

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ
Житомирський державний університет імені Івана Франка

КУРС ЛЕКЦІЙ З ВИБІРКОВОЇ ОСВІТНЬОЇ КОМПОНЕНТИ

«Теорія сучасної англійської мови»

*для студентів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти
спеціальності А3 Початкова освіта, А2 Дошкільна освіта*

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Курс лекцій з вибіркової освітньої компоненти «Теорія сучасної англійської мови» для студентів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності А3 Початкова освіта, А2 Дошкільна освіта / Уклад. Вознюк О.В., Михайлова О.С. Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ імені Івана Франка, 2025. 64 с.

Курс лекцій з вибіркової освітньої компоненти «Теорія сучасної англійської мови» створено відповідно до навчального плану цієї дисципліни. Вони спрямовані на підтримку самостійної роботи студентів та підвищення їхньої підготовки до опанування освітніх вимог другого (магістерського) рівня за спеціальністю А3 Початкова освіта, А2 Дошкільна освіта.

Це видання буде корисним для студентів 1 та 2 курсу магістратури, які вивчають відповідну дисципліну, готуються до відповідної професійної діяльності.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Активні інтеграційні процеси щодо входження України до європейської спільноти, приєднання до Болонської декларації та орієнтація на загальноєвропейські стандарти вищої освіти спрямовані на реформування системи вищої освіти і модернізацію професійної підготовки майбутніх педагогів. У Національній доктрині розвитку освіти України у XXI столітті наголошується на необхідності формування демократичного світогляду, адаптованого до нових умов роботи. У зв'язку з цим функції викладача/вчителя змінюються: його/її діяльність орієнтована на створення умов для саморозвитку учасників освітнього процесу, розвитку їхніх потреб і здібностей.

Мета реформи вищої освіти полягає у забезпеченні якісної підготовки фахівців і створенні нового підґрунтя для розвитку особистості педагога. Особливе місце у цьому процесі посідає лекційний курс з вибіркової освітньої компоненти.

Лекція постає основною формою освітнього процесу, призначених для засвоєння теоретичного матеріалу. Мета лекції – розкрити основні положення теми, досягнення науки, з'ясувати невирішені проблеми, узагальнити досвід роботи, дати рекомендації щодо використання основних висновків за темами на практичних заняттях.

Основні вимоги до лекції.

1. Наявність і зміст лекції.

2. Підготовленість викладача до лекції.

3. План лекції – це обов'язковий і необхідний документ для роботи.

4. Зміст лекції: мета та спрямованість лекції, її виховна роль; науковий рівень лекції, наявність узагальнень, які надають лекції наукову переконливість і сувору доведеність; уміння викладача викликати у слухачів потяг до творчої оцінки наукових проблем, що розглядаються; повнота і точність визначень, що формулюються, відповідність використовуваної термінології і позначень вимогам тестів, зв'язок лекції з підручником або навчальними посібниками з курсу; відповідність змісту лекції програмі і тематичному плану.

5. Структура лекції: наявність в лекції вступу, який містить чітке формування теми лекції і постановку завдання, логічна послідовність, розподіл і взаємозв'язок окремих частин лекції, що полегшують розуміння лекції, наявність у лекції висновків, що дають змогу осмислити лекцію в цілому, виділити її основну ідею, конкретність завдання на самостійну роботу.

6. Стиль лекції: уміння лектора чітко і ясно викладати свої думки; багатство мови лектора; уміння лектора чітко і вільно викладати навчальний матеріал без надмірної залежності від конспекту лекції: теми викладання лекції; контакт лектора з аудиторією, вміння активізувати увагу слухачів, забезпечення можливості конспектування основного змісту лекції.

7. Забезпеченість лекції наочними посібниками і технічними засобами навчання: наявність і якість наочних посібників, методичні прийоми їх використання, вміння аналізувати результати демонстрацій, використання технічних засобів навчання. Активізацією творчого мислення студентів на лекції можна й треба забезпечити постановкою проблеми перед початком вивчення нового матеріалу або в ході його вивчення.

Обов'язковою умовою лекційного заняття повинна стати робота з опорним конспектом у ході освітнього процесу.

МЕТА ОСВІТНЬОЇ КОМПОНЕНТИ, ЇЇ ЗАВДАННЯ ТА РЕЗУЛЬТАТИ НАВЧАННЯ

Мета освітньої компоненти: формування у студентів базових знань теоретичних основ у галузі сучасної англійської мови та професійної мовознавчої компетентності у галузі навчання іноземних мов.

Завданнями освітньої компоненти «Теорія сучасної англійської мови» є:

- ознайомлення з особливостями навчання іноземних мов в умовах інформаційного суспільства;
- ознайомлення зі специфікою ролей сучасного вчителя іноземних мов;
- формування навичок екстраполяції основних мовознавчих понять на суміжні дисципліни;
- формування соціолінгвістичних компетентностей (соціокультурної та лінгвокультурознавчої);
- формування прагматичних компетентностей (зокрема, дискурсивної);
- формування у студентів на рівні C1 (за шкалою документації Ради Європи): лінгвістичних компетентностей (лексичної, граматичної, орфографічної, семантичної, фонологічної, орфоепічної);
- вдосконалення умінь взаємодії у фаховій сфері в умовах становлення міжнародного глобалізованого суспільства

Результати навчання

В результаті вивчення освітньої компоненти здобувачі вищої освіти повинні

знати:

- базові категорії лінгвістики та основних аспектів сучасної англійської мови (основ етимології англійського словника, типів запозичень; морфологічних ознак англійської мови, класифікації суфіксів, префіксів та основних шляхів словотвору в сучасній англійській мові та ін.);
- особливості будови мовної структури англійської мови на фонетичному, морфологічному, лексичному, синтаксичному та семантичному рівнях;
- основи етимології англійського словника, типи запозичень;
- основні поняття теоретичної граматики;
- особливості функціонування навчального, пізнавального, виховного і розвивального аспектів іншомовної освіти.

вміти:

- самостійно узагальнювати і систематизувати теоретичний матеріал, встановити взаємозв'язок та взаємозалежність мовних засобів на всіх рівнях мовної структури англійської мови (фонетичному, морфологічному, лексичному, синтаксичному та семантичному);
- аналізувати основні аспекти сучасної англійської мови (основи етимології англійського словника, типи запозичень);
- використовувати міжпредметні зв'язки для аналізу явищ; логічно і послідовно відповідати на поставлені питання, демонструючи володіння термінологією;
- спілкуватися рідною та іноземною мовами як усно, так і письмово у різних сферах спілкування (особистісній, публічній, освітній та професійній);
- вести ділову документацію;
- розв'язувати проблеми та приймати обґрунтовані рішення;
- встановлювати ділові та міжособистісні контакти, взаємодіяти з представниками різних груп, працювати в команді;
- використовувати сучасні, інноваційні технології навчання; чітко,

- послідовно та логічно висловлювати свої думки та переконання, формувати висновки, спонукати до висловлювання своїх суджень та формулювання висновків учасників взаємодії;

- використовувати особистісно орієнтовані технології спілкування, що передбачають узгодження інтересів всіх учасників взаємодії і сприяє досягненню ними суспільно значущих цілей.

Під час вивчення освітньої компоненти у студентів вищої освіти формуються соціальні навички (*soft-skills*):

- комунікація: вміння слухати, вміння переконувати і аргументувати, командна робота, самопрезентація, цілеспрямованість на результат, ділові навички письма;

- управління собою: управління емоціями, управління стресом, управління власним розвитком, енергійність, наполегливість, цілеспрямованість, ініціативність;

- мислення: системне мислення, креативне мислення, структурне мислення, логічне мислення, пошук інформації, аналіз інформації;

- управління навиками: управління виконанням, планування, постановка задач, мотивація, контроль реалізації задач.

КУРС ЛЕКЦІЙ

ІНФОРМАЦІЙНИЙ ОБСЯГ ОСВІТНЬОЇ КОМПОНЕНТИ

Модуль 1. The structure, subject, aims and content of the theoretical course.

The aim of the course is to teach students to be word-conscious, to be able to guess the meaning of words they come across from the meanings of morphemes as well as to be able to recognize the origin of different lexical units; to deepen students' understanding of crucial theoretical constructs; to awaken students' perception of language differences and language variation, to help them become good observers of how language works and to make them better users of English. The course is also meant to supply students with a possibility to verify and validate theoretical statements, to serve as language basis for various classifications and reliable predictions, to formulate rules resulting from observation and to find explanations.

Language is never stable: it undergoes changes on all its levels: phonetic, morphological, lexical, phraseological, etc.

Standard English is the official language of Great Britain used in its literary form. Regional varieties possessing a literary form are called national variants. Local dialects are varieties of English peculiar to some districts and having no normalized literary form. In Great Britain there are two variants, Scottish English and Irish English, and five main groups of dialects: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. Every group contains several (up to ten) dialects. The local dialects are used mainly by the rural population and only for the purposes of oral communication. Local distinctions are more marked in pronunciation, less conspicuous in vocabulary and insignificant in grammar.

English is the national language of England proper, the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. Hence, there exist five national variants: British English (BE), American English (AE), Canadian English (CnE), Australian English (AuE), New Zealand English (NZE).

These five varieties of English are national variants of the same language, because their structural peculiarities, especially their word-formation system, syntax and morphology, as well as their word-stock and phonetic system are essentially the same.

The main lexical differences of these variants from Standard English (General English) are connected with the lack of equivalent lexical units in one of them, divergences in the semantic structure of polysemantic words and peculiarities of usage of some words on the British Isles and in the named countries. The historic causes of the deviations in lexis are based on the fact of exporting the language of the mother country on a certain date of colonization.

The variety of English spoken in the USA has received the name of American English. The term variant or variety appears most appropriate for several reasons. American English cannot be called a dialect although it is a regional variety, because it has a literary normalized form called Standard American, whereas a dialect has no literary form.

The most characteristic feature of English is its mixed character. While it is wrong to speak of the mixed character of the language as a whole, the composite nature of the English vocabulary cannot be denied.

The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as semasiology. Meaning is one of the most difficult problems in the theory of language and it has been the topic of interminable discussions. There is no universally accepted definition of meaning. All the linguists agree that word-meaning is not homogeneous but it is made up of various components. They are usually described as types of meaning grammatical and lexical.

Synonymy is one of the most difficult and controversial problems, and the most controversial point is the problem of criteria of synonymy and the definition of synonyms. Traditional linguistics solved the problem with the notional criterion and defined synonyms as words of the same part of

speech conveying the same notion but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics. Some aspects of this definition have been criticised. It has been pointed out that linguistic phenomena should be defined in linguistic terms and the term «notion» makes this an extralinguistic definition.

In contemporary linguistics the semantic criterion of synonymy is frequently used. In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the same or nearly the same denotation (or the denotative components) but differing in connotations (in emotive charge or in stylistic characteristics).

Phraseological units are habitually defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units; the other essential feature of phraseological units is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure. 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.

Stylistically words can be subdivided into formal, neutral and informal layers. The formal and informal layers contain a number of subgroups. The main aspect of the formal layer is its bookish character, which makes the layer more or less stable. The aspect of the informal layer is its lively spoken character. It is this that makes it unstable. The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character: it can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity.

Both formal and informal words have their upper and lower ranges. The lower range of bookish words approaches the neutral layer and has a tendency to pass into that layer. The same may be said of the upper range of the informal layer: it can very easily pass into the neutral layer. The lines of demarcation between informal and neutral, on the one hand, and bookish and neutral, on the other hand, are blurred. Neutral words, which form the bulk of the English vocabulary, are used in both literary and colloquial language.

Lecture 1.

The theory of modern English as a system of scientific facts and academic discipline

Plan

1. The subject of theoretical course and its aims.
2. Connection of theoretical course with other sciences.
3. Two approaches to language study.
4. Language as a fundamental phenomenon of humankind
5. Interesting psycholinguistic phenomena

Recommended Reading

1. Бережняк В. М. Загальне мовознавство : хрестоматія; Ніжин. держ. ун-т ім. М. Гоголя. Ніжин : Вид-во НДУ ім. М. Гоголя, 2011. 361 с.
2. Волкова Л.М. Теоретична грамати́ка англійської мови: сучасний підхід. Навчальний посібник. К.: Освіта України, 2010. 256 с.
3. Колесник О.С., Гаращук Л. А., Гаращук К. В. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови : навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов. – Житомир : Вид-во ЖДУ імені Івана Франка, 2015. 226 с.
4. Соловйова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. 232 с.

Optional

1. Верба Л.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. 160 с.

2. Сучасна українська літературна мова: За редакцією Грищенка А. П. Київ: "Вища школа", 2002. 327 с.
3. Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

Internet resources:

4. Бібліотека Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка: режим доступу: http://irbis.zu.edu.ua/cgi-bin/irbis64r_11/cgiirbis_64.exe
5. Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>
1. British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

1.The fundamentals

(The subject of theoretical course and its aims)

Three methodological aspects of studying every subject:

The general (essential and overall) – the theory of modern English

The particular (special) – the usage of modern English

The singular (concrete) – the ways of teaching modern English to pupils/children

The aim of the course is to teach students to ***be word-conscious***, to be able to guess the meaning of words they come across from the meanings of morphemes as well as to be able to recognize the origin of different lexical units; to deepen students' understanding of crucial theoretical constructs; to ***awaken students' perception of language differences and language variation, to help them become good observers of how language works and to make them better users of English***. The course is also meant to supply students with a possibility to verify and validate theoretical statements, to serve as language basis for various classifications and reliable predictions, to formulate rules resulting from observation and to find explanations.

