaf-ward* and meaning 'bread keeper' or that the word *lady* was originally a compound word made up of elements corresponding to *loaf-kneader*. Nor could we guess from the current form of the word that *pantry* has its origins in an Old French word meaning 'place for keeping bread'.

To discover these things, we have to consider when words first appeared in English, the ways in which words were used in earlier periods of English and the ways they were spelled. We also have to look at the words in languages from which the English might have been borrowed, or in which something which was originally the same word might have developed along similar lines. In these ways we find out about two different things: the way in which words have developed in English, and the ways in which cognates have developed in related languages, *COGNATES* are words in different languages which share a common origin. English *bread*, Danish *brød*, Dutch *brood* and German *Brot* are cognates from four languages. In this case, they all mean 'bread' [17, 50].



Exercise 3. *Look up the word **loo** in a dictionary which provides etymological information. Compare the amount of information you are given there with the discussion above. What do you learn about dictionary etymologies?*

In cases like this - and also in cases where the etymology is clear to the specialist, it must be said - it is frequently true that stories about the origins of words gain currency in the community. Frequently these stories are demonstrably false,

yet people are sure that they know the etymology of the word in question. A case is the etymology of the word sirloin, which is commonly believed to have been so noble a cut of beef that it was knighted by a king. In fact, the sir- part is a misspelling for French sur, and it means 'the part above the loin'.

In other instances there may not be the same picturesque stories about the origins of words, but false beliefs about their structure is FOLK ETYMOLOGY. Some examples will make the point. Asparagus has a dialectal form sparrow grass, where the unfamiliar and opaque structure of the original has been given a (false) meaning. Similarly, the word cockroach comes from the Spanish cucaracha, and has no connection with either cocks or roaches [17, 54].

Exercise 4. *Each of the following words has a form due to folk etymology, what is the real origin of the word? Hans-nail, humble pie, terrapin, Welsh rarebit, woodchuck.*

If we know enough about the etymology of a word, we can frequently find it changing its meaning several times. The word silly is cognate with Danish salig and German selig, both of which mean 'happy' though the Danish is more likely to mean happy for religious reasons, and the German may mean happy because of drunkenness. In English it meant 'deserving of pity' in the fifteenth century, 'ignorant' in the sixteenth century and then developed to mean 'foolish', as it does today.

Exercise 5. *Can you guess by looking carefully at the words what awful, terrific and wonderful once meant?*

Unit 3. VOCABULARY STATISTICS



How many words do you know? How many words did Shakespeare know? How many words are there in English, and how fast are we getting new ones?

These look like straightforward questions. When you realise that estimates of how many words an individual is likely to know vary between 3,000 and 216,000, it becomes clear that get-

ting a satisfactory answer is not as straightforward as you might think. We need to think about why we should get such widely differing answers. Let's start with some of Shakespeare's words.



Look at the passage below, and decide how many words Shakespeare used to write this passage from *The Tempest* (V.i.88).

*Where the bee sucks, there suck I
In a cowslip's bell I lie [17, 7].*

Exercise 1. How many words do you think there are in this couplet?

You probably said that there are thirteen words in these two lines of Shakespeare's. However, you might have been a bit more precise and said that there are only twelve different words, because the word I occurs twice. But now think about the words *suck* and *sucks*. Do you want to say that because Shakespeare wrote these two different forms, it proves he knew two words? Or would you rather say that *suck* and *sucks* are, in some sense, the same word?

The difficulty here is a terminological one. It seems contradictory to say both '*suck* and *sucks* are two different words' and '*suck* and *sucks* are the same word'. The apparent contradiction arises because we are using the word 'word' in two different ways. With a bit of technical jargon we can solve the problem. We can say that *suck* and *sucks* are two different WORD-FORMS representing just one LEXEME. *SUCKING* and *SUCKED* are other word-forms which also stand for the lexeme *SUCK*.

Exercise 2. Read through the list of words below, putting a tick next to words you know (words you could give a meaning for) and a question mark next to words you are not sure about. When you've been through the list, go back and check the words you have marked with a question mark, to see if you can change them to ticks. Look at the five words with the highest numbers that you have ticked. Provide a synonym or definition of those five words, or show you know their meanings in some other way. Then check those meanings in a dictionary. (NB: You will need a very big dictionary for some of these words, or you may have to check in several dictionaries!) If you get more than one wrong, you need to go backwards through the list, repeating the procedure, until you can explain correctly four out of the five highest-numbered words with ticks. Count the words from the list that you have ticked up to the last correct tick, and multiply that number by 500.

