

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
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**МЕТОДИЧНІ ВКАЗІВКИ
для самостійного
вивчення фразеології англійської мови**

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Методичні вказівки покликані допомогти студентам у самостійній роботі над теоретичними та практичними завданнями з фразеології англійської мови. Вказівки складаються з двох розділів теоретичних положень, розділу практичних вправ і завдань, глосарію ключових термінів та списку рекомендованої літератури.

Призначені для студентів третього курсу спеціальності "Прикладна лінгвістика".

Unit I. PHRASEOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

1. MAIN TERMS OF PHRASEOLOGY

1. Study the information about the main terms of phraseology.

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by word-equivalents (I. Arnold) or phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech; they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units "idioms".

Phraseological units can be classified:

- a) according to the ways they are formed;
- b) according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning;
- c) according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

A.V. Koonin thinks that phraseology must develop as an independent linguistic science and not as a part of lexicology.

In lexicology there is great ambiguity of the terms phraseology and idioms. Opinions differ as to how phraseology should be defined, classified, described and analysed. The word "phraseology" has very different meanings in this country and in Great Britain or the United States. In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V.V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (A.I. Smirnitsky),

and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I.V. Amoid). N.N. Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact.

In English and American linguistics the situation is very different. No special branch of study exists, and the term "phraseology" is a stylistic one meaning, according to Webster's dictionary, "mode of expression, peculiarities of diction, i.e. choice and arrangement of words and phrases characteristic of some author or some literary work".

The word "idiom" is even more polysemantic. The English use it to denote a mode of expression peculiar to a language, without differentiating between the grammatical and lexical levels. It may also mean a group of words whose meaning it is difficult or impossible to understand from the knowledge of the words considered separately. Moreover, "idiom" may be synonymous to the words "language" or "dialect", denoting a form of expression peculiar to a people, a country, a district, or to one individual. There seems to be no point in enumerating further possibilities. The word "phrase" is no less polysemantic.

The term "set expression" is on the contrary more definite and self-explanatory, because the first element points out the most important characteristic of these units, namely, their stability, their fixed and ready-made nature. The word "expression" suits our purpose, because it is a general term including words, groups of words and sentences, so that both *ups and downs* and *that's a horse of another colour* are expressions. That is why in the present chapter we shall use this term in preference to all the others.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What is a phraseological unit?
2. What criteria (characteristics) can be phraseological units classified by?
3. What are the main points of English phraseology?

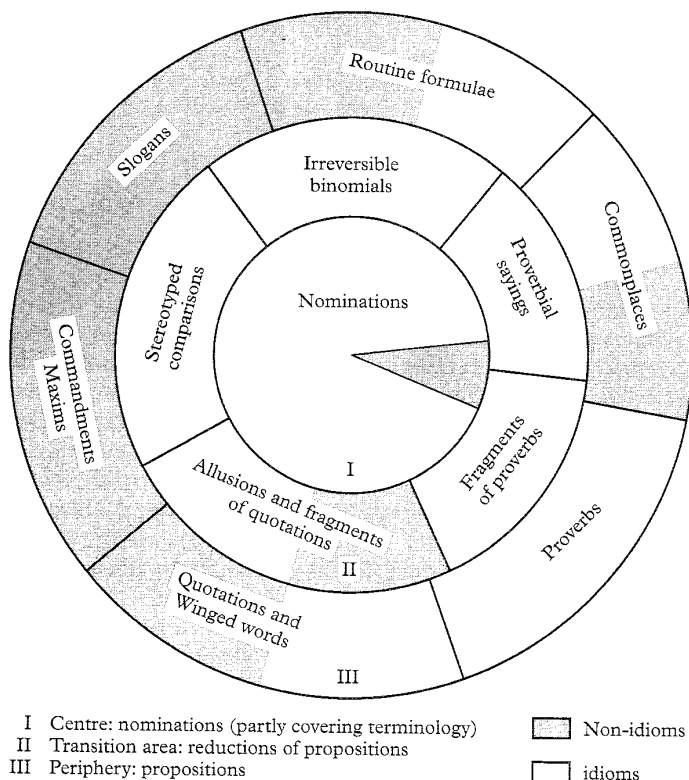
3. Exercise 1.

2. THE PHRASEOLOGICAL SYSTEM

1. Study the information about the phraseological system of the English language.

Phraseological units constitute the "phrasicon" of a language – that is, the whole inventory of idioms and phrases, both word-like and sentence-like set

expressions. Word-like phraseological units are nominations and designate a phenomenon, an object, an action, a process or state, a property or a relationship in the outside world. They are manifest in the traditional parts of speech which are related to these conceptual entities: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. They represent the centre of the phraseological system (in the model of centre and periphery applied to the phrasicon) and embrace idioms and non-idioms (i.e. non-idiomatic restricted collocations). Idioms form the majority and may be regarded as the prototype of the phraseological unit. Non-idioms have transparent meanings and include technical terms (terminological word groups), onymic entities (i.e. phrases which are proper names), clichés, paraphrasal verbs, and other set expressions. Examples of the latter category include: *unconditional surrender*; *the benefit of the doubt*; *the Black Sea*, *the Golden Twenties*; *an eloquent silence*; *of paramount importance*, *gainfully employed*; *wet/drenched to the skin*; *beyond compare*, *beneath contempt*.



The phraseology system of Modern English (by Rosemarie Gläser)

Sentence-like phraseological units are "propositions" and designate a whole state of affairs in the outside world. Their logical structure consists of a nomination and a predication. The finite verb as part of the predicate may be absent in the case of reduction or ellipsis. Propositions form the periphery of the phraseological system. The transition area between nominations and propositions is occupied by phraseological units which thus have a dual character. These comprise: irreversible binomials, stereotyped comparisons, proverbial sayings, fragments of proverbs, and allusions and fragments of quotations: *kith and kin*, *wait and see*; *as blind as a bat*, *to swear like a trooper*; *to put the cart before the horse* *a new broom*, *to be or not to be a thing of beauty*.

Sentence-like phraseological units (or sentence idioms) include:

- PROVERBS: *Make hay while the sun shines. One swallow does not make a summer.* (All proverbs are idiomatic because in their figurative meaning they refer to a different state of affairs; most of them have an educative function.)

- COMMONPLACES: *Boys will be boys. We live and learn. It's a small world.* (Commonplaces may be trite formulae and truisms. They do not have an educative function, but rather serve as conversational fillers. As a rule, they are not idiomatic.)

- ROUTINE FORMULAE: *Come again? Mind the step. Many happy returns (of the day). Hold your horses.* (These phrases may also include idioms.)

- SLOGANS: *Value for money. Safety first.* (As a rule, slogans are self-explanatory and therefore not idioms.)

- COMMANDMENTS AND MAXIMS: *Thou shah not kill. Thou shah not steal. Know thyself. Do it yourself. Be relevant. Be brief* (cf. the Gricean conversational maxims).

- QUOTATIONS AND WINGED WORDS: *Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise. A Jekyll and Hyde.*

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What are the word-like phraseological units?
2. What are the sentence-like phraseological units?
3. Characterise sentence idioms of the English language.

3. Exercises 2, 15.

3. FREE WORD-GROUPS

1. Study the information about free word-groups in English.

Every utterance is a patterned, rhythmized and segmented sequence of signals. On the lexical level these signals building up the utterance are not exclusively words. Alongside with separate words speakers use larger blocks consisting of more than one word.

Words combined to express ideas and thoughts make up word-groups.