2.The sources of theoretical course are as follows

(Connection of theoretical course with other sciences)

Special aspects:

Lexicology (studies words and phrases, i.e. vocabulary of a language)

The history of the language (etymology of words)

Phonetics (acoustic level of the language)

Grammar (morphemes as parts of words and grammatical rules of their combining)

Stylistics (words as stylistic devices)

General aspects:

General linguistics

Psycholinguistics

Anthropology,

Psychology

Philosophy

Pedagogy, etc.

3. Two approaches to language study are:

Synchronic (syn = together, chronos = time). The synchronic approach is concerned with the state of a language at a given period of time.

Diachronic (dia = through, chronos = time). The diachronic approach deals with the changes and the development of the language in the course of time.

The two approaches should not be contrasted: they are interconnected and interdependent. Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops together with the development of society, therefore language and its vocabulary must be studied in the light of social history. Every new phenomenon in human society and in human activity in general finds a reflection in vocabulary. E.g.: nylon (technology), sputnik (science)

4. Language as a fundamental phenomenon of humankind

Language serves as:

- 1) *mechanism of man's development (from a babe to Homo sapiens)*
- 2) *tool/means of thinking*
- 3) *means of communication and different activities*
- 4) *means of transmitting information from one generation to another*
- 5) *means of influencing and manipulation*
- 6) *means of healing / curing*

Two major aspects:

language as a process of communication

language as a system of signs and symbols

Language is a process of communication being the process of exchanging ideas, message or information from one individual (the speaker) to another (the receiver) through gestures, emotional states (extralinguistic means), signs or words (language) that are comprehensible between the two parties. Communication is essential for a community or organization so that their members will be able to work in concert.

In every type and level of a community or organization, communication is needed. It involves a two-way process that has different elements, namely:

The sender

Encoding process

Message

Channel (phone calls, text messages, emails media platforms, words, etc.)

The receiver

Decoding process

Feedback

Language is a system of signs and symbols through which people communicate and through which culture is transmitted. Some languages contain a system of symbols used for written communication, while others rely on only spoken communication and nonverbal actions.

The structure of language as a system of signs and symbols

Levels / floors of language

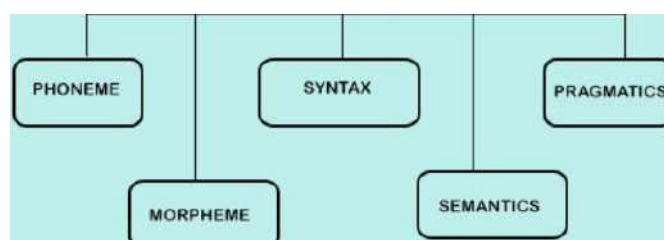
Sound / letters

Syllable

Word

Word combination

Sentence / text



Phonemes –

Phonology is the study of sounds of a language. Phonemes are the smallest distinguishable units in a language. In the English language, many consonants, such as t, p, and m, correspond to single phonemes, while other consonants, such as c and g, can correspond to more than one phoneme. Vowels typically correspond to more than one phoneme. No human language uses all the sounds humans can make. Moreover, the number of phonemes varies with each language. For example, English has 46; Italian has 27; Hawaiian has 13 and the so on.

Morphemes –

Morphology is the study of meaningful parts of words. Morphemes are the smallest meaningful units in a language. In the English language, only a few single letters, such as I and a, are morphemes. Morphemes are usually whole words or meaningful parts of words, such as prefixes, suffixes, and word stems.

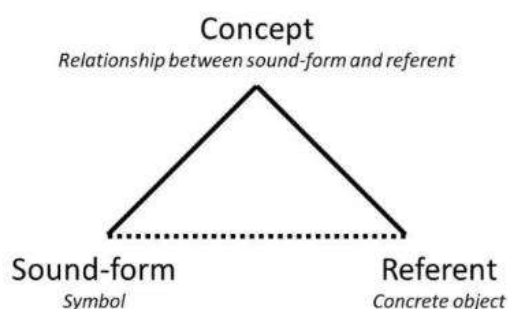
Syntax –

Syntax is a system of rules that governs how words can be meaningfully arranged to form phrases and sentences. For example, one rule of syntax is that an article such as “the” must come before a noun, not after: “Read the book,” not “Read book the.”

Semantics –

Semantics concerns the meanings of words, signs, symbols, and the phrases that represent them. More specifically, it is the study of meanings through the relationships of words, how they are used, and how they are said.

The referential approach to meaning is shown in a semantic triangle



A word, through its meaning rendering some notion, is a generalized reflection of reality.

The development of any language was/is realized through movement from concrete things to their direct images and from the latter to the symbols and letters/words. This process is shown in the evolution of the fish pictograph over time:



Pragmatics –

Pragmatics is concerned with the use of language in social contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language. Pragmatics is concerned with practical language use and comprehension. It is concerned with intended rather than literal meaning

Language development and acquisition

The stages the children go through while language development can be described as follows –

Stage I – 0 to 8 weeks

This stage lasts from about 0 to 8 weeks, and is concerned with the Basic biological noises. These sounds directly reflect the baby's biological state and activities: breathing, eating, excreting,

sucking, swallowing, coughing, burping, etc. Also, the other sounds included are the crying sounds such as hunger cries, pain cries, and discomfort cries, etc.

Stage II – 8 to 20 weeks

This is the Cooing stage in which the vowel like sounds of rather indeterminate character with nasal quality which are often accompanied by a preceding consonant like sound, are produced towards the back of the vocal tract.

Stage III – 20 to 30 weeks

This stage includes Vocal Play on the part of the child. Longer segments with higher pitch variation are produced. This stage also includes higher absolute pitch, as well as consonant+vowel like sequence.

Stage IV – 25 to 50 weeks

At this stage the child begins to engage in Babbling. Smaller set of sounds start to be repeated more often than in vocal play. The sounds become highly reiterative [babababa, dadadada, gagaga], and there is no clear boundary between babbling and spoken language.

Stage V

At this stage, Melodic Utterances start to occur. There is closest imitation of real speech with no meaning. Also, there is high use of different sound segments (consonants& vowels), and suprasegmental features are already being imitated.

5. Interesting psycholinguistic phenomena

*** Wonderful phenomena of communication:**

The phenomenon of the mirror neurons

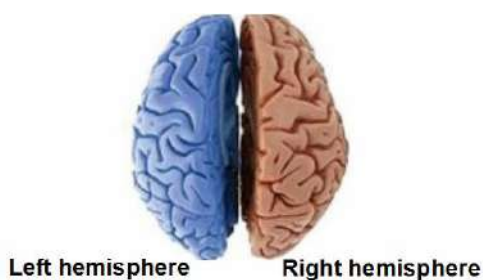
The phenomenon of ideomotor acts

The phenomenon of increasing person's aggression while using a foreign language

Hypnotic communication/influence

The hemispheric peculiarities of human brain's functioning

<i>LEFT HEMISPHERE</i>	<i>RIGHT HEMISPHERE</i>
symbols, signs, abstract notions	images, concrete things
speech rhythm	speech melody, tune
mechanisms of searching for the ways of achieving aim	mechanisms of aim creation
cold colour spectrum	hot colour spectrum,
orientation to future	orientation to past
second signalling system	first signalling system
verbal-logical thinking	concrete-emotional, visual thinking
hardness, analysis	flexibility, intuition
non-automatic, intentional psychic activity	automatic and spontaneous psychic activity
volitional psychic spheres	non-volitional psychic sphere
accurate, monosemantic linguistic and motivation context	uncertain, polysemantic linguistic and motivation context
masculine, rational and analytical	feminine, sensational and emotional



Lecture 2.

Lexical morphology of English and word formation patterns

Plan

1. General idea of morphology of English
2. The role of morphology in the process of mastering English
3. Morphemes as the building blocks of morphology
4. Word formation process
5. The methods of mastering the word formation patterns

Recommended Reading

1. Бережняк В. М. Загальне мовознавство : хрестоматія; Ніжин. держ. ун-т ім. М. Гоголя. Ніжин : Вид-во НДУ ім. М. Гоголя, 2011. 361 с.
2. Волкова Л.М. Теоретична граматики англійської мови: сучасний підхід. Навчальний посібник. – К.: Освіта України, 2010. 256 с.
3. Колесник О.С., Гаращук Л. А., Гаращук К. В. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови : навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов. Житомир : Вид-во ЖДУ імені Івана Франка, 2015. 226 с.
4. Соловійова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. 232 с.

Optional

2. Верба Л.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. 160 с.
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5. Мостовий М.І. Лексикологія англійської мови. Харків: Основа, 1993. 256 с.
6. Сучасна українська літературна мова: За редакцією Грищенка А. П. Київ: "Вища школа", 2002.– 327 с.
7. Dombrovan T.I. Lecture Notes on General Theoretical Course of English. Vinizza, 2009.
8. Ganetska L.V. LEXI-MAKER: Modern English Lexicology in Tables, Figures and Exercises. Київ: Ленвіт, 2004. 96 с.
9. Rayevskaya N.M. English Lexicology. Київ: Вища школа, 1971. 332 p.
10. Skeat W. An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1963. 780 p.
11. Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

Internet resources:

12. Бібліотека Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка: режим доступу: http://irbis.zu.edu.ua/cgi-bin/irbis64r_11/cgiirbis_64.exe
13. Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>
14. British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

1. Morphology

Morphology analyses the internal structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes. Morphology is a core part of linguistic study today.

Morphology also looks at parts of speech, intonation and stress, and the ways context can change a word's pronunciation and meaning.

Morphology differs from **morphological typology**, which is the classification of languages based on their use of words, and **lexicology**, which is the study of words and how they make up a language's vocabulary. This is **lexical morphology**.

- The term morphology is Greek and is a makeup of **morph-** meaning 'shape, form', and **-ology** which means 'the study of something'.
- Morphology as a sub-discipline of linguistics was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist **August Schleicher** who used the term for the study of the form of words.

2. The role of morphology in the process of mastering English

Morphology is realized in the process of word formation being a set of operating rules of the language and methods of formation of new words based on the existing ones.

Since the word is the main aspect of any language, then the formation of words is the fundamental moment of its functioning. If you know, for example, 100 words of the English language and master perfectly and thoroughly all its word-formation models, then only this will increase your vocabulary by ten times up to 1000 words!

For example, you know such word formation pattern [music – musician; compose – composition, revolt – revolution]. When you meet in the text the unknown words belonging of this very word formation pattern [technician, magician, Academician, proposition, etc] you will translate them, especially if you know the stems of these words [technical, magical, academic, to propose].

3. Morphemes as the building blocks of morphology

1. **SIMPLE WORDS**: Don't have internal structure (only consist of one morpheme) eg work, build, run. They can't be split into smaller parts which carry meaning or function.
2. **COMPLEX WORDS**: Have internal structure (consist of two or more morphemes) eg worker: affix -er added to the root work to form a noun.

Morphemes are the smallest meaning-bearing units of language.

BUT:

* The modern direction of linguistics, **sound symbolism** (which shows that every sound has a semantic motivation, that is, every sound carries a meaning [Zhuravlev, 1974, 1981]), irrefutably testifies to the presence of hidden semantics in the sphere of verbal and non-verbal signals. Images also have a similar characteristic, since, as research shows, people give similar sets of qualities when characterizing images, when geometric figures are endowed with rigidly correlated complexes of properties that are realized as emotional-evaluative properties [Artemieva, 1980] and appear as "semantic invariants" [Bakhtiyarov, 1997]

Free VS bound morphemes

Free morpheme: a simple word, consisting of one morpheme eg house, work, high, chair, wrap. They are words in themselves.

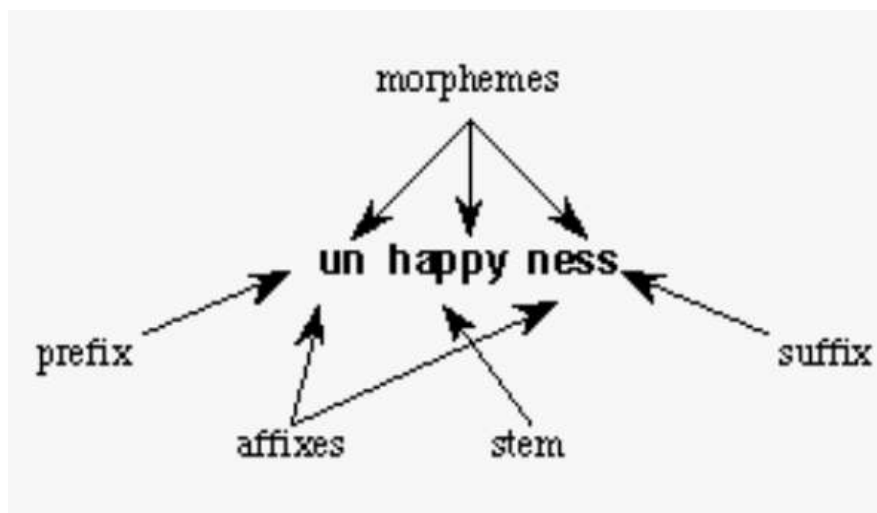
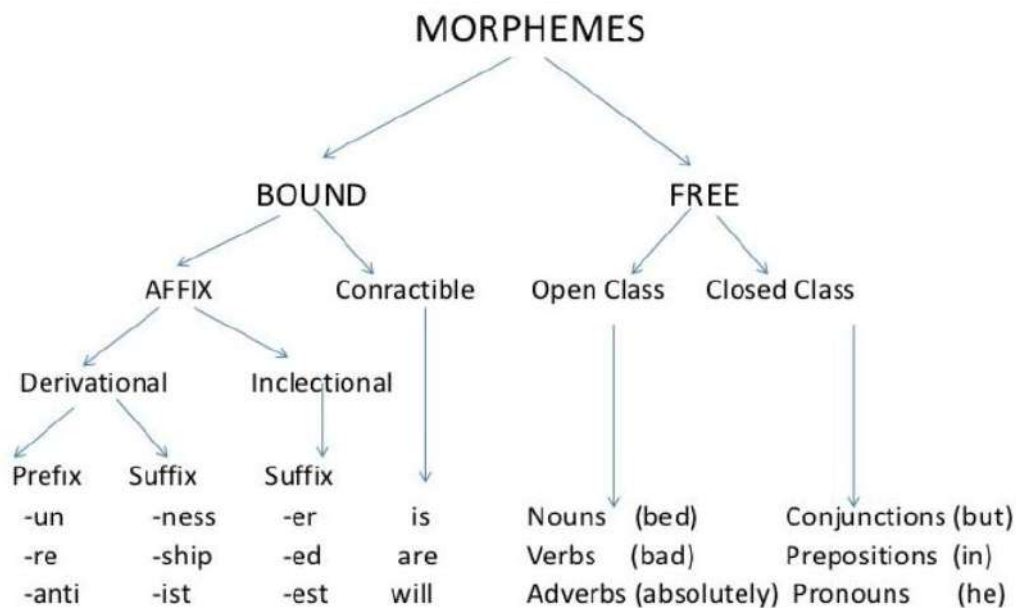
Bound morpheme: morphemes that must be attached to another morpheme to receive meaning.

e.g.: UNKINDNESS

- UN- and -NESS are the bound morphemes, requiring the root KIND to form the word.