1.	<i>as</i>	18.	<i>abruption</i>	35.	<i>boost</i>
2.	<i>dog</i>	19.	<i>kohl</i>	36.	<i>commissary</i>
3.	<i>editor</i>	20.	<i>oesophagus</i>	37.	<i>gentian</i>
4.	<i>shake</i>	21.	<i>aviary</i>	38.	<i>lotus</i>
5.	<i>pony</i>	22.	<i>chasuble</i>	39.	<i>squeamish</i>
6.	<i>immense</i>	23.	<i>ferrule</i>	40.	<i>waffle</i>
7.	<i>butler</i>	24.	<i>liven</i>	41.	<i>cupreous</i>
8.	<i>mare</i>	25.	<i>parallelogram</i>	42.	<i>cutability</i>
9.	<i>denounce</i>	26.	<i>pukka</i>	43.	<i>refuge</i>
10.	<i>borough</i>	27.	<i>amice</i>	44.	<i>lifemanship</i>
11.	<i>comeuppance</i>	28.	<i>chiton</i>	45.	<i>atropia</i>
12.	<i>downer</i>	29.	<i>roughy</i>	46.	<i>sporophore</i>
13.	<i>geisha</i>	30.	<i>barf</i>	47.	<i>hypomagnesia</i>
14.	<i>logistics</i>	31.	<i>abstract</i>	48.	<i>cow sucker</i>
15.	<i>panache</i>	32.	<i>eccentric</i>	49.	<i>oleaginous</i>
16.	<i>setout</i>	33.	<i>receptacle</i>	50.	<i>migrationist</i>
17.	<i>abdomen</i>	34.	<i>armadillo</i>		

The number you get when you try exercise 3.2 will give you an estimate of the size of your vocabulary in line with the latest theoretical positions. But be careful with the figure! Do not try to compare your figure derived from this test with that provided by other people by other means. The number this test provides will be much lower than numbers provided by many other ways of estimating vocabulary size. Remember, too, that ideally you should do several such tests, and take an average of the results. And above all, remember that this test, like others, makes its own judgements about the kinds of question we have raised earlier.

Note that this test assumes that whoever you are, you will not have a vocabulary of more than 25,000 words. Only the most widely-read people will have a vocabulary even approaching that. If you ever get that far, you are unlikely to get there before your twenties, let's say twenty-two at the earliest. At the age of one and a half, the chances are that you knew under 300 words. A little arithmetic will tell you how many words you have to learn per year to achieve that total, and you can work out what that means in terms of words day. To make the arithmetic simple, say that at one and a half you know 300 words, and at twenty-one and a half

you know 20,300. That means 1,000 words per year, or three words a day on average. But you will not actually learn them at that average speed. For many years you will learn fewer than that average, and between the ages of eleven and eighteen you will learn more than that average. High school is all about learning words! [17, 10].

Exercise 3 The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDCE), a dictionary written for people whose first language is not English, uses a set of 2,000 words to explain the words it lists. Sometimes it has to use a harder word, but it always marks such words so you can see what they are. This shows that you can write a large amount using just 2,000 words. In fact, it seems that if you know that many words, you can understand most of what you read except in the most difficult texts. Although the answer you get will depend on how you count words, it seems that knowing 2,000 words is likely to let you understand about 80 per cent of most texts. Knowing just 1,000 words will let you understand about 70 per cent of many texts. If you have been learning another language in school for five years, you probably know somewhere between 1,000 and 2,000 words of that language. In your first language you probably know that many words when you are about six.

In the last paragraph there are only two words (omitting the name Longman) which are not in the Longman list of 2,000 words used for definitions in the LDCE. Can you guess which they are, and can you suggest easier words to use instead of them?

Interesting facts

The seven most common words in written English are the, of, and, a, in, to and it. These words make up almost 20 % of every text you read, which is astonishing when you consider how many hundreds of thousands of English words are available.