The degree of structural and semantic cohesion of words within word-groups may vary. Some word-groups are functionally and semantically inseparable, e.g. *rough diamond, cooked goose, to stew in one's own juice*. Such word-groups are traditionally described as *set-phrases* or *phraseological units*. Characteristic features of phraseological units are *non-motivation* for idiomaticity and *stability* of context. They cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

The component members in other word-groups possess greater semantic and structural independence, e.g. *to cause misunderstanding, to shine brightly, linguistic phenomenon, red rose*. Word-groups of this type are defined as *free word-groups* or *free phrases*. They are freely made up in speech by the speakers according to the needs of communication.

Set expressions are contrasted to free phrases and *semi-fixed combinations*. All these are but different stages of restrictions imposed upon co-occurrence of words, upon the lexical filling of structural patterns which are specific for every language. The restriction may be independent of the ties existing in extra-linguistic reality between the object spoken of and be conditioned by purely linguistic factors, or have extralinguistic causes in the history of the people. In free word-combination the linguistic factors are chiefly connected with grammatical properties of words.

Free word-groups are syntactically connected notional words within a sentence, which by itself is not a sentence. This definition is recognized more or less universally in this country and abroad. Though other linguistics define the term word-group differently – as any group of words connected semantically and grammatically which does not make up a sentence by itself.

From this point of view words-components of a word-group may belong to any part of speech, therefore such groups, as *in the morning, the window, and Bill* are also considered to be word-groups (though they comprise only one notional word and one form-word).

The task of distinguishing between free word-groups and phraseological units is further complicated by the existence of a great number of marginal

cases, the so-called *semi-fixed* or *semi-free word-groups*, also called *non-phraseological word-groups* which share with phraseological units their structural stability but lack their semantic unity and figurativeness (e. g. *to go to school, to go by bus, to commit suicide*).

There are two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups: *semantic* and *structural*. Free word-groups can allow change their structure by means of adding or deleting new elements. Thus phraseological units cannot be changed by adding or omitting any components. Sometimes, however, some changes in the structure of phraseological units can be made, but such changes are few and the number of components is limited.

Semantic meaning of free word-groups can be easily drawn from the semantic meaning of its components. Phraseological units possess the stability of semantic meaning which cannot be guessed as a sum of semantic meaning of its components.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What are the characteristic features of phraseological units?
2. What is the main difference between phraseological units and free word-groups?
3. What is a free word-group?

3. Exercise 3.

4. STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS OF WORD-GROUPS

1. Study the information about structural characteristics of word groups.

Structurally word-groups may be approached in various ways.

All word-groups may be analysed by the criterion of distribution into two big classes. Distribution is understood as the whole complex of contexts in which the given lexical unit can be used. If the word-group has the same linguistic distribution as one of its members, it is described as *endocentric*, i.e. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group. The word-groups, e.g. *red flower, bravery of all kinds*, are distributionally identical with their central components *flower* and *bravery*: *I saw a red flower – I saw a flower. I appreciate bravery of all kinds – I appreciate bravery.*

If the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members, it is regarded as *exocentric*, i.e. as having no such central member. For instance, *side by side* or *grow smaller* and others where the component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word-group.

In *endocentric* word-groups the central component that has the same distribution as the whole group is clearly the dominant member or the head to which all other members of the group are subordinated. In the word-group *red flower* the head is the noun *flower* and in the word-group *kind of people* the head is the adjective *kind*.

Word-groups are also classified according to their *syntactic pattern* into *predicative* and *non-predicative* groups. Such word-groups, e.g. *John works*, *he went* that have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, are classified as predicative, and all others as non-predicative. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided according to the type of syntactic relation between the components into subordinative and coordinative. Such word-groups as *red flower*, *a man of wisdom* and *the like* are termed subordinative in which *flower* and *man* are head-words and *red*, *of wisdom* are subordinated to them respectively and function as their attributes. Such phrases as *woman and child*, *day and night*, *do or die* are classified as coordinative. Both members in these word-groups are functionally and semantically equal.

Subordinative word-groups may be classified according to their head-words into nominal groups (*red flower*), adjectival groups (*kind to people*), verbal groups (*to speak well*), pronominal (*all of them*), statival groups (fast asleep). The head is not necessarily the component that occurs first in the word-group. In such nominal word-groups as, e.g. *very great bravery*, *bravery in the struggle* the noun *bravery* is the head whether followed or preceded by other words.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What is the difference between endocentric and exocentric word-groups?
2. What word-groups can be called subordinative?
3. What is a coordinative word-group?

3. Exercise 4.

5. SEMANTIC PECULIARITIES OF WORD-GROUPS

1. Study the information about semantic peculiarities of word groups.

The meaning of word-groups may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of their components.

The lexical meaning of the word-group may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words. Thus the lexical meaning of the word-group *red flower* may be described denotatively as the combined meaning of the words *red* and *flower*. It should be pointed out, however, that the term "combined lexical meaning" is not to imply that the meaning of the word-group is a mere additive result of all the lexical meaning of the component members. As a rule, the meaning of the component words are mutually dependant and the meaning of the word-group naturally predominates over the lexical meanings of its constituents.

Word-groups possess not only the lexical meaning, but also the meaning conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of their constituents. Such word-groups as *school grammar* and *grammar school* are semantically different because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the component words. It is assumed that the structural pattern of word-group is the carrier of a certain semantic component which does not necessarily depend on the actual lexical meaning of its members. In the example discussed above *school grammar* the structural meaning of the word-group may be abstracted from the group and described as "quality-substance" meaning. This is the meaning expressed by the pattern of the word-group but not by either the word *school* or the word *grammar*. It follows that we have to distinguish between the structural meaning of a given type of word-group as such and the lexical meaning of its constituents.

The lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups are interdependent and inseparable. The inseparability of these two semantic components in word-groups can be illustrated by the semantic analysis of individual word-groups in which the norms of conventional collocability of words seem to be deliberately overstepped. For instance, in the word-group *all the sun long* we observe a departure from the norm of lexical valency represented by such word-groups as *all the day long*, *all the night long*, *all the week long*, and a few others. The structural pattern of these word-groups in ordinary usage and the word-group *all the sun long* is identical. The generalized meaning of the pattern may be described as "a unit of time".

Replacing *day*, *night*, and *week* by another noun the *sun* we do not find any clinger in the structural meaning of the pattern. The group *all the sun long* functions semantically as a unit of time. The noun *sun*, however, included in the group continues to carry its own lexical meaning (not "a unit of time") which violates the norms of collocability in this word-group. It follows that the meaning of the word-group is derived from the combined lexical meanings of its constituents and is inseparable from the meaning of the pattern of their arrangement.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. How is the meaning of a word-group defined?
2. How the pattern of arrangement of words influences the meaning of a word-group?
3. What does the meaning of a word-group consist of?

3. Exercise 5.

6. LEXICAL AND GRAMMATICAL RELATIONS WITHIN WORD-GROUPS

1. Study the information about lexical and grammatical relations within word groups.

Two basic linguistic factors which unite words into word-groups and which largely account for their combinability are lexical valency or collocability and grammatical valency.

Words are known to be used in lexical context, i.e. in combination with other words. The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations, with other words is qualified as its lexical collocability or valency.

The range of a potential lexical collocability of words is restricted by the inner structure of the language word-stock. This can be easily observed in the examples, as follows: though the words *bend*, *curl* are registered by the dictionaries as synonyms their collocability is different, for they tend to combine with different words: e.g. *to bend a bar/ wire/ pipe/ bow/ stick/ head/ knees; to curl hair/ moustache/ a hat brim/ waves/ lips*.

There can be cases of synonymic groups where one synonym would have the widest possible range of collocability (like *shake* which, enters combinations with an immense number of words including *earth*, *air*, *mountains*, *convictions*, *spears*, *walls*, *souls*, *tablecloths*, *bosoms*, *carpets*

etc) while another will have no limitation inherent in its semantic structure (like *wag* which means "to shake a thing by one end", and confined to rigid group of nouns – *rail, finger, head, tongue, beard, chin*).