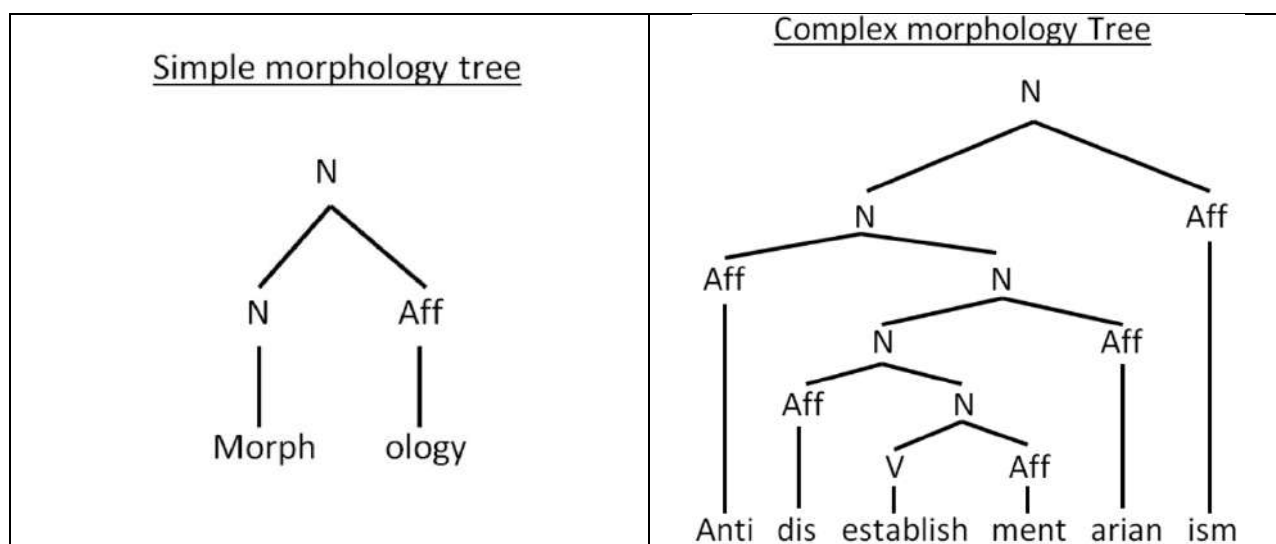
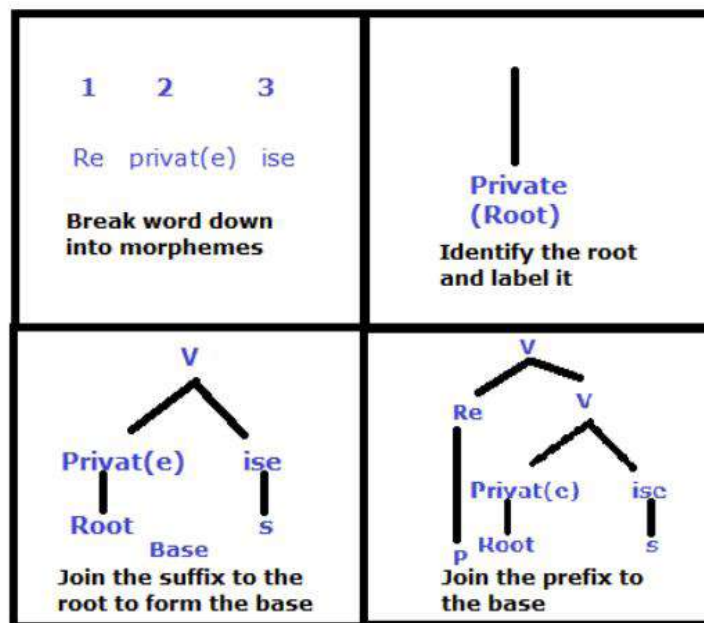
These are also called affixes as they are attached to the stem. There are two types as outlined below:

1. Prefix (front of the base)= Un-
2. Suffix (end of the base)= -ness



Drawing Morphology Trees

Below is a step-by-step guide to drawing a morphology tree:



4. Word formation process

1. Derivation

Derivation is the word formation process in which a derivational affix attaches to the base form of a word to create a new word.

Prefixation: the process of formation of new words by means of adding the prefix to the stem of the word:

productive prefix (un-, re-, anti-, inter-, etc.);

unproductive prefix (mis-, out-, dis-, de-, co-, im-, in-, il-, ir-, en-, etc.).

The meaning of the prefixes

PREFIXES	MEANING	EXAMPLES
ante-	before	antenatal, anteroom, antedate
arch- (archi-)	superlative	arch-liar, archiepiscopal
a-,	opposite, negative	symmetry – asymmetry
ab-	opposite, negative	normal – abnormal
anti-	against, opposing	antibiotic, antidepressant, antidote
circum-	around	circumstance, circumvent, circumnavigate
co-	with	co-worker, co-pilot, co-operation, co-author
de-	off, down, away from, opposite, negative, removal, separation	devalue, defrost, derail, demotivate, announce – denounce
dis-	opposite of, not, negative	disagree, disappear, disintegrate, disapprove, honour – dishonour
em-, en-	cause to, put into	embrace, encode, embed, enclose, engulf, gender – engender
epi-	upon, close to, after	epicentre, episcopo, epidermis
ex-	former, out of, previous	ex-president, ex-boyfriend, exterminate
extra-	beyond, more than	extracurricular, extraordinary, extra-terrestrial, ordinary - extraordinary
fore-	before	forecast, forehead, foresee, foreword, foremost
homo-	same	homosexual, homonuclear, homoplastic
hyper-	over, above	hyperactive, hyperventilate
il-, im-, in-, ir-	negative, not	impossible, irresponsible, indefinite, active – inactive, legal – illegal, regular – irregular
im-, in-	into	insert, import, inside
infra-	beneath, below	infrastructure, infrared, infrasonic, infraspecific
inter-, intra-	between	interact, intermediate, intergalactic, intranet
macro-	large	macroeconomics, macromolecule
micro-	small	microscope, microbiology, microfilm, microwave
mid-	middle	midfielder, midway, midsummer
mis-	wrongly, opposite, negative	misinterpret, misfire, mistake, misunderstand
mono-	one, singular	monotone, monobrow, monolithic
n-	opposite, negative	ever – never
non-	not, without, absence	nonsense, nonentity, nondescript, conductor – non-conductor
omni-	all, every	omnibus, omnivore, omnipotent
over-	superlative	fulfil – overfulfil
para-	beside	parachute, paramedic, paradox
post-	after	post-mortem, postpone, post-natal
pre-	before	prefix, predetermine, pre-intermediate
re-	again	return, rediscover, reiterate, reunite
semi-	half	semicircle, semi-final, semiconscious
sub-	under	submerge, submarine, sub-category, subtitle
super-	above, over	superfood, superstar, supernatural, superimpose, bomb

		– superbomb
therm-	heat	thermometer, thermostat, thermodynamic
trans-	across, beyond	transport, transnational, transatlantic
tri-	three	triangle, tripod, tricycle
un-	negative, not, opposite, reversal	unfinished, unfriendly, undone, unknown, wise – unwise
ultra-	superlative	sonic - ultrasonic
uni-	one	unicycle, universal, unilateral, unanimous

Suffixation; the way of word formation, in which a suffix is added to the stem of a word productive (-er, -ist, -ee, -ism, -ing, -ness, -ed, -ly, etc.);

unproductive (-ling, -ie, -let, -or, -ard, -ship, -hood, -dom, -ful, etc.).

The meaning of the suffixes

SUFFIXES	MEANING	EXAMPLES
NOUN SUFFIXES		
-acy, -cy	state or quality	democracy, accuracy, lunacy, privacy, efficiency
-al	the action or process of	remedial, denial, trial, criminal
-age	collective quality, process	baggage, passage, breakage, orphan - orphanage
-ance, -ence	state or quality of	nuisance, ambience, tolerance, appearance, convenience, dependence
-dom	place or state of being	freedom, stardom, boredom, martyrdom, wisdom
-ant, -ent	agent	assistant, accountant, correspondent, student, resident, agent, informant, confidant
-er, -or	person or object that does a specified action	reader, creator, interpreter, inventor, collaborator, teacher, actor
-hood	collective quality	boy - boyhood; brother – brotherhood, orphanhood, motherhood, priesthood
-an, -ian	agent	Optic - optician Music – musician Europe – european Academic – Academician librarian, mathematician
-ing	result	meeting, building, fighting
-ion	action, state, result	confusion, education, expression
-ism	doctrine, belief	Judaism, scepticism, escapism
-ist	person or object that does a specified action	Geologist, protagonist, sexist, scientist, theorist, realist, pianist, pacifist
-ity, -ty	quality of	extremity, validity, enormity, brevity, velocity, purity
-ment	condition, action, state, result	enchantment, argument, improvement, movement, advancement
-ness	state of being	heaviness, highness, sickness, kindness, happiness, sadness
-ology	study, science	Biology, myphology
-ship	position held, condition, character, skill	friendship, hardship, internship, lordship, horsemanship, partnership
-sion, -tion	state of being	position, promotion, cohesion
-th	quality	truth, health, strength
VERB SUFFIXES		

SUFFIXES	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-ate	become	mediate, collaborate, create, originate, vaccinate
-en	become	sharpen, strengthen, loosen, shorten, sweeten, heighten
-ify, -fy	make or become	justify, simplify, magnify, satisfy, <i>falsify</i> , <i>modify</i>
-ise, -ize	become	publicise, synthesise, hypnotise, modernize, oxidize, advertise
-ish	action	Publish, punish, embellish
ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES		
-able, -ible	capable of being	edible, fallible, incredible, audible, comfortable, readable, detectable
-al	having the form or character of	fiscal, thermal, herbal, colonial, cultural, musical, theatrical, canonical
-ar	Quality	Linear, polar, molecular
-ary, -ory	sense of being	Dietary, imaginary, obligatory
-ate	quality	Adequate, appropriate, corporate
-ed	affect, influence	Propertied, arched, educated, learned
-ent, -ant	quality	Evident, observant, defiant,
-esque	in a manner of or resembling	picturesque, burlesque, grotesque
-free	without	alcohol-free, sugar-free, nuclear-free
-ful	notable for	handful, playful, hopeful, skilful, awful, faithful, thoughtful,
-ic, -ical	having the form or character of	psychological, hypocritical, methodical, nonsensical, musical, idiotic, academic, heroic
-ing	characterised by	interesting, exciting, boring
-long	continuity, direction	Yearlong, agelong, livelong
-ous, -eous, -ious	characterised by	pious, jealous, religious, ridiculous, dangerous, righteous, malicious
-ish	having the quality of, diminishing effect, nationality	squeamish, sheepish, girlish, childish, foolish, reddish, narrowish, English, Swedish
-ive	having the nature of	inquisitive, informative, attentive, destructive, active
-less	without	meaningless, hopeless, homeless, aimless, merciless, helpless
-proof	state of being defended	waterproof, childproof, fireproof
-y	characterised by	dainty, beauty, airy, jealousy, heavy pretty
ADVERB SUFFIXES		
-ly	related to or quality, state	softly, slowly, happily, crazily, madly, loudly, beautifully, politely, quick – quickly, happy – happily, second - secondly
-ward, -wards	direction	towards, afterwards, backwards, inward, south-westward, skyward, outward
-wise	in relation to, the way of action	otherwise, likewise, clockwise, percentagewise, chequerwise

Diminutive forms: productive diminutives are infrequent in Standard English in comparison with many other languages. The most common include shortening a longer name (e.g., "Pete" for

Peter) or adding the diminutive suffix /i/ ("movie" for moving picture), variously spelled -y ("Sally" for Sarah), -ie ("Maggie" for Margaret), and -i ("Dani" for Danielle).