Unit 4. COCKNEY RHYMING SLANG



In Cockney rhyming slang, a particular word is replaced by a phrase which rhymes with the word. Frequently, however, only the first (non-rhyming) part of the phrase is actually used, not the entire phrase. So a hat may be called a tit for, short for tit for tat. Some bits of rhyming slang have become so well-established that they have spread out into more general English, and people are not necessarily aware of where the expressions come from. For instance, let's have a butcher's is short for let's have a butcher's hook, which rhymes with look. Use your loaf is short for use your loaf of bread, which rhymes with head. To be on your Tod is short for to be on your Tod Sloan, which rhymes with own. That's a load of old cobbler's is short for that's a load of old cobbler's awls, which rhymes with balls. To blow a raspberry is short for to blow a raspberry tart, which rhymes with fart.

There are also many bits of Cockney rhyming slang which have become quite well known, but which are still recognised for what they are. Some of these are in the short form (e.g. Bristols, short for Bristol cities, meaning titties, china, short for china plate, meaning mate), others in the long form (e.g. trouble and strife for wife or north and south for mouth). All these expressions give the impression that there is a well-established set of rhyming phrases which are used with fixed meanings. To a certain extent this is true, and collections of rhyming slang will give many standard expressions such as frog and toad for road or Adam and Eve for believe. But true Cockney rhyming slang also has an impromptu element, where the listener has to guess what the real meaning is from the context, and frequently only with the non-rhyming part of the phrase for a clue.

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

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

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

Unit 5. VARIANTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH



In January 1788 a fleet of eleven British ships anchored in Botany Bay in Australia after an eight-month voyage from the mother country. Over a thousand people disembarked, three-quarters of them being convicts, sentenced for various crimes to a seven-year term in the penal colony of New South Wales. This historic landing marked the beginning of a new stage of the world journey of English: the settlement of the British Empire.

To this day, Australian, New Zealand and South African English bear a distinct resemblance, as these countries were all first settled by the same kind of people within roughly the same generation. Some of these Empire-builders were Irish, especially after The Great Famine of the 1840s, but most were English.

The story of Australian English starts with kangaroo. In 1770, when Captain James Cook sailed his ship, Endeavour, into the Endeavour River in what is now the State of Queensland. Cook wrote down a number of the Aboriginal words he found useful in his negotiations with the Endeavour River tribes, including the famous kangaroo. But like so many European explorers of "primitive" societies, Cook underestimated the sophistication of Aboriginal culture and he did not recognize that there were hundreds of Aboriginal languages. He made his glossary available to later explorers on the assumption that he had been dealing with a monolingual society.

The number of Aboriginal words in Australian English is quite small (though perhaps larger than thought) and is confined to the naming of plants (like bindieye and calombo), trees (like boree and mallee), birds (like currawong and kookaburra), animals (like wallaby and wombat) and fish (like barramundi). As in North America, when it came to place-names the Aboriginal influence was much greater: with a vast new

continent to name, about a third of all Australian place-names are Aboriginal.

Apart from the Aborigines, an estimated 300,000 in 1788, Australia was an empty continent, remote, vast, inhospitable and different in practically every way from its colonial motherland. Like the first settlers in the United States, the first Australians put some under-employed English words to good use. Creek, which at that time meant "an estuary, or arm of the sea", was now applied very widely to streams and watercourses. Paddock, which had a similar restricted meaning in England, was now extended to describe a wide variety of enclosed land. Some typical Australianisms, like bludger (originally "a low thief, now "one who evades responsibilities and imposes on others") evolved from a highly restricted slang use, often criminal. In the early days, it was a makeshift language.

Nearly two generations after the First Fleet arrived in Botany Bay, 87 per cent of the Australian population were either convicts, ex-convicts or of convict descent. As outsiders in a new community, they would already have come under pressure to modify their speech to their changed surroundings. Even more important, all the men had criminal slang in common. This convict argot was called "flash" language, and James Hardy Vaux published a collection of it in 1812, the *New and Comprehensive Vocabulary of the Flash Language*. Most of the words and phrases he listed remained confined to convict circles and have not passed into the mainstream of Australian English.

Today, Australian English, famous for its air of novelty, is something of a living museum preserving several 18th- and 19th-century regional words from Cornwall, Wessex, the Midlands, East Anglia, Northumbria, Scotland and Ireland. To take just a few examples, words like corker, dust-up, purler and tootsy all came to Australia, from Ireland via the cotton mills of Lancashire. Billy comes from the Scottish bally, meaning "a milk pail". Cobber came from the Suffolk verb to cob, "to take a liking to someone". Clobber has Romany roots and is originally recorded in Kent as clubbered up, meaning "dressed up".