There is certain norm of lexical valency for each word and any intentional departure from this norm is qualified as a stylistic device, e.g.: *tons of words, a life ago, years of dust*.

Words traditionally collocated in speech tend to make up so called clichés or traditional word combinations. In traditional combinations words retain their full semantic independence although they are limited in their combinative power (e.g.: *to wage a war, to render a service, to make friends*). Words in traditional combinations are combined according to the patterns of grammatical structure of the given language. Traditional combinations fall into structural types as:

1. V + N combinations: e.g.: *deal a blow, bear a grudge, take a fancy* etc;
2. V + preposition + N: *fall into disgrace, go into details, go into particular, take into account, come into being* etc;
3. V + Adj.: *work hard, rain heavily* etc;
4. V + Adj.: *set free, make sure, put right* etc;
5. Adj. + N.: *maiden voyage, ready money, dead silence, feline eyes, aquiline nose, auspicious circumstances* etc;
6. N + V: *time passes/ flies/ elapses; options differ; tastes vary* etc;
7. N + preposition + N: *breach of promise, flow of words, flash of hope, flood of tears* etc.

Grammatical combinability also tells upon the freedom of bringing words together. The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (syntactic) structures is termed grammatical valency.

The grammatical valency of words may be different. The range of it is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to. This statement, though, does not entitle to say that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is identical.

For instance, the two synonyms *clever* and *intelligent* are said to possess different grammatical valency as the word *clever* can fit the syntactic pattern of Adj. + preposition "at" + N (*clever at physics, clever at social sciences*), whereas the word *intelligent* can never be found in exactly the same syntactic pattern.

Unlike frequent departures from the norms of lexical valency, departures from the grammatical valency norms are not admissible unless a speaker purposefully wants to make the word group unintelligible to native speakers.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What is lexical valency of words?
2. What can you call a cliché?
3. What is grammatical valency of words?

3. Exercises 6, 16.

7. WAYS OF FORMING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

1. Study how phraseological units are formed.

A. V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group:

a) the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g.: in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: "*launching pad*" in its terminological meaning is "*стартовий майданчик*", in its transferred meaning – "*відправний пункт*";

b) by transforming their meaning, e.g.: "*Trojan horse*" – "комп'ютерна програма, виготовлена для пошкодження комп'ютера";

c) by means of alliteration, e.g.: "*a sad sack*" – "нещасливий випадок";

d) by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g.: "*My aunt!*";

e) by means of distorting a word group, e.g.: "*odds and ends*" was formed from "*odd ends*";

f) by using archaisms, e.g.: "*in brown study*" means "*in gloomy meditation*" where both components preserve their archaic meanings;

g) by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g.: "*that cock won't fight*" can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically;

h) by using some unreal image, e.g.: "*to have butterflies in the stomach*" – "*хвилюватись*", "*to have green fingers*" – "*успішний садівник-любітель*" etc;

i) by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g.: "*corridors of power*" (Snow), "*American dream*" (Alby).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when

a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit; they are:

a) conversion, e.g.: "*to vote with one's feet*" was converted into "*vote with one's feet*";

b) changing the grammar form, e.g.: "*Make hay while the sun shines*" is transferred into a verbal phrase – "*to make hay while the sun shines*";

c) analogy, e.g.: "*Curiosity killed the cat*" was transferred into "*Care killed the cat*";

d) contrast, e.g.: "*cold surgery*" – "*a planned before operation*" was formed by contrasting it with "*acute surgery*", "*thin cat*" – "*a poor person*" was formed by contrasting it with "*fat cat*";

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e.g.: from the proverb "*You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear*" by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit "*to make a sow's ear*" was formed with the meaning "*помятисся*";

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g.: "*living space*" (German), "*to take the bull by the horns*" (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings "*meche blanche*" (French), "*corpse d'elite*" (French), "*sotto voce*" (Italian) etc.

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What are the primary ways of forming phraseological units?
2. What are the secondary ways of forming phraseological units?
3. Give examples of the phraseological units formed by means of any primary way.

3. Exercise 7.

8. CRITERIA OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

1. Study the criteria of phraseological units.

Phraseological unit is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a *ready-made* unit.

The most salient semantic feature of a pure or semi-idiom is its semantic unity. The non-literal idiomatic meaning is opposed to the literal meaning of a free word-combination.

Reproducibility is regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations.

Idiomaticity is the quality of phraseological unit, when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts. The term idiomaticity is also understood as lack of motivation from the point of view of native speakers.

Stability of a phraseological unit implies that it exists as a *ready-made* linguistic unit which does not allow any variability of its lexical components or grammatical structure.

Criteria of *stability (idiomaticity)* fined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units. This definition proceeds from the assumption that the essential features of phraseological units are stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation. It is consequently assumed that unlike components of free word-groups, which may vary according to the needs of communication, member-words of phraseological units are always reproduced as single unchangeable collocations. A.V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability.

Difference in terminology ("set-phrases", "idioms", and "word-equivalents") reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups. The term "set phrase" implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

The term "idiom" generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units is idiomaticity or lack of motivation.

As far as semantic motivation is concerned phraseological units are extremely variated from *motivated* (by simple addition of denotational meaning) like a *sight for sore eyes* and *to know the ropes*, to *partially motivated* (when one of the words is used in a not direct meaning) or to *demotivated* (completely non-motivated) like *tit for tat*, *red-tape*.

Lexical and grammatical stability of phraseological units is displayed in the fact that no substitution of any elements whatever is possible in the fallowing stereotyped (unchangeable) set expressions, which differ in many other respects: *all the world and his wife*, *red tape*, *calf love*, *heads or tails*, *first night*, *to gild the pill*, *to hope for the best*, *busy as a bee*, *fair and square*, *stuff and nonsense*, *time and again*, *to and fro*.

In a free phrase the semantic correlative ties are fundamentally different. The information is additive and each element has a much greater semantic independence. Each component may be substituted without affecting the

meaning of the other: *cut bread, cut cheese, eat bread*. Information is additive in the sense that the amount of information we had on receiving the first signal, i.e. having heard or read the word *cut* is increased, the listener obtains further details and learns what is cut. The reference of *cut* is unchanged. Every notional word can form additional syntactic ties with other words outside the expression. In a set expression information furnished by each element is not additive: actually it does not exist before we get the whole. No substitution for either *cut* or *figure* can be made without completely ruining the following:

I had an uneasy fear that he might cut a poor figure beside all these clever Russian officers (Shaw). *He was not managing to cut much of a figure* (Murdoch).

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What criteria are the most salient for phraseological units?
2. What is the difference between "phraseological units" and "idioms"?
3. What is idiomaticity?

3. Exercise 8.

Unit II. CLASSIFICATIONS OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

1. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

1. Study what semantic classification phraseological units possess.

The traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units is based on their original content and might be alluded to as "*thematic*" (although the term is not universally accepted). The approach is widely used in numerous English and American guides to idiom, phrase books, etc. On this principle, idioms are classified according to their sources of origin, "source" referring to the particular sphere of human activity, of life of nature, of natural phenomena, etc. We offer here two of the most known classifications of phraseological units. So, L.P. Smith gives in his classification groups of idioms used by sailors, fishermen, soldiers, hunters and associated with the realia, phenomena and conditions of their occupations. In Smith's classification we also find groups of idioms associated with domestic and wild animals and birds, agriculture and cooking. There are also numerous idioms drawn from sports, arts, etc.

This principle of classification is sometimes called "*etymological*". The term does not seem appropriate since we usually mean something different when we speak of the etymology of a word or word-group: whether the word (or word-group) is native or borrowed, and, if the latter, what is the source of borrowing. It is true that Smith makes a special study of idioms borrowed from other languages, but that is only a relatively small part of his classification system. The general principle is not etymological.