Native English prefixes that could be seen as diminutives

-k/-ock/-uck: bull - bullock, butt - buttock, hill - hillock,
-n/-en/-on (accusative or feminine): chick - chicken, cat - kitten, maid - maiden
-le (defrequentative -l): pud - puddle, spark- sparkle
-ish (disparative): large - largish, red - reddish, small - smallish, tall - tallish
-s (degenitive): Betts, Wills
-sie/-sies/-sy (babytalk assimilative or from patrici- of Patsy): bitsy, footsie, halvesies, onesies, twosies, Betsy, Patsy, Robsy
-o (American nicknaming, later Commonwealth): kiddo, smoko, Jacko, Ricko,

Loanwords and native English words using foreign-language diminutives

-ling: dear - darling, duck - duckling, finger - fingerling
-erel/-rel: cock - cockerel, dog - doggerel, hog - hoggerel,
-el/-il/-ille/-l/-le: pie – pill, ray - rail, toy - toil, try - trail)
-et/-ette/-etti/-etto/-it/-ita/-ito/-itta: wagon - wag(g)onette, disk - diskette, game - gambit, minute - minuet, wall – wallet, cigar - cigarette
-let/-lette: book - booklet, chick – chicklet, eye - eyelet, leaf - leaflet, pig - piglet, table - tablet
-ey/-ie/-y: cook - cookie, dad – daddy, dear - dearie, dog - doggy, girl - girlie, lad – laddie, mum - mummy, white - whitey, French - Frenchy, John - Johnny, Nance - Nancy
-kin: lamb - lambkin, man - manikin, nape - napkin, pan - pannikin
-leus/-ola/-ole/-oli/-ola/-olo/-olus/-ula/-ule/-uleus/-ulum: art - article, form - formula, homo sapiens - homunculus, part - particle, pergola
-eau/-el/-ella/-elle/-ello/-il/-illa/-ille/-illo/-le: board - bordello, bar - bureau, fleet - flotilla, pen - pencil,
-ina/-ine/-ini/-ino: dome - domino, figure - figurine, neutron – neutrino
mini-/micro-: minibar, miniblind, miniboss, minibus, minicar, minicassette, minigame, minigun, minimall, minimarket, minischool, miniseries, miniskirt, minitower, minivan, microkitchen, microcosm, microscope
sub-, under-: subsection, under-estimate

Feminitives in English (is a word of the feminine gender, denoting profession, job, specialization, classes, etc.)

waiter – waitress,
prince – princess
steward - stewardess
poet - poetess
author – authoress
actor – actress,
ambassador – ambassadress
bride groom – bride
duke – duchess
hero – heroine
host – hostess
monk – nun
widower – widow
administrator – administratrix

lion – lioness
usher – usherette, usheress

Derivation may result in new words of the same grammatical form, e.g., noun to noun, or of different grammatical forms, e.g., verb to noun.

verb to verb: to appear → to disappear

noun to noun: friend → friendship

adjective to adjective: practical → impractical

verb to noun: to preserve → preservation

verb to adjective: to bore → boring

noun to verb: code → to codify, babysitter – to babysit; donation → to donate; gambler → to gamble; television → to televise

noun to adjective: nature → natural

adjective to noun: ugly → ugliness

adjective to verb: sweet → to sweeten

adjective to adverb: quick → quickly

2. Compounding

Compounding is the way of word formation when the bases of two or three words are added together

noun-noun compound: note + book → notebook

adjective-noun compound: blue + berry → blueberry

verb-noun compound: work + room → workroom

noun-verb compound: breast + feed → to breastfeed

verb-verb compound: stir + fry → to stir-fry

adjective-verb compound: high + light → to highlight

verb-preposition compound: break + up → to breakup

preposition-verb compound: out + run → to outrun

adjective-adjective compound: bitter + sweet → bittersweet

preposition-preposition compound: in + to → into

When the compounding process leads to shortening the initial words we have blending:

advertisement + entertainment → advertainment

biographical + picture → biopic

breakfast + lunch → brunch

chuckle + snort → chortle

cybernetic + organism → cyborg

guess + estimate → guesstimate

hazardous + material → hazmat

motor + hotel → motel

prim + sissy → prissy

simultaneous + broadcast → simulcast

smoke + fog → smog

Spanish + English → Spanglish

spoon + fork → spork

telephone + marathon → telethon

web + seminar → webinar

3. Conversion

Conversion is a method of forming new words, in which the external shape is not changed, but the word passes into another grammatical category, gaining new features and the new value.

noun to verb: a play → to play, a pack → to pack, water → to water, microwave → to microwave, eye → to eye

verb to noun: to alert → an alert, to attack → an attack, to call → a call, to clone → a clone, to cry → cry, to increase → increase

adjective to verb: green → to green (to make environmentally friendly)

preposition to noun: up, down → the ups and downs of life

conjunction to noun: if, and, but → no ifs, ands, or buts, if ifs and ands were pots and pens

interjection to noun: ho ho ho → I love the ho ho hos of Christmastime.

4. Reduction

Reduction / Abbreviations / Acronyms / Eponyms: method of word formation, at which a portion of the base is cut off or shortened

doctor → doc., Dr.;

April → Apr.;

refrigerator → frig;

mister → M.;

kilogram → kg;

British Broadcasting Corporation → BBC

ante meridiem [in the morning] → A.M.

very important person → VIP

light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation → laser

National Aeronautics and Space Administration → NASA

personal identification number → PIN

radio detection and ranging → radar

Joseph Ignace Guillotin → guillotine

Candido Jacuzzi → jacuzzi

Franz Anton Mesmer → mesmerize

advertisement → ad

alligator → gator

examination → exam

gasoline → gas

gymnasium → gym

influenza → flu

laboratory → lab

mathematics → math

memorandum → memo

photograph → photo

public house → pub

raccoon → coon

reputation → rep

situation comedy → sitcom

telephone → phone

5. Reconstruction of words' meaning

Reconstruction of words' meaning (Nonce words): the way of new words forming through any number of word formation processes with the resulting word meeting a lexical need that is not expected to recur.

cotton-wool – to stuff or close (the ears) with cotton-wool.

touch-me-not-ishness – having a "touch-me-not" character;

stand-off-ish – having a "stand-off-ish" character. *Stand-off-ish-ness*

6. Borrowing

Borrowing is the word formation process in which a word from one language is borrowed directly into another language.

algebra – Arabic

cherub – Hebrew

galore – Irish

murder – French

pizza – Italian

5. The methods of mastering the word formation patterns

The method of examples (conversion)

My grandmother bottled (verb) the juice and canned (verb) the pickles.

My grandmother put the juice in a bottle (noun) and the pickles in a can (noun).

She microwaved (verb) her lunch.

She heated her lunch in the microwave (noun).

The doctor eyed (verb) my swollen eye (noun).

The guard alerted (verb) the general to the attack (noun).

The enemy attacked (verb) before an alert (noun) could be sounded.

Sometimes one just needs a good cry (noun).

The baby cried (verb) all night.

We need to increase (verb) our productivity to see an increase (noun) in profits.

The method of rhymes

It's not enough to *shake* your *spear*

In order to be named *Shakespeare*.

A man in a *sweater*

Sooner or later

Begins to *sweat*,

Which makes him *wet*

When the streets are *illuminated* –

We call the thing *illumination*.

When the people are *evacuated* –

This event is an *evacuation*.

Now we know the word-formation:

Organize – *organization*,

Constitute and *constitution*,

Lemon gives us *lemonade*,

Moving in *pairs* – is *parade*,

Policy, *political* – *politics*,

Tact and *tactful* – *tactics*.

The method of reading, translating and finding out word formation cases

If you eat your food – it is eatable.
If you drink some water – it is drinkable.

This boy is full of talents, I would like to state.
This is a talented boy – let me say my say.

She is drawing sitting at the desk.
Her pictures are very picturesque.

This man is young – he is a youngster.
But he is in a gang – so he is a gangster.
He likes scandals – so he is a scandalmonger.
He is a fish dealer – so he is a fishmonger.

Little bird is called a birdie,
Little pig is called a piglet,
Little duck is called a duckling.

It is a highly developed industrial state,
The rates of its development are great.

When a woman is odd – it's oddity.
When man's manner's crude – it's crudity.
When a picture is rare – it's rarity.

The place where bread is baked
Is called a bakery.
The art with which you cook your cake
Is called a cookery

The river is deep, but its depth is safe
If you your long legs in length prostrate

He is employed in a bank, so he is an employee.
But he is often absent, so he is an absentee.
That's why his employer dismissed him
Thus increasing unemployment.
Now he is unemployed and lost his employment.

He lives in Japan and speaks Japanese.
What's his nationality? He's a Japanese.
She lives in Mexico and eats only Mexican food.
She is Mexican, her mood is always good.

This car is out of fashion, I would say.
Once it was fashionable but now is in decay.

Lecture 3.

Phonological aspect of English

Plan

1. Sound system of English.
2. The correlation of English and Ukrainian sounds
3. The problem of meaning of sounds: sound symbolism.
4. Rules of reading
5. Stress and intonation in English

Recommended Reading

1. Бережний В. М. Загальне мовознавство : хрестоматія; Ніжин. держ. ун-т ім. М. Гоголя. Ніжин : Вид-во НДУ ім. М. Гоголя, 2011. 361 с.
2. Колесник О.С., Гаращук Л. А., Гаращук К. В. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови : навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов. Житомир : Вид-во ЖДУ імені Івана Франка, 2015. 226 с.
3. Соловйова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. – Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. 232 с.

Optional

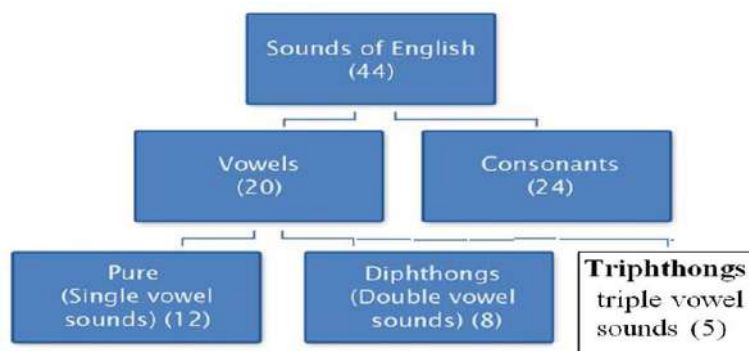
4. Довідник словотвірних елементів англійської мови / уклад. О. В. Вознюк. –Житомир : ЖВІРЕ, 2003. 96 с.
5. Сучасна українська літературна мова: За редакцією Грищенка А. П. Київ: "Вища школа", 2002. 327 с.
6. Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

Internet resources:

1. Бібліотека Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка: режим доступу: http://irbis.zu.edu.ua/cgi-bin/irbis64r_11/cgiirbis_64.exe
2. Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>
3. British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

1. Sound system of English.

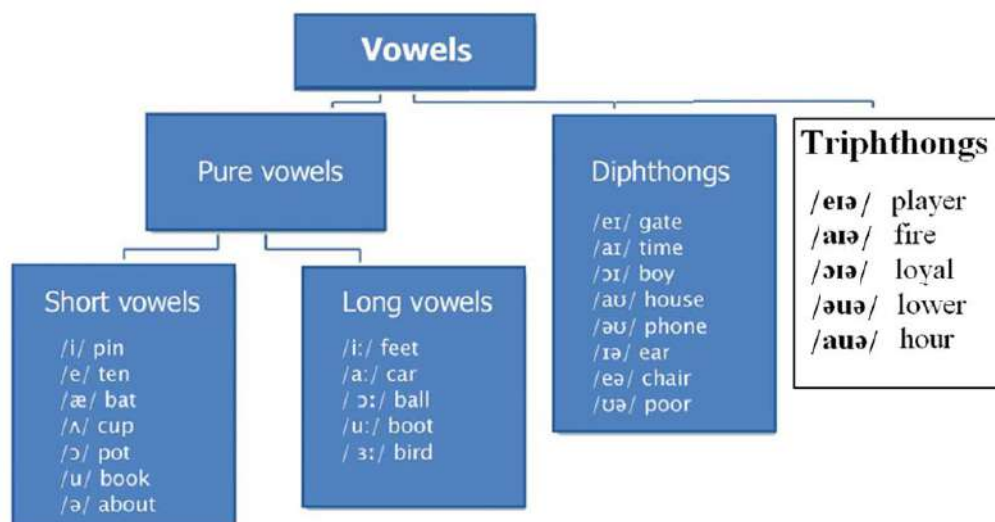
English has **44** sounds but only **26** letters to represent them. Hence various combinations of letters are used to represent these sounds; sometimes the same letter (or a combination of letters) may represent different sounds. ... When we speak sentences in English all words are not pronounced with the same breath force.



There are **5 vowel letters** in English (**a,e,i,o,u**), but the sounds indicated by these 5 letters are 20. A vowel sound is produced when the air comes out of the mouth freely without any blockage or closure in the mouth cavity by the tongue, teeth, lips, etc. The vowel sounds are of two types:

Single vowel sounds: When these sounds are produced, the tongue remains in the same position even when the sound is prolonged. They consist of one sound only and are called pure vowels as in 'sit', 'pot', 'heat', etc. (the underlined letters indicate the single vowel sounds)

Double vowel sounds: These vowel sounds are a combination of two single vowel sounds and in pronouncing them the tongue moves from one position to another. For instance, in the word 'light' the sound of 'i' is a combination of the vowel sounds /a:/ as in 'art' and /i/ as in 'it'. The words 'hair', 'toy' and 'poor' also contain double vowel sounds.