The roots of Australian English lie in the South and East of England (the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Middlesex, Hertfordshire, parts of Bedfordshire, Cambridgeshire,

Northamptonshire, and, of course, London), but that cannot be the whole story. There is, for instance, virtually no "glottal stop" in Australian English, nor is the "dropped aitch" a feature of Australian speech.

It was the children of the immigrants who lost their parents' Irish, or Midland or Scottish accents within one generation of their arrival in Australia. As early as 1820, one writer observed a distinctive type of Australian speech: "The children born in these colonies, and now grown up, speak a better language, purer, and more harmonious, than is generally the case in most parts of England. The amalgamation of such various dialects assembled together, seems to improve the mode of articulating the words."

A remarkable feature of Australian English is its comparative uniformity. Australia, a continent roughly the size of Europe, has almost no regional variation of accent. A citizen of Perth can sound much like a citizen of Adelaide or Sydney, or like a station hand in Alice Springs or Broken Hill. In Britain or the United States, by contrast, an outsider can easily decide from the local accent whether he or she is in Scotland or Dorset, New England or Louisiana.

Perhaps because the idea of regional English is so deeply rooted in our perception of the language, many Australians consider that the country does have local varieties. They report in conversation that you can distinguish a South Australian from a Queenslander. But most Australian regionalisms include very few real differences. Queenslanders, for example, tend to use port for "suitcase", a pusher (baby carriage) in South Australia is usually called a stroller in New South Wales, and strawberries, sold in punnets in Sydney, appear in chips in Melbourne.

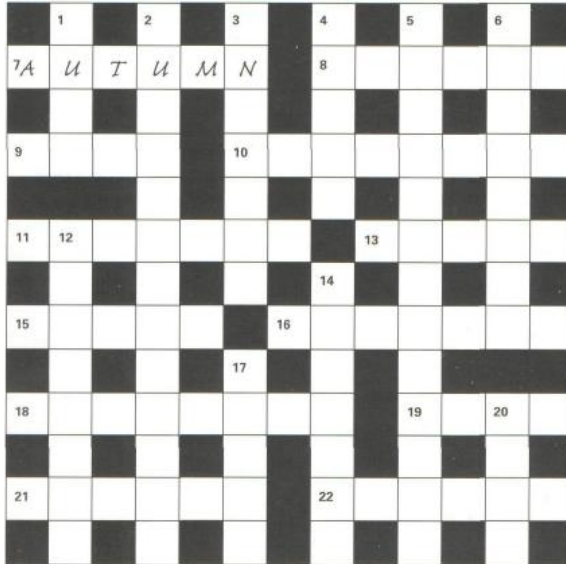
The accent strata of Australian English have been identified for some years. A more recent phenomenon is the so-called "rising inflection" that appeared in the Australian speech pattern. The "rising inflection" is the habit, especially prevalent among women and teenagers, of using a questioning (rising) tone in answer to a question.

Thus now it would not be an exaggeration to say that throughout the English-speaking world, there is a greater awareness of, and respect for, the voice and spirit of Australia than ever before, particularly since the Olympics [16, 95-100].

☺ ☺ For fun

British and American English

This crossword contains words that are different in British and American English



ACROSS

7. The season usually known as **fall** in the US. (6)
8. An American word for a **synagogue**. (6)
9. An American adverb, meaning **extremely**. (4)
10. A **lawyer** in the US. (8)
11. The American equivalent of a British **postcode**. (3, 4)
13. An American **criminal**. (5)
15. The place where British buses are kept when they are not being used. (5)
16. A British English word for a **crepe**. (7)
18. A British English spelling of **ionizing**. (8)
19. When you want to start doing something in the US, you can say 'Let's ____'. (4)
21. An adjective often used in the UK to specify a particular kind of pensioner. (3-3)
22. The American English name for the electrical **earth** wire. (6)

DOWN

1. A British name for a **subway**. (4)
2. This kind of day is usually called **national** in the US and **bank** in the UK. (6, 7)
3. **Onward**, as an adverb, in the UK. (7)
4. A British English adjective referring to central government, used in contexts where Americans would use **federal**. (5)
5. **Casualty**, in an American hospital. (9, 4)
6. In the US, this might be an answer paper in an exam, a used car price list, or a list of VIPs. It's the colour that's important! (4, 4)
12. A British **Popsicle**. (3, 5)
14. In a British railway station this place is called the left **luggage office**. In America it is called the **room**. (7)
17. British people wait in **queues**. Americans stand in . (5)
20. The American word for **fluff** in the UK means a kind of soft cloth. (4)

Unit 6. NEW WORDS: COMPOUNDS, DERIVATIVES



The most common and most flexible way of creating new words in English is to put two words together to form a new word, a compound. A **COMPOUND** can be defined, rather loosely, as a lexeme which is made up of two (or more) other lexemes. So blackbird, childproof, headline, typewrite, wallpaper are compounds [17, 19].