Smith points out that word-groups associated with the sea and the life of seamen are especially numerous in English vocabulary. Most of them have long since developed metaphorical meanings which have no longer any association with the sea or sailors: *to sink or swim* – to fail or succeed (e.g. *It is a case of sink or swim. All depends on his own effort.*); *in deep water* – in trouble or danger; *in low water, on the rocks* – in strained financial circumstances.

According to the type of motivation and the other above-mentioned features, three types of phraseological units are suggested: phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological combinations.

Phraseological fusions (e.g. *tit for tat*) represent as their name suggests the highest stage of blending together. The meaning of components is completely

absorbed by the meaning of the whole, by its expressiveness and emotional properties. Phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages.

Phraseological unities are much more numerous. They are clearly motivated. The emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole as in *to stick (to stand) to one's guns*, i.e. "refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition", implying courage and integrity. The example reveals another characteristic of the type, namely the possibility of synonymic substitution, which can be only very limited. Some of these are easily translated and even international, e.g. *to know the way the wind is blowing*.

The third group in this classification represents the phraseological combinations which are not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand, meet the necessity, meet the requirements*. The mobility of this type is much greater; the substitutions are not necessarily synonymical.

It has been pointed out by N.N. Amosova and A.V. Koonin that this classification, being developed for the Russian phraseology, does not fit the specifically English features.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. Vinogradov's classification system is founded on the *degree of semantic cohesion* between the components of a phraseological unit. This classification suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

a) *fusions*, where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e.g.: *on Shank's mare* – on foot, *at sixes and sevens* – in a mess etc;

b) *unities*, where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), e.g.: *to play the first fiddle* to be a leader in something, *old salt* experienced sailor etc;

c) *collocations*, where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e.g.: *cash and carry* – self-service shop, *in a big way* in great degree etc.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What classifications of phraseological units do you know?
2. What are the disadvantages of Smith's classification?

3. What types of phraseological units are there in Vinogradov's classification?

3. Exercises 9, 10.

2. STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

1. Study the structural classification of phraseological units.

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among one-top units he points out three structural types:

a) units of the type "to give up" (verb + postposition type), e.g.: *to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in* etc;

b) units of the type "to be tired". Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions "by" or "with", e.g.: *to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at* etc;

c) prepositional-nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, e.g.: *on the doorstep (quite near), on the nose (exactly), in the course of, on the stroke of, in time, on the point of* etc.

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal such as: *a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck*;

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, e.g.: *to read between the lines, to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet* etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, e.g., *to fall in love*. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre, e.g., *not to know the ropes*. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, e.g.: *to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners'* etc;

c) phraseological repetitions, such as: *now or never, part and parcel, country and western* etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, e.g.: *ups and*

downs, back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g.: *cakes and ale, as busy as a bee*. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, e.g.: *cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly)*.

The classification system of phraseological units suggested by Professor A.V. Koonin is the latest outstanding achievement in the Russian theory of phraseology. The classification is based on the combined structural-semantic principle and it also considers the quotient of stability of phraseological units. Phraseological units are subdivided into the following four classes according to their function in communication determined by their structural-semantic characteristics:

1. Nominative phraseological units are represented by word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word, and coordinative phrases of the type *wear and tear, well and good*.

The first class also includes word-groups with a predicative structure, such as: *as the crow flies*, and, also, predicative phrases of the type *see how the land lies, ships that pass in the night*.

2. Nominative-communicative phraseological units include word-groups of the type *to break the ice – the ice is broken*, that is, verbal word-groups which are transformed into a sentence when the verb is used in the Passive Voice.

3. Phraseological units which are neither nominative nor communicative include interjectional word-groups.

Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What kinds of structural classification of phraseological units do you know?

2. What are the key points of A.I. Smirnitsky classification?

3. What classes are phraseological units divided into according to the A.V. Koonin's classification?

3. Exercises 11.

3. SYNTACTICAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

1. Study the syntactical classification of phraseological units.

The structural principle of classifying phraseological units is based on their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as words.

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I. V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups:

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g.: *bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets, dog's life, cat-and-dog life, calf love, white lie, tall order, birds of a feather, birds of passage, red tape, brown study*;

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g.: *to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines, to run for one's (dear) life, to get (win) the upper hand, to talk through one's hat, to make a song and dance about something, to sit pretty* (Amer. slang);

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g.: *loose as a goose, dull as lead; high and mighty, spick and span, brand new, safe and sound*. In this group the so-called comparative word-groups are particularly expressive and sometimes amusing in their unanticipated and capricious associations: *(as) cool as a cucumber, (as) nervous as a cat, (as) weak as a kitten, (as) good as gold* (usu. spoken about children), *(as) pretty as a picture, as large as life, (as) slippery as an eel, (as) thick as thieves, (as) drunk as an owl* (slang), *(as) mad as a hatter/a hare in March*;

d) adverb phraseological units, such as: *with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails; high and low* (as in *They searched for him high and low*), *by hook or by crook* (as in *She decided that, by hook or by crook, she must marry him*), *for love or money* (as in *He came to the conclusion that a really good job couldn't be found for love or money*), *in cold blood* (as in *The crime was said to have been committed in cold blood*), *in the dead of night, between the devil and the deep sea* (in a situation in which danger threatens whatever course of action one takes), *to the bitter end* (as in *to fight to the bitter end*), *by a long chalk* (as in *It is not the same thing, by a long chalk*);

e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. *in the course of, on the stroke of*;

f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. *"Catch me!", "Well, I never!" etc; my God! by Jove! by George! goodness gracious! good Heavens! sakes alive!* (Amer.)

In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, e.g.: "*The sky is the limit*", "*What makes him tick*", "*I am easy*". Proverbs are usually metaphorical, e.g.: "*Too many cooks spoil the broth*", while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, e.g.: "*Where there is a will there is a way*".

N.N. Amosova's approach to the classification of phraseological units is contextological. She defines phraseological units as units of fixed context. Fixed context is defined as a context characterized by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components, and a peculiar semantic relationship between them. Units of fixed context are subdivided into phrasemes and idioms. Phrasemes are always binary: one component has a phraseologically bound meaning, the other serves as the determining context (*small talk, small hours, small change*). In idioms the new meaning is created by the whole, though every element may have its original meaning weakened or even completely lost: *in the nick of time* "at the exact moment".

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What is the syntactic classification of phraseological units?
2. What kind of phraseological units are proverbs and sayings?
3. What is a phraseme?

3. Exercises 12, 13.

4. PHRASEOLOGICAL EQUIVALENTS

1. Study the ways of translation of phraseological units.

The meaning of the whole phraseological unit in English dominates over the meanings of its components. Also English phraseological units are polysemantic. In order to translate phraseological units phraseological equivalents can be used. Such units have the same semantic meaning and stylistic usage of the idiom in the source language. International phraseological units can be translated by means of equivalents (*to cross the Rubicon* – *перейти Рубікон*). Equivalents can be absolute and relative. Absolute equivalents have grammatical, lexical, and stylistic correspondence in both languages (*the bitter truth* – *гірка правда*). Relative equivalents differ from the original phraseological units grammatically or lexically (*grass widow* – *солом'яна вдова*). Phraseological variants are the units which are based on different notions in different languages covering similar meaning (*on foot's horse* – *нішку*).

In the case when there are no equivalents or variants in the target language phraseological units can be translated *literally*. In such cases the introductory phrases are used (*love me, love my dog – як кажуть в Англії, любиши мене, люби й мого собаку*). Also *descriptive translation* can be used if there are no variants, equivalents or the phraseological unit cannot be translated literally. In this case the interpreter has to analyse the context and find a language unit which covers similar meaning in this context.