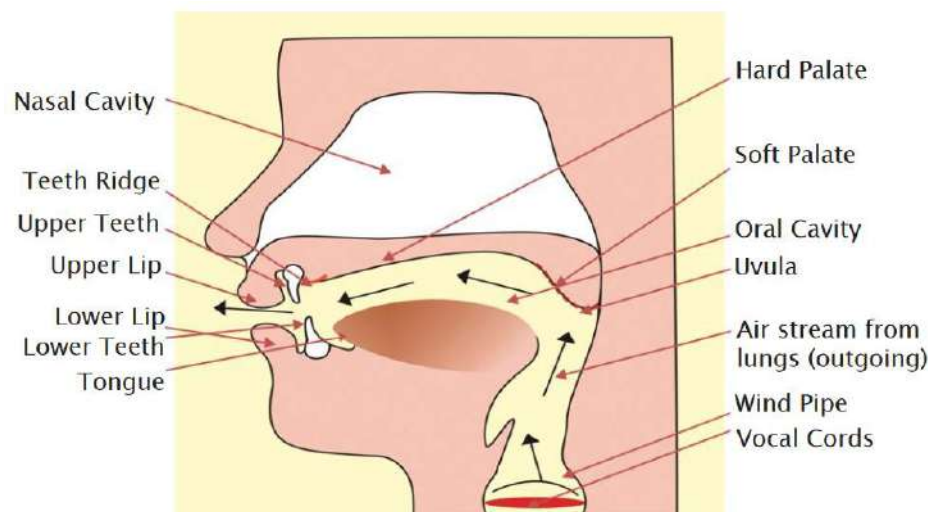
A **consonant sound** is one in which the air stream coming out of the lungs is modified in the mouth cavity by some blockage created by the tongue, lips, teeth, etc. When you say the sound of 'p' as in 'pen' a blockage is created in the outgoing breath by closing both the lips and thus, a consonant sound is produced.

Triphthongs

- eɪə — player
- aɪə — fire
- ɔɪə — loyal
- əʊə — lower
- aʊə — hour

We shall deal with consonant sounds in groups based on the first classification i.e. the way the sounds are produced. This classification includes;

1. **Plosives:** /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/.
2. **Affricates:** /tʃ/, /dʒ/.
3. **Fricatives:** /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/.
4. **Lateral:** /l/.
5. **Frictionless Continuant:** /r/.
6. **Nasals:** /m/, /n/, /ŋ/.
7. **Semi-Vowels:** /w/, /j/.



Organs of speech

Man - men - mean - mien - moon – morn (morning) - mourn (mourning) - moan - mane - main - mine.

Bat - bet - beet - beat - bit - but - boot - bought - boat - bait - bite.

Hat - heat - hit - hut - hart - hoot - hot - hate - hurt - height.

Fell - fill - feel - full - fool - fall - fail - furl - foil - file.

Pat - pet - pit - Peat - pete - part - put - pot - port - purt.

Sat - set - seat - sit - soot - sort - sought - site - cite - sight.

Red - rede - read - reed - rude - rood - rod - road - raid - ride.

Cap - keep - kip - cup - carp - coop - cop - cope - cape.

Mat - met - meet - meat - moot - moat - mate - mite - might.

Cat - cut - cart - cot - caught - coat - Kate - curt - kite.

Gal - gel - gill - gull - ghoul - gall - goal - gale - girl.

Had - head - heed - hid - hard - hood - hoard - horde - hide.

Bad - bed - bead - bid - bud - bard - board - bade - bird.

Pan - pen - pin - pun - pawn - purl - pearl - pile.

Ate - at - eat - it - art - ought - oats - eight.

Tell - till - tall - toll - tail - tale - toil - tile.

Fat - feet - feat - foot - fought - fate - fête - fight.

Mat - met - meet - moot - moat - mate - mite.

Lad - led - lead - lid - lard - load - laid.

Fan - fen - fin - fun - faun - fern - fine.

Sell - seal - sole - soul - sail - sale - soil.

Let - lit - loot - lot - late - light.

Bast - best - boast - bust - boost - burst.

Bag - beg - big - bug - bog.

Dad - dead - did - deed - died.

Batter - better - bitter - butter.

Deal - dull - doll - dole.

2. The correlation of English and Ukrainian sounds

<i>English letters</i>	<i>Examples</i>
a	track – <i>трек</i> , Addie – <i>Едді</i> , canal – <i>канал</i> safe – <i>сейф</i> , Asia – <i>Азія</i> , matrix – <i>матриця</i> salt – <i>соль</i> , ball – <i>бал</i> , shawl – <i>шаль</i> , hall – <i>зал</i> class – <i>клас</i> , vase – <i>ваза</i> , banal – <i>банальний</i>

	aroma – аромат climate – клімат watch – дивитися
b	Bob – Боб, barber – варвар, number – номер buffet – буфет, ballet – балет, bouquet – букет crumb – кришка, кришити
c	façade – фасад, licence – ліцензія, cipher – шифр, cement – цемент Canada – Канада, cholera – холера, republic – республіка, Communist – комуніст, tactic – тактичний (не тактовний), tactics – тактика, democrasy – демократія, democratic – демократичний, democrat – демократ social – соціальний, special – спеціальний duce – дуче (італ.) scene – сцена
d	dog – собака ("дог") pound – фунт, salad – салат
e	Addie – Едді, Pete – Петро cent – цент, emblem – емблема, magnet – магніт, embargo – ембарго, especial – спеціальний, special – спеціальний, specialist – спеціаліст, speciality – спеціальність, specialty – спеціальність, specialise – спеціалізуватися, specialisation – спеціалізація, report – рапорт, devil – диявол, excess – ексцес college – коледж reporter – репортер Pete – Петро
f	fact – факт, factual – фактичний, factor – фактор, faculty – факультет, здібність
g	gong – гонг, garrison – гарнізон protégé – протезе magic – магічний, giant – гігант, college – коледж, regime – режим design – дизайн, champagne – шампанське
h	haemoglobin – гемоглобін, hero – герой, hallo – ало, hobby – хобі, hall – зал, horizon – горизонт ghetto – гето, discotheque – дискотека, rhythm – ритм, rhapsody – рапсодія
i	crisis – кризис, design – дизайн April – рос. апрель, captain – капітан, pilgrim – пілігрим, trick – трюк, kilo – кіло chief – шеф, relief – рельєф review – рев'ю, interview – інтерв'ю
j	project – проект, jury – журі, object – об'єкт, June – рос. июнь, banjo – банджо, jaguar – ягуар, judo – дзюдо, major – майор, jelly – желе, jazz – джаз jota – хота (танок)
k	Greek – грек, Greek – грецький, Greece – Греція, kilo – кіло, provoke – провокувати, banknote – банкнота knock-down – нокдаун, knock-out – нокаут, know-how – ноухау, технологія
l	lily – лілія, film – фільм, parallel – паралель, gallop – галоп, line – лінія palm – пальма, psalm – псалм
m	moment – момент, diagram – діаграма, column – колона, moped – мопед
n	Nina – Ніна, ton – тона, monsoon – мусон ring – ринг column – колона, hymn – гімн
o	patrol – патруль, soloist – соліст, Rome – Рим mono – моно, Slavonia – Словенія crown – корона, clown – клоун, pound – фунт dozen – дюжина, son – син, London – Лондон, лондонський

	hammock – <i>гамак</i> do – <i>діяти, робити</i>
p	pact – <i>пакт</i> , group – <i>група</i> , bankrupt – <i>банкрут</i> , to duplicate ['djHplIkelt] – <i>дублювати</i> , duplicate ['djHplIkqt] – <i>дублікат</i> , duplicate - ['djHplIkelt] – <i>схожий</i> pound – <i>фунт</i> ; script – <i>шрифт рукописний, почерк</i> corps [kLs] – <i>корпус</i> , psychology – <i>психологія</i> , pseudonym – <i>псевдонім</i>
q	Iraq – <i>Ірак</i> , discotheque – <i>дискотека</i>
r	contract – <i>контракт</i> , contrast – <i>контраст</i> , rhyme – <i>рима</i> sabre – <i>шабля</i> , metre – <i>метр</i> , theatre – <i>театр</i> , factor – <i>фактор</i>
s	transit – <i>транзит</i> pass – <i>пас</i> , Paris – <i>Париж</i> , false – <i>фальшивий</i> , falsetto – <i>фальцет</i> , post – <i>пошта, пост</i> , monsoon – <i>мусон</i> , sabre – <i>шабля</i> Russia – <i>Росія</i> , sugar – <i>цукор</i> , confession – <i>конфесія</i> illusion – <i>ілюзія</i> , division – <i>дивізія</i>
t	test – <i>тест</i> , patient – <i>пацієнт</i> , chocolate – <i>шоколад</i> , identity – <i>ідентичність</i> , title – <i>титул</i> depot – <i>депо</i> , castle – <i>замок</i>
u	bulletin – <i>бюлетень</i> , musician – <i>музикант</i> , music – <i>музика</i> , musical – <i>музичний</i> , devaluation – <i>девальвація</i> , super – <i>супер</i> , neurosis – <i>невроз</i> brutal – <i>брутальний</i> , fruit – <i>фрукти</i> , group – <i>група</i> , soup – <i>суп</i> buffet – <i>буфет</i> republican – <i>республіканський</i> , club – <i>клуб</i> , budget – <i>бюджет</i> , trust – <i>трест</i> , fund – <i>фонд</i> , pick-up – <i>пікап</i> business – <i>бізнес</i> , businessman – <i>бізнесмен</i> bury – <i>ховати</i>
w	howitzer – <i>гаубиця</i> , wagon – <i>вагон</i> , Wales – <i>Уельс</i> shawl – <i>шаль</i>
v	velvet – <i>вельвет</i>
x	xeres – <i>херес</i> xenophobia – <i>ксенофобія</i> , xylophone – <i>кселофон</i> expert – <i>експерт</i> , expertise – <i>експертиза</i> , experiment – <i>експеримент</i> , excess – <i>ексцес</i> experimentation – <i>експеримент</i> , experimental – <i>експериментальний</i> , syntax – <i>синтаксис</i> , matrix – <i>матриця</i> exam, examination – <i>екзамен</i>
y	cypress – <i>кіпарис</i> story (history) – <i>історія</i> Yemen – <i>Йемен</i> , yak – <i>як</i>
z	zenith – <i>зеніт</i> , Zionist – <i>сіоніст</i> , jazz – <i>джаз</i> , zinc – <i>цинк</i>
ch	chance – <i>шанс</i> , champion – <i>чемпіон</i> echelon – <i>ешелон</i> , machine – <i>машина</i> cholera – <i>холера</i> , mechanic – <i>механік</i> , school – <i>школа</i> yacht – <i>яхта</i>
sh	shawl – <i>шаль</i>
dg	budget – <i>бюджет</i>
ph	atmosphere – <i>атмосфера</i> , phase – <i>фаза</i> , thermodynamic – <i>термодинаміка</i> , triumph – <i>триумф</i>

qu	squadron – <i>ескадрон</i> , equator – <i>екватор</i> , equivalent – <i>еквівалент</i> , banquet – <i>банкет</i>
gu	bouquet – <i>букет</i> , parquet – <i>паркет</i> , unique – <i>унікальний</i> , technique – <i>техніка</i>
th	guide – <i>гід</i> , guarantee – <i>гарантувати</i> , dialogue – <i>діалог</i>
th	author – <i>автор</i> , orthodox – <i>ортодоксальний</i> , athlete – <i>атлет</i> , pathos – <i>пафос</i> , myth – <i>міф</i> this – <i>цей</i> asthma – <i>асма</i>
ck	track – <i>трек</i> , hammock – <i>гамак</i>
gh	daughter – <i>дочка</i>

3. The problem of meaning of sounds: sound symbolism.

The modern direction of linguistics, *sound symbolism* (which shows that every sound has a semantic motivation, that is, every sound carries a meaning [Zhuravlev, 1974, 1981]), irrefutably testifies to the presence of hidden semantics in the sphere of verbal and non-verbal signals. Images also have a similar characteristic, since, as research shows, people give similar sets of qualities when characterizing images, when geometric figures are endowed with rigidly correlated complexes of properties that are realized as emotional-evaluative properties [Artemieva, 1980] and appear as "semantic invariants" [Bakhtiyarov, 1997]

4. Rules of reading

Asia, air-plane, safe, façade, major,
container, contain, cock-tail, tail, raid, trainer
time, style, nylon, good-bye, type.
me, scene, procedure, extreme
meeting, goal-keeper, keep, speedometer, speed.
please, repeat (repetition), dealer, speak, speaker.
zone, tone, telephone, so, no.
tube, tune, Union, Ukraine, Susan, student.
rule, June, resolution, illusion, rudiment
apple, bat, batsman, cat, map, battle, barracks
letter, red, collect, collection
not, bottle, stop, cough
nut, cutter, pump, bus, vulgar, rum, rugby
sit, pit, six, mist (mystical mist), finish
system, mystery, symmetry, symbol, crystal.
put, bush, pull-over, pull, sugar, bulletin.
look, room, good, soot, book
(a + r)
tar, army, arm, cart, bar, park.
(o + r)
nor, pop-corn, corn, lord, cord, more, form,
(e + r) (i + r) (u + r)
term, mercy, German, nerve, sperm.
firm, confirm, affirm, girl, sir.
curve, furniture, turn, surfing, turbine.

declare, rarity, rare, prepare, compare.
there, where
here, sphere, atmosphere.

beer, pioneer, career.
hear, year, dear, spear.
really, reality, realism, theatre
fire, admire (admiral), inspire (inspiration, aspirant)
 secure, security, curiosity, curious
poor, moor, doer (do + er + doer))
tour, tourist, tournament
house, blouse, resound, sound.
flower, brown, knock-down, down, now.
join, joint, point, soil, toil
toy, boy, royal,
 vision, visual, delusion, provision,
Zhytomyr, zhytychy
 sabotage, mirage, garage,
 closure, measure, embrasure.
 strangee, gymnast, college, privilege.
 porridge, bridge, budget.
June, jazz, January, juice, jam
she, shape, shawl.
 revolutionion, constitution, evacuation
 academician, musician, electrician.
chance, change, cherry, cheese, teacher
 culture, picture, nature, legislature, manufacture, furniture
this, father, mother, brother.
 cathode, myth, pathos, athlete, enthusiasm, theses, thermal

5. Stress and intonation in English

When we pronounce a word having more than one syllable, we speak these syllables with a variation in the breath force. Some syllables of a word are more prominent (pronounced more loudly) while others are uttered with weak force of breath. The syllables which are uttered with greater force of breath are called stressed syllables. Thus, we can say that stress is the degree of force used to pronounce a syllable.