Exercise 1. The following headline occurred in *The Australian* for 15 April 1997: "NZ doubt on Iran exports trade ban". Draw the tree for the underlined "stone-wall" construction.

Only some of the recurrent sequences of letters (or sounds, in the spoken form of the language) which are not words are affixes. Affixes must also have their own meaning

(although it may be difficult to specify precisely what that meaning is). For example, the un- in unfamiliarity means something like 'not', and is also found in other words like unnatural, unlikely, uninspiring, etc. But although there are other words such as uncle, undercoat, uniform, unit which begin with the same letters (and in some cases, the same sounds as well), these words do not have the affix un- because the bit that is left if the affix is removed is not a word of English and the un- does not have the appropriate meaning.

The affixes you can add before a word are called **PRE-FIXES**; the most you add after a word are called **SUFFIXES**.

Exercise 2. *Below are several words all of which begin with the prefix dis-. In some of them, this is a part of the stem. What does this prefix mean? In which words is it a prefix, and in which words is it not? Disaster; diskette, disconnect, discontinue, discuss, disengage, disinfect, disorder; displeasure, distress.*

Exercise 3. *Think of the longest ordinary English word you know (that is, avoid Welsh or Aboriginal or Native American place names). If you can't think of any, look in your dictionary for a long word. Then see how many prefixes and suffixes you can find in it.*

Notice that all this talk about adding an affix to a word means that, just as we could draw tree diagrams for compounds, so we can draw them for derivatives.

Exercise 4. *Draw trees to show the structures of the following words: disappearance, hopefully, unthinkable. Can you see a problem with drawing a tree for undoable?*

ANSWERS TO EXERCISES

Unit 1. Dictionaries

1. Check the definitions given by a number of different dictionaries. Are they suitable or is yours better?

2.

crabby: irritable, morose.

gloomy: depressed; sullen.

glum: looking or feeling dejected, sullen; morose.

morose: sullen and ill-tempered.

sulky: sullen, morose or silent, esp. from resentment or ill temper.

sullen: morose, resentful, sulky, unforgiving, unsociable.

surly: bad-tempered and unfriendly; churlish.

The more successful you are in associating the correct word with the correct definition, the more likely you are to be impressed with the skill of the dictionary-writer, and the more likely you are to think that the dictionary suits you.

Unit 2. Borrowings. Where words come from

1. *Artisan*, *marry* and *noble* are French, they deal with legal status; *gift* and *skill* are Scandinavian, they are everyday words.

2. You will have discovered that the question is really asking if you knew or could guess where the foods and animals originated. The correct answers are listed below – and some of them are very tricky.

Таблица 2.1

Words borrowed	Source language	Spoken in
barbecue	Haitian via French	Haiti
bouillabaisse	French	France
chocolate	Aztec via Spanish	Mexico
curry	Tamil	India
frankfurter	German	Germany
molasses	Portuguese	Portugal

moussaka	Greek	Greece
paella	Spanish	Spain
smorgasbord	Swedish	Sweden
spaghetti	Italian	Italy
tea	Chinese	China
tomato	Aztec via Spanish	Mexico
coyote	Aztec via Spanish	Mexico
gnu	Xhosa	South Africa
jackal	Persian via Turkish	Persia
jaguar	Tupi-Guarani	Paraguay, Brazil, Bolivia
kangaroo	Guugu Yimidhirr	Australia
kiwi	Maori	New Zealand
macaw	Portuguese	Portugal, Brazil
mammoth	Russian	Russia
merino	Spanish	Spain
orangutan	Indonesian	Indonesia
springbok	Afrikaans	South Africa

3. You will certainly not get the degree of discussion that was given here, only an answer or the correct, but not very helpful, remark that the origin is unknown or obscure. By making a choice, dictionary writers (a) take the chance of being wrong and (b) hide much of the really interesting material.