2. Answer the questions for self-control:

1. What is a phraseological equivalent?
2. What do we call phraseological variants?
3. What kind of non-equivalent translation of phraseological units do you know?

3. Exercise 14.

EXERCISES

1. Substitute phraseological units incorporating the names of colours for the italicised words.

E.g. *I'm feeling rather miserable today.* – *I feel blue today.*

1. *I'm feeling rather miserable* today. 2. A thing like that happens very rarely. 3. You can *talk till you are tired of it* but I shan't believe you. 4. The news was a great shock to me. It came quite *unexpectedly*. 5. I won't believe it unless I see it *in writing*. 6. You can never believe what he says, he will *swear anything* if it suits his purpose.

2. Substitute phraseological units with the noun "heart", "hand", "arm", "eye", "head", "foot", "leg", for the italicised words. What is the difference between the two sentences?

a) "heart" 1. He is not a man who *shows his feelings openly*. 2. She may seem cold but she *has true, kind feelings*. 3. I learned that piece of poetry *by memory*. 4. When I think about my examination tomorrow I *feel in despair*. 5. When I heard that strange cry in the darkness I *was terribly afraid*. 6. It was the job I *liked very much*. 7. I didn't win the prize but I'm *not discouraged*.

b) "hand", "arm" 1. He *cannot do things right*. He always breaks small details. 2. Teenagers *do not* often *obey* their parents. 3. We spent many years *walking in friendship*.

c) "eye", "head" 1. This guy is a genius. He is *excellent at finding the connection between facts*. 2. He failed his exam and *felt disappointed*. 3. She is always *attracting too much attention*. 4. They have *understood the roots of the problem easily*.

d) "foot", "leg" 1. I hope she'll *get better* soon. 2. What a mess! You are a *very clumsy person*. 3. I am not sure that I want this. I would like to *delay the decision*. 4. It cannot be true. *You are joking*.

3. Read the following jokes. Why do little children often misunderstand phraseological units? Explain how the misunderstanding arises in each case.

1. "Now, my little boys and girls," said the teacher. "I want you to be very still – so still that you can hear a pin drop." For a minute all was still, and then a little boy shrieked out: "Let her drop."

2. "You must be pretty strong," said Willie, aged six to the young widow who had come to call on his mother.

"Strong? What makes you think so?"

"Daddy said you can wrap any man in town around your little finger."

S. Tom: What would you do if you were in my shoes?

Tim: Polish them!

3. Little Girl: Oh, Mr. Sprawler, do put on your skates and show me the funny figures you can make.

Mr. Sprawler: My dear child, I'm only a beginner. I can't make any figures.

Little Girl: But Mother said you were skating yesterday and cut a ridiculous figure.

4. Read the text below, find free word-groups. Classify them according to the criteria of syntactic connection and the head words.

E.g.: *business games* – *non-predicative, exocentric, subordinative, nominal word-group*.

"*Business games*" is a resource book for teachers. It presents activities designed to provide business students with an opportunity to develop fluency.

The topics are business-oriented, but all of them can be used successfully without any job-specific or even business-specific knowledge. They require only an awareness of contemporary life.

Most of the activities require very little preparatory reading which means that they can be set up in the minimum possible time, allowing the maximum time for the activity itself. For the same reason, the activities can be used at all levels from elementary to advanced, providing teachers realize that individual groups or students should be allowed to perform to the level of their own competence.

(Jenny Mawer. *Business Games*, LTP 1992)

5. Explain the meaning of the following combinations of words: a) as free word combinations and b) as phraseological units.

E.g.: *be on firm ground* – 1) *to stand on a solid soil*; 2) *to feel confident*.

a) Be on firm ground; b) best man; c) the bird has flown; d) blow one's own trumpet (horn); e) break the ice; f) bum one's fingers; g) first night; h) keep one's head above water; i) show somebody the door; j) straight, touch bottom; k) throw dust in one's eyes.

6. Explain whether the semantic changes in the following phraseological units are complete or partial. Paraphrase them.

E.g.: *to wear one's heart on one's sleeve* – complete semantic change;

1) *to show one's feeling openly*; 2) *to fall in love easily*.

a) To wear one's heart on one's sleeve; b) a wolf in a sheep's clothing; c) to fly into a temper; d) bosom friend; e) small talk; f) to cast pearls before swine; g) to beat about the bush; h) to add fuel to the fire.

7. What is the source of the following idioms? If in doubt consult your reference books.

E.g.: *the Trojan horse* – Greek mythology, the Troy war.

a) The Trojan horse; b) Achilles heel; c) a labour of Hercules; d) an apple of discord; e) forbidden fruit; f) the serpent in the tree; g) an ugly duckling; h) the fifth column; i) to hide one's head in the sand.

8. Read the following jokes. Explain why the italicised groups of words are not phraseological units.

Warning

The little boy whose father was *absorbed in reading* a newspaper on the bench *in the city park*, exclaimed: "Daddy, look, a plane!"

His father, still reading the paper, said: "All right, but don't *touch it*."

Great Discovery

A scientist rushed into the ops room of the space mission control centre: "You know that new gigantic computer which was to be the brain of the project? We have just *made a great discovery*!"

"What discovery?"

"It doesn't work!"

9. State which of the phraseological units are a) fusions; b) unities; c) collocations (combinations).

E.g.: *bark up the wrong tree* – unity.

1) Bark up the wrong tree; 2) air one's views; 3) turn a blind eye to something; 4) to hit below the bolt; 5) to lower one's colours; 6) to make a mistake; 7) once in a blue moon; 8) to make haste slow; 9) sharp words; 10) to stick to one's guns; 11) to know the way the wind is blowing; 12) small talk; 13) take the bull by the horns; 14) pull somebody's leg; 15) cat's paw; 16) by heart; 17) green room.

10. In the list below find set expressions, corresponding to the following definitions.

E.g.: 1) *to air one's views*.

1. Express one's opinion openly, often with the suggestion of doing so to the annoyance of other people. 2. Direct one's attack, criticism or efforts to the wrong quarter. 3. Bear the main stress or burden (of a task, contest, etc.). 4. Talk around the point instead of coming direct to the subject. 5. Fail to carry out one's promise. 6. Change ownership (generally used of a business). 7. Constantly follow somebody importunately, thrust one's presence upon somebody. 8. Fail to gain any information, or achieve any result from inquiries, investigation, etc. 9. Be docile; give no trouble; do whatever somebody wishes. 10. Pay all the expenses incurred. 11. Do something completely; not stop at half-measures. 12. Give in, surrender. 13. Be almost decided to do something. 14. State the real facts about a situation, guess accurately. 15. Push oneself in front of a queue in order to get on to a vehicle; or to get served with goods before one's turn. 16. Remain mentally calm, and keep control of oneself in an emergency or a difficult situation. 17. Know, from experience, the best way or method of doing something. 18. Help, assist. 19. Indulge in strong or violent language to relieve one's feelings. 20. Pass the time by continuing some kind of work or activity without getting any farther in it. 21. Draw an inference from given facts. 22. Be in agreement, hold similar views. 23. Run away hurriedly. 24. Ignore something, pretend not to see it. 25. Disclaim further responsibility or concern.

The list:

Jump the queue; bark up the wrong tree; foot the bill; let off steam; see eye to eye; air one's views; lend a hand; haul down one's flag; beat about the bush; take to one's heels; eat out of somebody's hand; mark lime; hit the nail on the head; keep one's head; change hands; turn a blind eye to something; put two and two together; bear the brunt; know the ropes; have a good mind to do something; break one's word; draw a blank; go the whole hog; dog somebody's footsteps; wash one's hands of something.