As has already been described, there are no fixed rules governing the stress pattern of different words. Therefore, it is advisable to consult a good dictionary to find out the correct stress pattern in words.

1 Words beginning with weak syllables are stressed on the root word, e.g. : a|broad, a|lone, be|cause, be|low (Note: The 'basic' words are called the 'root' words.)

2 When the verb suffixes – ed, – es, and –ing are added to the words, the stress (also known as accent) remains on the same syllable

3 When we add the suffixes –age, –ance, –en, –er, –ess, –ful, –hood, –ice, –ish, –ive, –ly, –ment, –or, –ship, –ter, –ure, and –zen at the end of words the accentual pattern does not change

4 Words ending in –ion take stress on second from the last syllable, e.g. : admi|ration, appli|cation, deco|ration

5 Words ending in –ity take the accent on the second syllable from the last, e.g. : a|bility , ca|pacity, elec|tricity,

6 Words ending in –ic, –ical, –ically, –ious, –al, –ially are accented on the syllable preceding

We also notice in the above list of words that vertical lines are marked both above the syllable and below the syllable. The vertical line above the syllable indicates primary stress while the

vertical line below the syllable points out the secondary stress. Thus, we can conclude that there are two types of stress. These are:

Primary stress The syllable which gets the maximum breath force or stress in a word is said to have primary stress. This is indicated by putting a vertical bar above and before the syllable which is stressed (').

Secondary stress The other stressed syllables of the words pronounced with lesser breath force than the primary syllable are said to have secondary stress. This is indicated by putting a vertical bar below and before the syllable which is stressed ('). Besides the syllables which receive the primary and secondary stresses, there may be other syllables which are uttered without any stress. These are called unstressed syllables

Stress in compound words Words composed of two separable words are called compound words. There may or may not be a hyphen between them. In compound words generally the stress is on the first word or at the beginning. Read the following compound words and note that the stress in them falls on the first part. 'lackbird, 'blackboard, 'rain-coat, 'postman, 'school-bus, |'ailbag, 'footprint, 'bathroom, 'lampshade, 'sandbox.

1 There are some compound words in which the stress is on the second part e.g.: her'self, what|ever, them'selves.

2 There are some compound words in which the stress is on both the parts of the word e.g.: 'after'noon, 'home-'made, 'good-'looking, 'bad-'tempered. Note: In the noted words above both the parts of words are stressed but the primary stress is on the second part of the word.

Stress in Phrases

A phrase is a group of words which forms a part of a sentence and adds some meaning to it. However, this meaning is not complete by itself. Read the following phrases and note the words/syllables which are stressed. Buy him one, Pay for it, Send us one, Think of it, Answer me, Go away, Can you come? Cup of tea, As you like, Do it now, Not at all, Talk to him, That's enough, Thank them please, Ought to know, Wait a bit, Show me one, What's the time?, Put them down, Take them all, A railway engine, A shoe repairer, Another question, Can't have seen them, A cup of cocoa, Think it over, A clever answer, A pretty picture, Do it again, Over the hills, Not before eight, Couldn't believe it, Order it for them, Dinner at eight, Difference between them, Talking about you, Writing about it.

Stress in Sentences

A sentence consists of a number of words arranged in a systematic order and conveys some meaning. In sentences we find that all the words are not spoken with the same force of breath. Some words stand out from others because they receive greater force of breath. The words which receive greater force of breath are called stressed words. The words that are stressed are usually the words that the speaker thinks are the more important for communicating the meaning.

Rhythm

Rhythm denotes the element of music in speech which is produced by the arrangement of stressed and unstressed words in sentences. In English speech when words are combined to form sentences the stressed syllables tend to occur at regular intervals. Thus, the time interval between beginnings of strong (stressed) syllables is roughly the same. The unstressed syllables between the two stressed syllables are reduced. This feature gives rhythm to English speech. To understand this let us read the sentence given below: |This is the |house that |Jack |built. In this sentence the stressed syllables are: 'house', 'Jack' and 'built'. In sentences generally the content words carry the stress (e.g. nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc.). The time gap between the stressed syllables should be roughly the same when we say this sentence. Poems and nursery rhymes can help us to practise rhythm in English speech (which is not confined to poems, but characterizes all speech in English).

'Jack and 'Jill 'went up the 'hill,
To 'fetch a 'pail of 'water,

'Jack fell 'down and 'broke his 'crown,
 And 'Jill came 'tumbling 'after.
 'One, 'two, 'three, 'four, 'five. 'Once I, 'caught a 'fish a'live.
 'Six, 'seven, 'eight, nine, 'ten. 'Then I 'let it 'go a'gain.
 'Why 'did you 'let it 'go? Be'cause it 'bit my 'finger, 'so.
 'Which 'finger 'did it 'bite? The 'little 'finger 'on the, 'right.

Intonation Patterns Intonation refers to pattern of pitch in a sentence. When we hear someone speaking we realize that he does not speak on the same note. We notice variation in the pitch of his voice. Sometimes his pitch rises and at other times it falls. This pattern of variation in the pitch of voice is called intonation. There are mainly two types of intonation patterns followed in English language. These are:

- a. Falling tone: indicated by the symbol 
- b. Rising tone: indicated by the symbol 

Falling intonation pattern The tone in these sentences usually falls before the last word/segment of utterance. This is used:

In ordinary statements:

It's 'seven o'  clock.
 The 'milkman hasn't  come.
 I didn't  do it.
 The 'water is  cold.
 The 'postman was  looking for you.

In questions beginning with the question words — what, when, where, how etc. — when asking for information in a matter-of-fact manner.

'Why did you  do it?
 'Where are they  going?
 'How do they  come here?
 'When are they  shifting?
 'What's the  time?
 'What do you 'like  best?
 'How are  you?
 'Who's 'coming  with me?
 'Why don't you  listen?
 'When can you  come?

In commands

'Do as I ↗ say.
 'Shut the ↗ door.
 'Go a ↗ way.
 'Sit ↗ down.
 'Bring a 'glass of ↗ water.

In tag questions

It's a 'lovely day, ↗ isn't it?
 You can 'swim well, ↗ can't you?
 He has a 'lot of books, ↗ hasn't he?
 He didn't 'come, ↗ did he?
 You're 'there, ↗ aren't you?
 This is the one you asked for, ↗ isn't it?
 You're not going to play, ↗ are you?
 To'morrow is 'Monday, ↗ isn't it?

Rising intonation patterns Here the voice rises towards the end of the sentence. It is used in the following cases:

Incomplete utterances

It's 'seven o' ↗ clock (but the milkman hasn't come yet)
 The 'house is ↗ empty (for many years in the past)
 When I 'reached ↗ there (he had left)

In questions which demand an answer in 'yes' or 'no'

'Are 'they ↗ going?
 Will 'he be ↗ there?
 'Have 'they ↗ done it?
 'Is she ↗ studying?
 'Has he ↗ started?
 'Have you 'heard the ↗ news?
 'Do you ↗ know?
 'May I ↗ try?
 'Couldn't you ↗ ask?

!Aren't you → well?

!Can you do it → now?

!Does it → work?

!Are you → ready?

!Did he → enjoy it?

In questions which begin with the question words but said in a polite or friendly manner.

It is also used when we politely ask a person to repeat the information which we have not clearly heard or understood, e.g.

A: They are coming from Delhi → tomorrow.

B: When are they → coming? (Asking for repetition)

!How is your → sister?

!Why didn't you !come to the → party?

!What is !wrong with → you?

!When're you → coming?

In polite requests:

!Would you !open the → door?

!May I !have your → pen?

!Would you !mind !giving me your → pencil?

!Will you !sit → down?

!Please sit → quietly.

In subordinating clauses (but falling tone is used in the main clauses as shown below).

!When he → came I !asked him to → wait.

In! spite of the → rain they all !came as they had → promised.

!If you → like I will !send the → car for you.

!Since you re → fuse help I must do it all → alone .

!When you are → ready we can → go.

Conclusions.

We must differentiate ***word stress and tone stress***.

These stresses are changeable.

Not only tone stress can change, but word stress aslo. Let us have examples.

Actually she is a Japanese. (stress is on the last syllable)

A Japanese ship owner. (stress is on the first syllable)

I thought she was Japanese. (we have no stress since she is stressed)

Lecture 4.

Etymology and varieties of English

Plan

1. Borrowings as a way of enlarging the vocabulary of a language.
2. Words of native origin.
3. Borrowings in the English language.
4. Assimilation of borrowings.
5. Standard English. National variants and local dialects.
6. American English.

Recommended Reading

1. Волкова Л.М. Теоретична грамати́ка англійської мови: сучасний підхід. Навчальний посібник. К.: Освіта України, 2010. 256 с.
2. Колесник О.С., Гаращук Л. А., Гаращук К. В. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови : навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов. Житомир : Вид-во ЖДУ імені Івана Франка, 2015. 226 с.
3. Соловійова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. 232 с.

Optional

1. Верба Л.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. 160 с.
2. Сучасна українська літературна мова: За редакцією Грищенка А. П. Київ: "Вища школа", 2002. 327 с.
3. Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

Internet resources:

4. Бібліотека Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка: режим доступу: http://irbis.zu.edu.ua/cgi-bin/irbis64r_11/cgiirbis_64.exe
5. Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>
6. British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

1. Borrowings as a way of enlarging the vocabulary of a language.

The most characteristic feature of English is its mixed character. While it is wrong to speak of the mixed character of the language as a whole, the composite nature of the English vocabulary cannot be denied.

Native words – are the words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes – the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes.

Borrowing is the word formation process in which a word from one language is borrowed directly into another language.

Borrowing can be understood as:

- 1) the process of adopting words from other languages and
- 2) the result of this process.

algebra – Arabic
cherub – Hebrew
galore – Irish
murder – French
pizza – Italian

Not only words, but also wordbuilding affixes were borrowed into English (-able, -ment, -ity). Some wordgroups, too, were borrowed in their foreign form (coup-d'etat, vis-a-vis).

In the second meaning the term borrowing is also used to denote translation-loans, or loan-translations (кальки) – the words and expressions formed from the language material under the influence of some foreign words and expressions, e.g.:

mother tongue < L. lingua materna, it goes without saying < Fr. cela va sans dire,
wall newspaper < Russ. стенгазета.

2. Words of native origin

Words of native origin consist for the most part of very ancient elements – Indo-European, Germanic and West Germanic cognates. The bulk of the Old English word-stock has been preserved, although some words have passed out of existence.

The Anglo-Saxon stock of words makes 25-30% of the English vocabulary.

Almost all of them belong to very important semantic groups, among them form-words:

- auxiliary and modal verbs: shall, will, should, would, must, can, may;
- pronouns: I, you, he, my, your, his, who, whose;
- prepositions: in, out, on, under;
- numerals: one, two, three, four, etc.;
- conjunctions: and, but, till, as.

Notional words of Anglo-Saxon origin:

- parts of the body: head, hand, arm, back;
- members of the family and closest relatives: father, mother, brother, son, wife;
- natural phenomena and planets: snow, rain, wind, frost, sun, moon, star;
- animals: horse, cow, sheep, cat;
- qualities and properties: old, young, cold, hot, heavy, light, dark, white, long;
- common actions: do, make, go, come, see, hear, eat.

Native words are highly polysemantic, stylistically neutral, enter a number of phraseological units.

3. Borrowings in the English language

In its 15 century long history the English language has come in long and close contact with several other languages, mainly ***Latin, French and Old Norse*** (or Scandinavian).

The great influx of borrowings from these sources can be accounted for by a number of historical causes.

Due to the great influence of ***the Roman civilization*** Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion, e.g.: absolute < absolutus, arm < armare, autumn < autumnus, beast < bestia, calculate < calculus, habit < habitum, intelligence < intelligentia, machine < machina, number < numerum, propaganda < propagare, recommend < recomendare, sentence < sentential, square < quadrus.

Old Norse was the language of the conquerors who were on the same level of social and cultural development and who merged rather easily with the local population in the 9th, 10th and the first half of the 11th century. Examples of ***Scandinavian*** borrowings are: anger < anger, angr (горе, печаль), fellow < fellawe, felagi (товариш), fit < fitten, fitja (влаштовувати), fro < fro, fra

(от, из), hap < hap, happ (випадок, везіння), hit < hitten, hitta (попадати в ціль), leg < leg, leggr (нога), low < low, lagr (низький), swain < swayn, sveinn (хлопчик), sky < skye, sky (хмара, небо), skill < skile, skil (майстерність), take < taken, taka (брати), they < they (вони), want < want(e), vant (брак чогось).

French (to be more exact its *Norman dialect*) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system – developed feudalism, it was the language of the upper classes, of official documents and school instruction from the middle of the 11th century to the end of the 14th century: action < accioun, accusation < accusacioun, agreeable < agreeable, arms < armes, baron < baron, baroun, chamber < chambre, chivalry < chyval(e)rie, crown < coroune, duke < duk, empress < emperesse.

4. Assimilation of borrowings

Assimilation – is the process of adaptation of foreign words to the norms of the language.

Types of assimilation:

phonetic,
grammatical,
lexical.