4. *Hang-nail* was originally *ang-nail* or 'pain-nail'. It also over hangs, and when *ang* disappeared, it was reinterpreted as *hang*. *Humble pie* was originally *umble pie*, where *umble* means 'offal'; presumably you were thought to eat umble-pie only out of humility. *Terrapin* has nothing to do with either *terra* or *pins*, coming from a native American word *turepe*. *Welsh rarebit* was originally called *Welsh rabbit* (in the same way that rolled sheep-meat is called *colonial goose* in Australia and New Zealand). Since it clearly was not a rabbit, it was assumed that the word must be something else. *Woodchucks* do not chuck wood at

all. The word is originally from the Cree language, and is *wuehak*, but *woodchuck* is fairly close in sound and means rather more.

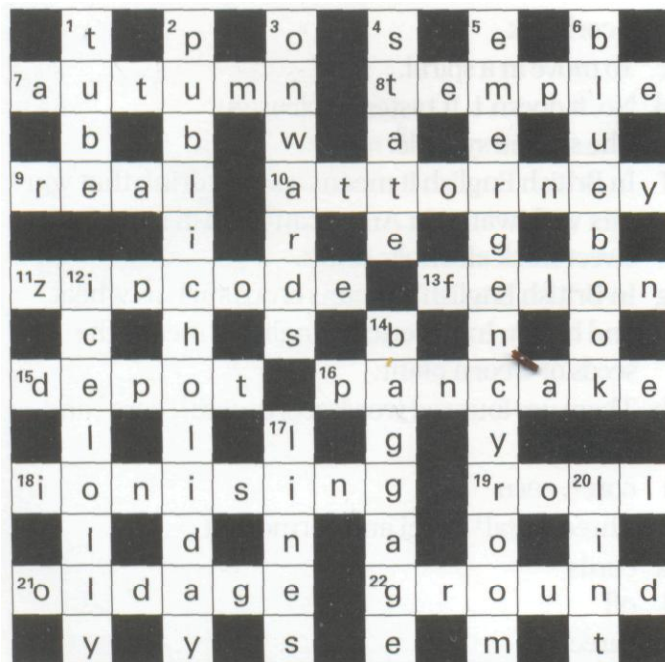
5. *Awful* used to mean ‘full of awe, inspiring awe’, *terrific* used to mean ‘causing terror’ and *wonderful* used to mean ‘full of wonder, inspiring wonder’. *Awful* and *wonderful* look as though they may have meant precisely the same at one stage, though they were specialised in more or less the present senses very early in the history of English. *Terrific* now means just the opposite of what it once meant.

Unit 3. Vocabulary Statistics

1. The answer is provided in the following text.

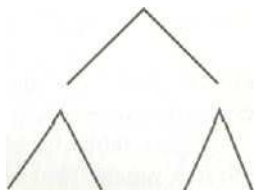
3. The two words are *contemporary* and *text*. *Current* and *writing* would be possible alternatives that are in the Longman list.

Unit 5. Variants of the English language



Unit 6. New words: compounds, derivatives

1.

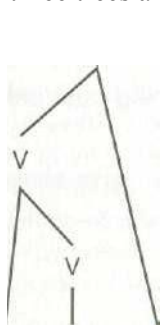


Iran exports trade ban

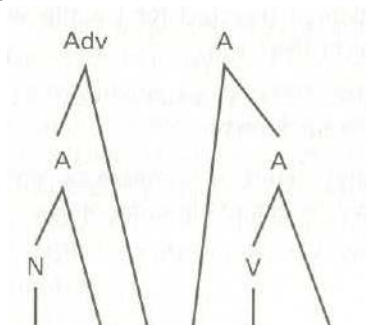
2. The affix means something like ‘do the opposite of (e.g. if you disconnect two things, you do the opposite of what you do if you connect them). The words containing the prefix are *disconnect*, *discontinue*, *disengage*, *disinfect*, *disorder* and *displease*. *Disaster*, *diskette*, *discuss* and *distress* do not contain the affix. If *discuss* did contain the affix, it would have to mean ‘do the opposite of cussing’, which is not what *discuss* means.

3. There may be difficulty in deciding where the affixes begin and end, but even with words like *anti-dis-establish-ment-ari-an-ism* you should not find any more than in the examples already given.

4. The three trees are as follows:



dis appear ance



hope ful ly un think able

The problem with *undoable* is that it is ambiguous, and has two different structures, one corresponding to each meaning. If you put *un* and *do* together first it means ‘able to be undone’, and if you put *do* and *able* together first it means ‘not able to be done’.

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