11. Say what structural variations are possible in the following phraseological units. If in doubt, consult the dictionaries.

E.g.: *to catch at a straw – to clutch (or to grasp) at a straw*.

a) To catch at a straw; b) a big bug; c) the last drop; d) to weather the storm; e) to do wonders; f) to run a risk; g) to run in one's head.

12. Show that you understand the meaning of the following phraseological units by using each of them in a sentence.

E.g.: *When I agreed to help my brother in spite of his wife's wish, I appeared between the devil and the deep sea.*

1) Between the devil and the deep sea; 2) to have one's heart in one's boots; 3) to have one's heart in the right place; 4) to wear one's heart on one's sleeve; 5) in the blues; 6) once in a blue moon; 7) to swear black is white; 8) out of the blue; 9) to talk till all is blue; 10) to talk oneself blue in the face.

13. There are many short comparisons used in English to make the language more vivid and clear. Below are thirty of the most common ones. Complete each of them with a suitable word or words. Choose from the following.

E.g.: *As poor as a church mouse.*

1. As mad as	a church mouse
2. As flat as	the hills
3. As dead as	lead
4. As heavy as	a fiddle
5. As light as	a chalk from cheese
6. As regular as	a cucumber
7. As blind as	a bell
8. As different as	a hatter
9. As clear as	a fox
10. As plain as	a berry
11. As like as	gold
12. As cunning as	a bat
13. As hard as	a rock
14. As busy as	a toast
15. As keen as	nails
16. As poor as	a feather
17. As steady as	a pancake
18. As deaf as	a bee
19. As pretty as	mustard
20. As fit as	a post
21. As bold as	a picture
22. As drunk as	a daisy
23. As cool as	the nose on your face

24. As warm as	clockwork
25. As old as	a doornail
26. As fresh as	two peas in a pod
27. As large as	the grave
28. As silent as	brass
29. As good as	a lord
30. As brown as	life

14. Translate the following phraseological units into Ukrainian or Russian by means of equivalents, variants, literal or descriptive translation.

E.g.: *To rob Peter, to pay Paul.* – *Позичив у Івана, щоб віддати Петру (equivalent).*

a) To rob Peter, to pay Paul; b) repentance is good, but innocence is better; c) between two stools one goes to the ground; d) murder will out; e) least said soonest mended; f) facts are stubborn things; g) little pitches have big ears; h) a clever tongue will take you anywhere; i) to add fuel to the fire; j) to go from one extreme to another; k) to gild the pill; l) as like as two peas; m) a hard nut to crack; n) calm before the storm; o) to fight with the windmills; p) to fish in troubled waters; q) to make a mountain out of a molehill.

15. Study the following information about idioms and idiom-aticity of the modern English language (Table 2). What are the main characteristic features of each group of idioms? Guess of more examples for each group.

Table 2. Idioms and Idiom-aticity

Idioms	Habitual collocations
I. Pure idioms	I. Restricted variance,
invariant, non-literal	semi-literal
a) Devil-may-care, back-lash, chin wag, red herring, make off with, spick and span, smell a rat, the coast is clear, etc.	Explode a myth/theory/no-tion/idea/belief, catch the post/mail, thin/flimsy excuse, etc.
Restricted variance, non-literal	
b) Pitter-patter/pit-a-pat, ta-ke/have forty winks, seize/grasp the nettle, get/have/cold feet, etc.	↔

**II. Semi-literal idioms
invariant**

a) Drop names, catch fire, kith and kin, foot the bill, fat chance you've got, etc.

Restricted variance

b) chequered career/history, blue film/story/joke/gag/comedian, good morning/day, etc.

III. Literal idioms invariant

a) On foot; one day; in sum; in the meantime; on the contrary; arm in arm; very important person (VIP); potato crisps; tall, dark and handsome; waste not, want not; happy New Year, etc.

Restricted variance

b) Opt in favour of/for, for example/instance, in order that/to, happy/ merry Christmas, etc.

Literal idioms

**IV. Restricted variance,
optional elements**

abstain (from), (even) worse, worse (still), develop (from) (into), etc.

**II. Restricted variance,
literal**

Addled brains/eggs, in-the-not-too distant past/future, for certain/sure, potato/corn/wood, etc. chips, etc.

III. Unrestricted variance, semi-literal

Catch a bus/plane/ferry, etc. train, run a business/company, etc. theatre, by dint of hard work/patience/repetition, etc.

IV. Unrestricted variance, literal

Beautiful/lovely, etc. sweet woman, smooth/plump, etc. glowing/rosy cheeks, etc.

**V. Restricted variance,
literal, optional elements**

Shrug (one's shoulders), nod (one's head), clap (one's hands), etc.

16. Express the idea of the following by using suitable proverbs to fill in the gaps. Consult the reference list below.

1. You're making _____. You wrote one bad essay – it doesn't mean you're going to fail your degree.

2. "This company is full of incompetents! They cannot even operate modern computers" "Well, if _____."

3. I'd advise anyone to put aside a proportion of their earnings – a _____.

4. At the end of the month we all worked ____ to meet the deadline.
5. The summer camp was being dismantled, and the tribe, ____, including children, was preparing to go off to the fall hunting.
6. On a bad day, she isn't satisfied till the entire family is in tears. ____.
7. Fred's wife knew he wasn't happy in his job, even though it paid well; still, she felt that advising him to leave it would be ____.
8. Don't worry, you'll get chosen for the team. You may become famous some day. ____.
9. I wish someone could give me a good piece of advice whether to get a bad job or give everything up and take a gap year to look for something more profitable. I am really between ____.
10. I've always thought it best not to dwell on grievances too long. ____.
11. Why can't you put all that bad feeling behind you and let ____?
12. If a job belongs to everybody, then it does not belong to any one individual. Unless everyone in that office is given a specific, clear task within the group they are working with, they will believe that someone else is responsible and the project will be neglected. Everybody's ____.
13. I'd love to go water-skiing with you now, but I have a few things to do in the office first. ____.
14. I'll hold the ladder while you climb up: ____.
15. They simply buy what they came to buy, read what they came to read, do what they came to do, and do not care about the world around – ____.
16. "My son stuck his finger into the electrical outlet and got a huge shock! He said he wanted to find out how it would feel." "It's a good thing he wasn't hurt! ____."
17. Mr. Smith is so rich he doesn't need any more money. To give him a gift certificate is like ____.
18. They can't afford a vacation abroad – they have to cut expenses and ____.
19. They're not even sisters, but they're like as ____.
20. He is ____ because he is always parking and "just running in" without feeding the meter a quarter, and returns to find a parking ticket attached to his windshield.
21. You may not agree with Mr. Brown but he funded this venture, and he who ____.
22. The reason we came out alive is because we worked together. After all, it ____.
23. It's not a good idea trying to get more advantages after you have signed the contract as it is. As they say, ____.

24. "I can't believe how peaceful the office is today, when yesterday everyone was either being fired or threatening to quit". "After ____".

25. "I may have cheated on that math test, but I stayed up all night watching reruns of Cheers! What else was I supposed to do?" "Hey, any ____".

26. "I'm the best student in my history class. I'm sure I can pass the exam without studying very hard". "Be careful. ____, you know".

27. First of all it was the car breaking down, then the fire in the kitchen and now Mike's accident. It never ____!

28. "Next year I will go to college and find a good job. Then, finally, I will be able to leave my parents' house". "Slow down. Don't ____".

29. You ought to stay in and look after your father. ____.

30. "This guy wearing glasses looks rather foolish". "But ____ he might be very clever".

31. It's true I've only known him for six months and I know you're thinking "marry ____" but I'm telling you, he's the man for me.

32. Janice may have a pretty face, but ____; the way she behaves isn't pretty at all.

33. "Are you sure we can eat this with our hands?" "Why not? All of these people are. When ____."