Completely assimilated words do not differ from the native ones in pronunciation, spelling, frequency, semantic structure and sphere of application. It is difficult to distinguish them from words of Anglo-Saxon origin, e.g.: pupil, master, city, river, window, dish, box. The majority of early borrowings have acquired full English citizenship.

Partly assimilated loan words fall into subgroups:

- words **not assimilated semantically**, e.g.: sari, sombrero, shah, radja;
- loan words **not assimilated grammatically**, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin or Greek preserve their original plural inflexion:

phenomenon - phenomena, addendum - addenda, radius - radii, antenna - antennae;

- loan words **not assimilated phonetically**: communique, chaussee, cafe; machine, cartoon, police; bourgeois, camouflage, prestige, regime, sabotage, memoir/(Fr.); spits (G.); pneumatics, psychology, Ptolomey (Gr.);

- loan words **not completely assimilated graphically/phonetically**: **ballet**, buffet (to buffet), corps, cafe, cliche, bouquet, brioche (Fr).

Completely unassimilated words, or **barbarisms**, e.g.: addio, ciao (It.), af-fiche (Fr.) – “placard”, ad libitum (Lat.) – “at pleasure”.

5. Standard English. National variants and local dialects.

There are historical, social, cultural, and regional varieties of English.

Standard English is the official language of Great Britain used in its literary form. Regional varieties possessing a literary form are called national variants. Local dialects are varieties of English peculiar to some districts and having no normalized literary form. In Great Britain there are two variants, Scottish English and Irish English, and five main groups of **dialects**: **Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern**. Every group contains several (up to ten) **dialects**. The local dialects are used mainly by the **rural population** and only for the purposes of **oral communication**. Local distinctions are more marked in pronunciation, less conspicuous in vocabulary and insignificant in grammar. **The British local dialects are traced back to Old English dialects**. Numerous and distinct, they are characterized by phonemic and structural peculiarities. One of the best known Southern dialects is **Cockney**, the **regional dialect of London**. This dialect exists on two levels: as spoken by the educated lower middle classes and as spoken by the

uneducated. In the first case Cockney is a regional dialect marked by some deviations in pronunciation but few in vocabulary and syntax. In the second case it differs from Standard English not only in pronunciation but also in vocabulary, morphology and syntax. The **Scottish Tongue** and the **Irish English** have a special linguistic status as compared with dialects because of the literature composed in them. The name of Robert Burns, the great national poet of Scotland, is known all over the world. The poetic features of Anglo-Irish may be seen in the plays by J.M.Synge and Sean O'Casey.

English is the national language of England proper, **the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.** Hence, there exist **five national variants**: British English (BE), American English (AE), Canadian English (CnE), Australian English (AuE), New Zealand English (NZE).

These five varieties of English are national variants of the same language, because their structural peculiarities, especially their word-formation system, syntax and morphology, as well as their word-stock and phonetic system are essentially the same. The main lexical differences of these variants from **Standard English (General English)** are connected with the lack of equivalent lexical units in one of them, divergences in the semantic structure of polysemantic words and peculiarities of usage of some words on the British Isles and in the named countries. The historic causes of the deviations in lexis are based on the fact of exporting the language of the mother country on a certain date of colonization.

The existing cases of difference between regional lexis and General English are classified into several groups:

1. cases when different words are used for the same denotatum,
2. cases when the semantic structure of a partially equivalent word is different,
3. cases when otherwise equivalent words are different in distribution,
4. it sometimes happens that the same word is used with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring,
5. there may be a marked difference in frequency characteristics.

Special words used in these variants are called: **Briticism, Americanism, Canadism, Australianism, Newzealandism.** They have no equivalents in General English, and they mostly belong to the following semantic groups: flora and fauna, trades and agriculture, names of the inhabitants of the country and the geographical names, everyday life, customs and traditions, historical events. Every national variant includes words from the language(s) of the native population.

6. American English.

The variety of English spoken in the USA has received the name of American English. The term variant or variety appears most appropriate for several reasons. American English cannot be called a dialect although it is a regional variety, because it has a literary normalized form called Standard American, whereas a dialect has no literary form. Neither is it a separate language, as some American authors, like H.L.Mencken, claimed, because it has neither grammar nor vocabulary of its own.

An americanism – is a word (set expression) peculiar to the English language as spoken in the USA. E.g. *cookie* 'a biscuit'; *frame house* 'a house consisting of a skeleton of timber, with broad or shingles laid on'; *frame-up* 'a staged or preconcerted law case'; *guess* 'think'; *store* 'shop'.

A general and comprehensive description of the American variant is given in Prof. A.D. Schweitzer's monograph. An important aspect of his treatment is the distinction made between americanisms belonging to the literary norm and those existing in low colloquial and slang. The difference between the American and British literary norm is not systematic. The American variant

of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, some minor features of grammar, but chiefly in vocabulary.

The historic causes of the deviations. American English is based on the language imported to the new continent at the time of the first settlements, that is on the English of the 17th century. The first colonies were founded in 1607, so that the first colonizers were contemporaries of Shakespeare, Spenser and Milton.

Words which have died out in Britain, or changed their meaning may have survived in the USA. Thus, *I guess* was used by Chaucer for / *think*. For more than three centuries the American vocabulary developed more or less independently of the British stock and was influenced by the new surroundings.

The early Americans had to coin words for the unfamiliar fauna and flora. Hence there appeared *bull-frog* 'a large frog', *moose* (the American elk), *oppossum*, *raccoon* - (an American animal related to bears), for animals; and *corn*, *hickory*, etc. for plants. The settlers also had to find names for the new conditions of economic life: *back-country* 'districts not yet thickly populated', *back-settlement*, *backwoods* 'the forest beyond the cleared country', *backwoodsman* 'a dweller in the backwoods'. The opposition of any two lexical systems among the variants described is of great linguistic and heuristic value because it furnishes ample data for observing the influence of extra-linguistic factors upon the vocabulary. American political vocabulary shows this point very definitely: *absentee voting* 'Voting by mail', *dark horse* 'a candidate nominated unexpectedly and not known to his voters', *to gerrymander* 'to arrange and falsify the electoral process to produce a favorable result in the interests of a particular party or candidate', *all-outer* 'an adept of decisive measures'.

Many of the foreign elements borrowed into American English from the Indian dialects or from Spanish penetrated very soon not only into British English but also into several other languages, Russian not excluded, and so became international. They are: *canoe*, *moccasin squaw*, *tomahawk*, *wigwam*, etc., and translation loans: *pipe of peace*, *pale-face* and the like, taken from Indian languages. The Spanish borrowings like *cafeteria*, *mustang*, *ranch*, *sombrero*, etc. are very familiar to the speakers of many European languages.

As to the toponyms, for instance, *Iowa*, *Kansas*, *Michigan*, *Missouri*, *Utah* (all names of Indian tribes), or other names of towns, rivers and states named by Indian words, it must be borne in mind that in all countries of the world towns, rivers and the like show in their names traces of the earlier inhabitants of the land in question.

Another big group of peculiarities as compared with the English of Great Britain is caused by some specific features of pronunciation, stress or spelling standards, such as [æ] for [a:] in *ask*, *dance*, *path*, etc., or [e] for [ei] in *made*, » *day* and some others. The American spelling is in some respects simpler than its British counterpart, in other respects just different. The suffix *-our* is spelled *-or*, so that *armor* and *humor* are the American variants of *armour* and *humour*. *Altho* stands for *although* and *thru* for *through*.

The examples below illustrates some of the other differences but it is by no means exhaustive.

British spelling American spelling

<i>cosy</i>	<i>cozy</i>
<i>offence</i>	<i>offense</i>
<i>practice</i>	<i>practise</i>
<i>jewellery</i>	<i>jewelry</i>
<i>travelling</i>	<i>traveling</i>
<i>thralldom</i>	<i>thralldom</i>
<i>encase</i>	<i>incase</i>

In the course of time with the development of the modern means of communication the lexical differences between the two variants show a tendency to decrease. Americanisms penetrate into Standard English and britishisms come to be widely used in American speech. It was, for instance, customary to contrast the English word **autumn** with the American **fall**. In reality both words are used in both countries, only *autumn* is somewhat more elevated, while in England the word *fall* is now rare in literary use, though found in some dialects and surviving in set expressions: *spring and fall*, *the fall of the year* are still in fairly common use. Cinema and TV are probably the most important channels for the passage of americanisms into the language of Britain and other languages as well: the Germans adopted the word *teenager* and the French speak of *automatization*. The British term **wireless** is replaced by the Americanism **radio**. The jargon of American film-advertising makes its way into British usage; i.e. *of all time* (in «the greatest film of all time»). The phrase is now firmly established as standard vocabulary and is applied to subjects other than films. The personal visits of writers and scholars to the USA and all forms of other personal contacts bring back americanisms.

The existing cases of difference between the two variants are conveniently classified into:

1) Cases where there are no equivalent in British English - *drive-in* 'a cinema where you can see the film without getting out of your car' or 'a shop where motorist can buy things staying in the car'; *dude ranch* 'a sham ranch used as a summer residence for holiday-makers from the cities'.

The noun *dude* was originally a contemptuous nickname given by the inhabitants of the Western states to those of the Eastern states. Now there is no contempt intended in the word *dude*. It simply means 'a person who pays his way on a far ranch or camp'.

2) Cases where different words are used for the same denotatum, such as *can*, *candy*, *mailbox*, *movies*, *suspenders*, **truck** in the USA and *tin*, *sweets*, *pillar-box* (or *letter-box*), *pictures* or *flicks*, *braces* and **lorry** in England.

3) Cases where the semantic structure of a partially equivalent word is different. The word *pavement*, for example, means in the first place 'covering of the street or the floor and the like made of asphalt, stones or some other material'. The derived meaning is in England 'the footway at the side of the road. The Americans use the noun **sidewalk** for this, while **pavement** with them means 'roadway'.

4) Cases where otherwise equivalent words are different in distribution. The verb *ride* in Standard English is mostly combined with such nouns as *a horse*, *a bicycle*, more seldom they say *to ride on a bus*. In American English combinations like *a ride on the train*, *to ride in a boat* are quite usual.

5) The same word is used in American English with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring. *Nasty*, for example, is a much milder expression of disapproval in England than in the States, where it was even considered obscene in the 19th century. *Politician* in England means 'someone in politics', and is derogatory in the USA.

6) There may be a marked difference in frequency characteristics. Thus, **time-table** which occurs in American English very rarely, yielded its place to **schedule**.

This question of different frequency distribution is also of paramount importance if we wish to investigate the morphological peculiarities of the American variant. Practically speaking the same patterns and means of wordformation are used in coining neologisms in both variants. Only the frequency observed in both cases may be different. Some of the suffixes more frequently used in American English are: *-ee* (*draftee* 'a young man about to be enlisted'), *-ette* (*tambourmajorette* 'one of the girl drummers in front of a procession'), *-dom* and *-ster*, as in *roadster* 'motor-car for long journeys by road' or *gangster dom*. American slang uses alongside the traditional ones also a few specific models, such as verb stem + *-er* + adverb stem + *-er*: e.g. *opener-upper* 'the first item on the programme' and *winder-upper* 'the last item, respectively. It also possesses some specific affixes

and semi-affixes: -o, -eroot ~aroo, -sie/sy, as in *coppo* 'policeman', *fatso* ла fat man', *bossaroo* 'boss', *chapsie* 'fellow'.

The trend to shorten words and to use initial abbreviations is even more pronounced than in the British variant. New coinages are introduced: in advertisements, in the press, in everyday conversational; soon they fade out and are replaced by the newest creations. Ring Lardner, very popular in the 30's, makes one of his characters, a hospital nurse, repeatedly use two enigmatic abbreviations: **G.F.** and **B. F.**; at last the patient asks her to clear the mystery,

«What about Roy Stewart?» asked the man in bed.

«Oh, he's the fella I was telling you about» said Miss Lyons,

«He's my G. F. 's B.F.»

«May be I'm a D.F. not to know, but would you tell me what a B.F. and G.F. are?»

«Well, you are dumb, aren't you?» said Miss Lyons, «A G.F, that's a girl friend, and a B.F. is a boyfriend. I thought everybody knew that.»

Particularly common in American English; are verbs with the hanging postpositive. They say that in Hollywood you never *meet* a man.; you *meet up* with him, you do not *study* a subject but *study up* on it. In British English similar constructions serve to add a new meaning. The lexical peculiarities of American English are an easy target for ironical outbursts on the part of some writers, John Updike is mildly humorous. His short poem «Philological» runs as follows:

The British puss demurely mews;
His transatlantic kin meow,
The kine in Minnesota moo;
Not so the gentle Devon cows:
They low,
As every schoolchild ought to know.

Conclusions.

Although not sufficiently great to warrant American English the status of an independent language, it is considerable enough to make a mixture of variants sound unnatural, so that students of English should be warned against this danger.

The American English, apart from British English, is not the only existing variant. There are several other variants - where difference from the British standard is normalized.

They are Australian English, Canadian English, New Zealand English. Each of them has developed a literature of its own, and is characterized by peculiarities in phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary. The vocabulary of all the variants is characterized by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people who inhabited the land before the English colonizers came.

Many of them denote some specific realia of the new country: local animals, plants or weather conditions, new social relations, new trades and conditions of labour. The local words for new notions penetrate into the English language and later on may become international, if they are of sufficient interest and importance for people speaking other languages. The term international words is used to denote words borrowed from one language into several others simultaneously or at short intervals one after another.

Lecture 5.

Phraseological, stylistic and grammatical peculiarities of English

Plan

1. The problem of the definition of phraseological units.
2. Classification of phraseological units
3. Lexico-stylistic layers of the English vocabulary.
4. The grammatical meaning, the grammatical form, the grammatical paradigm.