34. You should always take your time when doing your taxes and check your numbers very carefully; ____.

35. With unemployment at record levels, plans for better advertising of job vacancies are a bit like ____.

36. Max has no idea of how to get the money to repair his boat, but where there's ____.

37. David talks as if he's an expert on everything, but ____.

38. Criticism has never bothered me: ____, and all that.

39. Microsoft, which is now the biggest independent software company in the world, was founded in 1975 by just two men. It goes to show that great ____.

40. The new law makes all children under twelve wear bicycle helmets – an ounce ____.

41. Can you thread this needle for me? I'm ____ today. You know when you get nervous and you're all fingers ____.

42. I always thought Amy was pretentious, and now she's going out with that snobbish boy, Louis. ____.

43. When problems occur in business, the most adaptable entrepreneurs jump at the opportunity to make a change. Occasionally, though, they jump too fast and do not ____.

44. After she hit her third winning shot, Jeannie looked ____.

45. He fixed my bike so I let him use my computer. One ____.

Reference list: One good turn deserves another; be all thumbs (all fingers are thumbs); Empty vessels make the most noise; haste makes waste; Don't count your chicken before they are hatched; After a storm comes a calm; like the cat that ate the canary; It takes two to tango; better safe than sorry; to make a mountain out of a molehill; Curiosity killed the cat; After meat mustard; Look before you leap; Where there's a will there's a way; Marry in haste, repent at leisure; If you pay peanuts you get monkeys; Let bygones be bygones; It never rains but it pours; Least said soonest mended; You can't judge a book by its cover; When in Rome do as the Romans do; Every dog has its day; Birds of a feather flock together; Pride comes before a fall; Cut your coat according to your cloth; kill the goose that lays the golden egg(s); An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure; To be like two peas in a pod; Pretty is as pretty does; business before pleasure; A penny saved is a penny earned; Mighty oaks from little acorns grow; Charity begins at home; Sticks and stones may break my bones; be like rearranging the deckchairs on the Titanic; hammer and tongs; Between the devil and the deep blue sea; Ignorance is bliss; any port in a storm; bag and baggage; He who pays the piper calls the tune; Misery loves company; Everybody's business is nobody's business; penny-wise and pound-foolish; to carry coals to Newcastle.

KEYS TO THE EXERCISES

Exercise 1: 2) one's in a blue moon; 3) till all is blue; 4) out of the blue; 5) in black and white; 6) to swear black is white.

Exercise 2: a. 1) open one's heart to everybody; 2) to have one's heart in the right place; 3) by heart; 4) it makes my heart bleed; 5) it brought my heart into my mouth; 6) after my heart; 7) my heart is not broken.

b. 1) to have a bad hand at something; 2) to be out of hand; 3) arm in arm.

c. 1) to have a clear head; 2) to hang one's head; 3) collect eyes; 4) see with half an eye.

d. 1) be on one's feet; 2) have two left feet; 3) hang a lag; 4) pull one's lag.

Exercise 5: b) a person who is a groom's witness during the wedding; c) somebody failed to use the chance; d) to boast; e) to make the relations warmer; f) to get a sad experience; g) the first performance of the play; h) to fight difficulties, to survive; i) to stop dealing with somebody; j) to fall down, reduce; k) to embarrass, overwhelm somebody.

Exercise 6: b) complete change; to pretend being friendly; c) partial change; to lose one's temper; d) complete change; to be soul-mates with somebody; e) complete change; to talk about weather, unimportant things; f) complete change; to share high ideas with the people who are not interested, down-to-earth; g) partial change; to talk about things indirectly, secretly, by hints; h) partial change; to do something that makes a situation worse.

Exercise 7: b) Greek mythology; c) Greek mythology; d) Biblical story; e) Biblical story; f) Biblical story; g) a fairy tale by H. Anderson; h) historical events in Spain; i) zoology, animal behaviour.

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

Exercise 10: 1) to air one's views; 2) bark up the wrong tree; 3) bear the brunt; 4) to beat about the bush; 5) break one's word; 6) change hand; 7) eat out of somebody's hands; 8) draw a blank; 9) dog somebody's footsteps; 10) foot the bill; 11) go the whole hog; 12) haul down one's flag; 13) have a good mind to do something; 14) hit the nail on the head; 15) jump a queue; 16) keep one's head; 17) know the ropes; 18) lend a hand; 19) let off steam; 20) mark lime; 21) put two and two together; 22) see eye to eye; 23) take to one's heels; 24) turn a blind eye to something; 25) wash one's hands of something.

Exercise 11: b) a big pot (gum, shot, noise; Am.: dog, cheese, fish); c) the last drop (makes the cup run over); d) to build a castle on the sand; e) ride (ride out) the storm.

Exercise 14: b) Каяття добре, а невинність – краще (literal translation).

c) На двох стільцях не всидиш (equivalent).

d) Сколько веревочке ни виться, а конец будет (variant).

e) Розмовами діла не зробиш (variant).

f) Факти – річ уперта (equivalent).

g) Й у стін є вуха (variant).

h) Язык до Києва доведе (variant).

i) Підливати масла у вогонь (equivalent).

j) Кидаться из одной крайности в другую (equivalent).

k) Позолотити пілюлю (equivalent).

l) Схожі, як дві краплі води (як дві половинки яблука) (variant).

m) Міцний горішок (equivalent).

n) Тиша перед бурею (equivalent).

o) Боротися з вітряками (equivalent).

p) Ловити рибку в каламутній воді (variant).

q) Робити з мухи слона (variant).

Exercise 16.

1. To make a mountain out of a molehill: to cause something simple to seem much more difficult or important.

2. If you pay peanuts you get monkeys: only stupid people will work for you if you do not pay very much.

3. A penny saved is a penny earned: it is wise to save money.

4. Hammer and tongs: with tremendous energy or effort; vigorously.

5. Bag and baggage: all that belongs to one.

6. Misery loves company: unhappy people like other people to be unhappy too.

7. Kill the goose that lays the golden egg(s): to destroy something that is profitable to you.

8. Every dog has its day: everyone gets a chance eventually.

9. Between the devil and the deep blue sea: to choose between two undesirable situations.

10. Least said soonest mended: a bad event or situation can be forgotten more easily if you do not talk about it.

11. Let bygones be bygones: forget about unpleasant things that have happened in the past.

12. Everybody's business is nobody's business: If a job belongs to everybody, then it does not belong to any one individual.

13. Business before pleasure: work is more important than entertainment and enjoyment.

14. Better safe than sorry: being careful is probably more desirable than risking a bad result.

15. Ignorance is bliss: lack of knowledge results in happiness.

16. Curiosity killed the cat: inquisitiveness can lead one into dangerous situations.

17. To carry coals to Newcastle: to do something pointless and superfluous.

18. Cut your coat according to your cloth: only buy what you have enough money to pay for.

19. To be like two peas in a pod: very similar, bearing a close resemblance.

20. To be penny-wise and pound-foolish: to be cautious with small amounts of money, but careless with larger amounts.

21. He who pays the piper calls the tune: the person who provides the money for something can decide how it should be done.

22. It takes two to tango: this cannot happen without more than one person, e.g. when two people have a conflict, both people are at fault.

23. After meat mustard: doing a thing, or offering service when it is too late, or when there is no longer need thereof.

24. After a storm comes a calm: people or weather cannot stay in turmoil for very long, calmer times will always follow.

25. Any port in a storm: when you're in trouble, any way out is a good way out.

26. Pride comes before a fall: if you are too proud and overconfident, you will make mistakes leading to your defeat. (Biblical)

27. It never rains but it pours: when troubles come they come together making the situation even worse.

28. Don't count your chicken before they are hatched: you should not count on something before it happens.

29. Charity begins at home: you should try to help your family and friends before you help other people.

30. You can't judge a book by its cover: don't make judgments based only on appearances.

31. Marry in haste, repent at leisure: if you marry someone too soon, without knowing for certain that they are the right person for you, you will have an unhappy marriage.

32. Pretty is as pretty does: it is more important to treat people well than to be good-looking; just because you are good-looking does not mean you are a good person. (Said only of girls and women.)

33. When in Rome do as the Romans do: a visitor should try to act as the people do who are from that place when you are visiting a new place, you should try to do as the people do who are from the place.

34. Haste makes waste: says that when we act too quickly ("haste") we are more likely to make mistakes and end up with poor results ("waste").

35. Be like rearranging the deckchairs on the Titanic: doing useless, ineffective activity.

36. Where there's a will there's a way: if we have the determination to do something, we can always find the path or method to do it.

37. Empty vessels make the most noise: those people who have a little knowledge usually talk the most and make the greatest fuss.

38. Sticks and stones may break my bones: people cannot hurt you with bad things they say or write about you.

39. Mighty oaks from little acorns grow: great things may come from small beginnings.

40. An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure: it is better to try to avoid problems in the first place, rather than trying to fix them once they arise.

41. Be all thumbs (All fingers are thumbs): too excited or clumsy to do something properly that requires manual dexterity.

42. Birds of a feather flock together: those of similar taste congregate in groups.

43. Look before you leap: you should think carefully about the possible results or consequences before doing something.

44. Like the cat that ate the canary: appear smug and self-satisfied; annoy other people by looking very pleased with oneself because of something good that one has done.

45. One good turn deserves another: if someone does something to help you, you should do something to help them.

GLOSSARY

1. *Adjective word-groups* are the subordinative word-groups where the head-word is an adjective.

2. *Coordinative word-groups* are non-predicative word-groups where the members are functionally and semantically equal.

3. *Endocentric word-groups* are the word-groups where the central component is the dominant members or the head to which all other members of the group are subordinated.

4. *Exocentric word-groups* are the groups which have no central member.

5. *Free word-groups* are the units which are freely made up in speech by the speakers according to the needs of communication. They consist of syntactically connected national words within a sentence.

6. *Grammatical valency* is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (syntactical) structures.

7. *Idiom* is the term denoting a mode of expression peculiar to a language. The English use it without differentiating between the grammatical and lexical levels.

8. *Idiomaticity* is the quality of a phraseological unit, according to which the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts; lack of motivation from the point of view of native speakers.

9. *Lexical valency* (collocability) is the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations, with other words.

10. *Meaning of a word-group* is the combined lexical meaning of its components.

11. *Nominal word-groups* are the subordinative word-groups where the head word is a noun.

12. *Nominative-communicative phraseological units* include verbal word-groups which are transformed into a sentence when the verb is used in the Passive Voice.

13. *Nominative phraseological units* are represented by nominal word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word, and coordinative word-groups.

14. *Non-idioms* are non-idiomatic restricted collocations.

15. *Phraseological combinations* are the units which are motivated and contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively.

16. *Phraseological equivalents* are the units which have the same semantic meaning and stylistic usage of the idiom in the source language.

17. *Phraseological fusion* are the specific units; the meaning of their components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole.

18. *Phraseological unities* are the units which are clearly motivated and their emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole.

19. *Phraseological units* are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech; they exist in the language as ready-made units.

20. *Phraseological variants* are the units which are based on different notions in different languages covering similar meaning.

21. *Phrasicon* is the whole inventory of idioms and phrases, both word-like and sentence-like set expressions.

22. *Predicative word-groups* have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence.

23. *Pronominal word-group* is the subordinative word-group where the head word is a pronoun.

24. *Reproducibility* is regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations.

25. *Semi-free word groups* (or non-phraseological word-groups) possess structural stability combined with the lack of semantic unity and figurativeness.

26. *Set expression* denotes fixed units characterized by stability and ready-made usage.

27. *Stability of a phraseological unit* is its ability to exist as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow any variability of its lexical components or grammatical structure.

28. *Subordinative word-groups* are non-predicative word-groups which have head words and the words which are subordinated to theme and functions as their attributes.

29. *Verbal word-groups* are the subordinative word-groups where the head word is a verb.

Recommended literature

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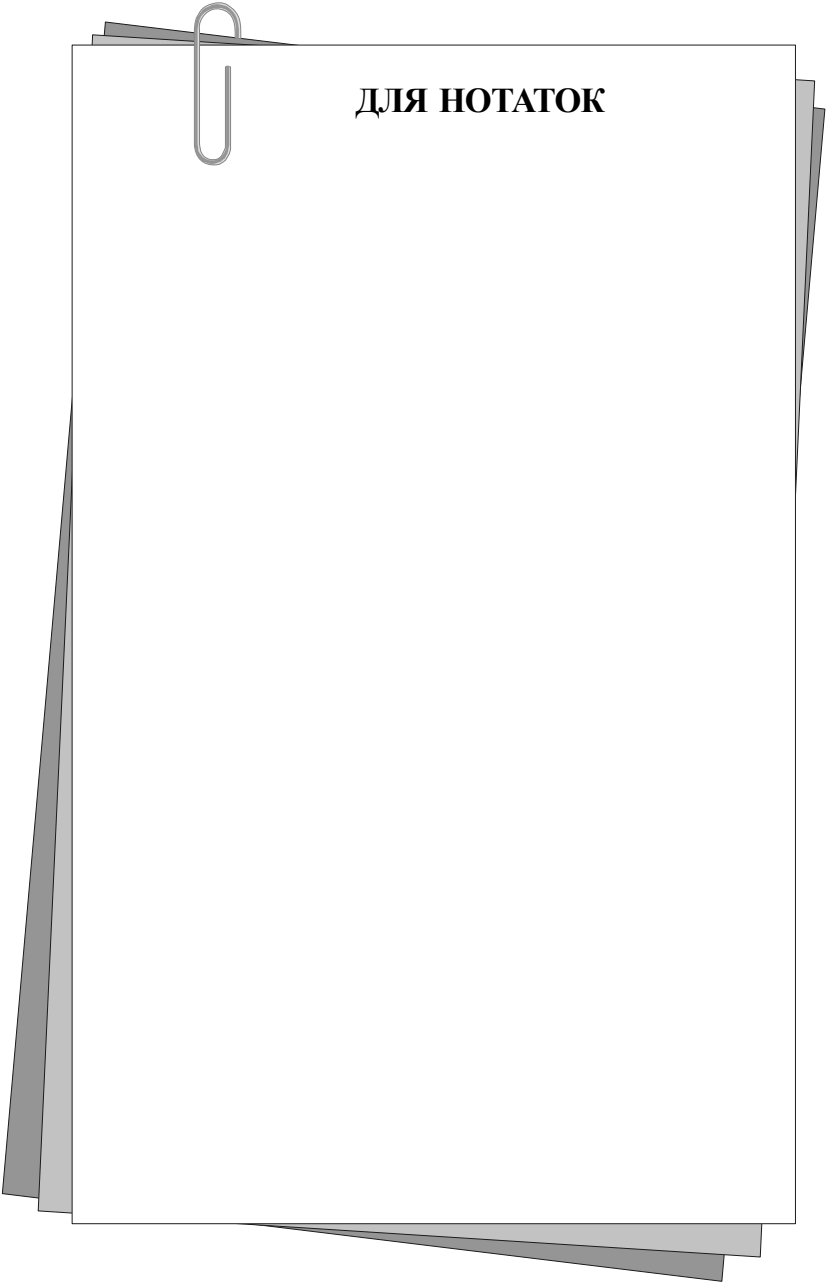
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