Recommended Reading

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Internet resources:

1. Бібліотека Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка: режим доступу: http://irbis.zu.edu.ua/cgi-bin/irbis64r_11/cgiirbis_64.exe
2. Національна бібліотека України імені В.І. Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>
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1. The problem of the definition of phraseological units – idioms.

Phraseological units are habitually defined as *non-motivated word-groups* that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as *ready-made units*; the other essential feature of phraseological units is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure. 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*. E.g., in *a red flower* (a free phrase) the adjective *red* may be substituted by another adjective denoting colour, and the word-group will retain the meaning: "the flower of a certain colour". In the phraseological unit *red tape* (*бюрократичні методи*) no such substitution is possible, as a change of the adjective would cause a complete change in the meaning of the group: it would then mean "*a tape of a certain colour*". It follows that the phraseological unit *red tape* is semantically non-motivated, i.e. its meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components, and that it exists as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow any change of its lexical components and its grammatical structure. Grammatical structure of phraseological units is to a certain degree also stable:

red tape – a phraseological unit;

red tapes – a free word-group;

to go to bed – a phraseological unit;

to go to the bed – a free word-group.

Still the basic criterion is comparative lack of motivation, or idiomaticity of the phraseological units. Semantic motivation is based on the coexistence of direct and figurative meaning.

2. Classification of phraseological units

Taking into consideration mainly the degree of idiomaticity phraseological units may be classified into three big groups. This *general classification* was first suggested by Acad. V. V. Vinogradov. These groups are:

- phraseological fusions (*зрощення*),
- phraseological unities (*єдності*),
- phraseological collocations (*словосполучення*), or habitual collocations.

Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated wordgroups. The meaning of the components has no connection at least synchronically with the meaning of the whole group. Idiomaticity is combined with complete stability of the lexical components and the grammatical structure of the fusion,

E.g.: *to kick the bucket* – вмирати,

at sixes and sevens – в беспорядку,

to see the elephant – пізнати життя,

to go for a song – продати за безцінь,

ball and chain – законна дружина,

a mare's nest – нісенітниця,

to talk through one's hat – говорити нісенітницю,

white elephant – обуза.

Phraseological unities are partially non-motivated word-groups as their meaning can usually be understood through (deduced from) the metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit,

e.g. *to skate on thin ice* – ризикувати,

to turn over a new leaf – почати нове життя,

to be in smb's shoes – бути на чийомусь місці,
as busy as a bee – дуже зайнятий,
as cool as a cucumber – холоднокровний,
green light – зелена вулиця.

Phraseological unities are usually marked by a comparatively high degree of stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure. Phraseological unities can have homonymous free phrases, used in direct meanings.

E.g.: to skate on thin ice – *to skate on thin ice* (to risk);

to wash one's hands off dirt – ***to wash one's hands off*** (to withdraw from participation);

to play the first role in the theatre – *to play the first role* (to dominate).

There must be not less than two notional words in metaphorical meanings.

Phraseological collocations are partially motivated but they are made up of words having special lexical valency which is marked by a certain degree of stability in such word-groups. In phraseological collocations variability of components is strictly limited. They differ from phraseological unities by the fact that one of the components in them is used in its direct meaning, the other – in indirect meaning, and the meaning of the whole group dominates over the meaning of its components. As figurativeness is expressed only in one component of the phrase it is hardly felt.

E.g.: to pay a visit, tribute, attention, respect;

to break a promise, a rule, news, silence;

to meet demands, requirement, necessity;

to set free; to set at liberty;

to make money, journey;

to fall ill.

The structure V + N (дополнение) is the largest group of phraseological collocations.

Structural classification of phraseological units.

Phraseological units may be defined as specific word-groups functioning as word-equivalents; they are equivalent to definite classes of words. The part-of-speech meaning of phraseological units is felt as belonging to the word-group as a whole irrespective of the part-of-speech meaning of component words. Comparing a free word-group,

e.g. *a long day* and a phraseological unit, e.g. *in the long run*, we observe that in the free word-group the noun *day* and the adjective *long* preserve the part-of-speech meaning proper to these words taken in isolation. The whole group is viewed as composed of two independent units (A + N). In the phraseological unit *in the long run* the part-of-speech meaning belongs to the group as a single whole. *In the long run* is grammatically equivalent to single adverbs, e.g. *finally, firstly*, etc.

So we distinguish set-expressions that are ***nominal phrases***, functioning like ***nouns***,

e.g.: Jack-of-all-trades – майстер на всі руки,

ways and means – способи, засоби,

Baker's dozen – чортова дюжина,

a thorn in the flesh – більмо на оці,

skeleton in the cupboard – сімейна таємниця;

verbal phrases, functioning like verbs:

to take the bull by the horn – діяти рішуче,

to know the ropes – знати всі ходи и виходи,

to flog a dead horse – витрачати час впусту,

to put a finger into every pie – соватись у всі справи,

to have a finger in the pie – рильце у пушку

adjectival phrases, functioning like adjectives:

(as) cool as a cucumber – холоднокровний,

(as) poor as a church mouse – дуже бідний,

(as) good as gold – золотий (про дитину);

adverbial phrases, functioning like adverbs;

in a trice – вмить,

before you can say «Jack Robinson» – вмить,

by hook or by crook – будь-якими засобами,

prepositional and conjunctive phrases:

as long as;

as well as;

in spite of; (spite – злість, досада)

as soon as;

interjectional phrases:

well, I never! – хто б міг подумати (ну і ну!),

by George! – (подив),

like hell! – черта з два,

my foot – тримай карман ширше,

my aunt! – боже мій! Здрастуйте, я ваша тітка!

my eye and Betty Martin! – ось так так!

Genetic (etymological) classification.

Phraseological units are created from free word-groups. But in the course of time some words – constituents of phraseological units may drop out of the language; the situation in which the phraseological unit was formed can be forgotten, motivation can be lost and these phrases become phraseological fusions.

The *sources of phraseological units* are different spheres of life:

sea life:

tell that to the marines – бреши більше!

in deep waters – в біді,

in low waters (сесть на мель) – бути без грошей,

to see land (видеть сушу) – бути близько до мети,

to run into difficult waters – потрапити в важку ситуацію;

fish and fishing:

to fish in troubled water – ловити рибу в мутній воді,

to drink like a fish – випивати сильно,

to feed the fishes – потонути, страждати на морську хворобу;

sport :

to have the ball at one's feet – бути хазяїном становища,

to hit below the belt – обрати заборонений прийом,

to back the wrong horse – зробити неправильний вибір,

the ball is with you! – слово за вами!

army :

to stick to one's guns – не здавати позицій,

to mask one's batteries – маскувати свій ворожий настрій,

to mark time (маршировать на месте – воен.) – бездіяльність;

hunting :

to turn tail – пуститись навтьоки;
(as) hungry as a wolf;

Zoo life (animal life):

crocodile tears;
lion's share;
white elephant;
it rains cats and dogs;

theatre :

to play to the gallery – шукати дешевої популярності,
to pull the ropes – керувати;
to play the first role – відігравати першу роль

medicine:

to sweeten the draught – підсласти ліки;

technical:

to get up steam – розвести пару, дати волю почуттям;
with full steam on – на всіх парах, поспіхом;
to grease the wheels – дати хабара;

agriculture:

to put the plough before the oxen – починати не з того кінця;
to get somebody's goat – розізлити;

historical events, customs:

by hook or by crook – у шинкарів старої Англії було в звичаї тягти до себе клієнтів, хапаючи їх гаками. Жінок – за сукню гострими гачками, чоловіків – за ногу великими гаками;
reeping Tom – надто цікавий чоловік. Джерело походження цього виразу – легенда про леді Годиви в Ковентрі. Чоловік її, граф, обклав місто великими податками. Годива заступилася за жителів. Граф поставив умову, що скасує податок, якщо Годива наважиться проїхати опівдні оголеною через усе місто. Вона прийняла умову. Дізнавшись про це, жителі змовилися в призначену годину закрити наглухо віконниці всіх будинків. Годива проїхала по порожніх вулицях. Тільки кравець Том підглядав у шпарину і осліп. У Ковентрі досі є міський годинник, на яких о 12 годині відкриваються Ставенко і з них виглядає голова цікавого Тома;

trade :

to talk shop – говорити по ділу,
to make the best of the bargain – отримати дохід,
into the bargain – впридачу, best seller – ходкий товар.

Proverbs, sayings, aphorisms.

Besides phraseological units – word-equivalents, the language has set-phrases which are equivalents of sentences. They are proverbs, sayings, aphorisms,
e.g.: custom is the second nature – звичка друга натура;

every man has a fool in his sleeve – на всякого мудреця вдосталь простоти;

too many cooks spoil the broth – у семи нянек дитя без глазу.

Proverb is a short saying, usually well-known and handed down from ancient times, containing words of advice, warning or wisdom. Proverbs are referred to phraseological units as they are usually metaphors and are coloured stylistically. Proverbs are set-phrases because they also are not created in the process of speech; they are part of the vocabulary which is created by folk. If we compare Ukrainian and English proverbs and phraseological fusions we'll discover some interesting phenomena. First of all, both languages have analogous proverbs,

e.g.: there is no smoke without fire – немає диму без вогню;

strike iron while it is hot – куй залізо, поки горяче;

don't look a gift horse into the mouth – подареному коню в зуби не заглядають.

Sometimes the meanings are analogous, but the semantic centre of the phrases is different in Ukrainian and in English. It may be explained by different historical conditions at the same time when the parallel phrases appeared,

e.g.: Rome was not built in a day. – Москва не відразу побудувалась.

Life is not a bed of roses. – Життя прожити – не поле перейти.

Do in Rome as the Romans do. – З вовками жити, по-вовчому вити. У чужий монастир зі своїм уставом.

As you make your bed so you must lie on it. – Сам заварив кашу, сам в їж.

As they sow, so let them reap. – Що посієш, те і пожнеш.

3. Lexico-stylistic layers of the English vocabulary.

Division of vocabulary into different layers.

Stylistically words can be subdivided into formal, neutral and informal layers. The formal and informal layers contain a number of subgroups. The main aspect of the formal layer is its bookish character, which makes the layer more or less stable. The aspect of the informal layer is its lively spoken character. It is this that makes it unstable. The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character: it can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity.

Both formal and informal words have their upper and lower ranges. The lower range of bookish words approaches the neutral layer and has a tendency to pass into that layer. The same may be said of the upper range of the informal layer: it can very easily pass into the neutral layer. The lines of demarcation between informal and neutral, on the one hand, and bookish and neutral, on the other hand, are blurred. Neutral words, which form the bulk of the English vocabulary, are used in both literary and colloquial language.

Formal vocabulary

Literary words are chiefly used in writing and in polished speech:

1. common literary words (learned words) – mostly polysemantic, used in books of elevated style and in books on science, e.g.: calamity, proceed, endeavour, farewell, to behold;

2. terms - words associated with a definite branch of science, used mostly in scientific works, but which may appear in newspaper, publicistic and belles-letters style; they are usually monosemantic, e.g.: terms of chemistry - oxygen, hydrogen, acid; terms of medicine - penicillin, influenza; physics - nucleus; art - renaissance, gargoyle. With the increase of general education many words, once terms, have passed into the common literary, e.g.: TV, radio, loan;

3. officialese and journalese - words used in mass media to describe occurrences of political life, e.g.: memorandum, voting;

4. **poetic words and archaisms**, e.g.: ere - before; mere - lake; yon - there; nay - no; steed - horse; warrior - soldier; welkin - sky;

5. **barbarisms and foreign words**. Barbarisms - words of foreign origin not entirely assimilated into English. They have an appearance and pronunciation of their native language, e.g.: au revoir; maitre d'hotel; achtung; bitte; basta; voila (here). Barbarisms are words which have become facts of the English language and are registered in dictionaries. Foreign words do not belong to English, are not registered in dictionaries. In printed works they are generally italicized to indicate their alien nature. Barbarisms, on the contrary are not made conspicuous in the text.

Informal vocabulary

The informal part is traditionally subdivided into literary colloquial (cultivated speech), familiar colloquial, low colloquial (illiterate speech). Literary colloquial is used by educated people in classical literature in the course of ordinary conversation or when writing letters to intimate friends. Familiar colloquial is more emotional and much more free and careless than literary colloquial. It is also characterised by a great number of jocular words, ironical expressions and nonce-words.

Low colloquial is illiterate popular speech. It includes:

1. **slang-words** that are regarded as violation of the norms of Standard English, e.g.: dirt (money), dotty (mad), the cat's pyjamas (the correct thing), bread-basket (stomach), governor (father), sleeper (a course of lectures), faky (suspicious). Slang is easily understood by the English-speaking people and is only regarded as something not quite regular;

2. **jargonisms** (argot) - words marked by their use within a particular social group and having a secret character. Jargonisms are usually old words with entirely new meaning imposed on them, e.g.: to ace (универс.) - получить высшую оценку на экзамене, six (студ.) - уборная, sneak (шк.) - ябеда, Charley - лопух; heavy cream - толстушка; horse - героин; bread - деньги; acid - наркотик; bin - сумасшедший дом; outof sight - класный, потрясный, клёвый; cold turkey - голая правда;

3. **professionalisms** - words used in a definite trade, profession.

They commonly designate some working process, tools, instruments: tinfoil

- submarine; outer - a knockout blow; egg - bomb;

4. **dialectal words** are those which in the process of integration of the English national language remained beyond its literary boundaries, and their use is generally confined to a definite locality, e.g.: kirk - церковь; firth - устье реки; naething; enough; maister;

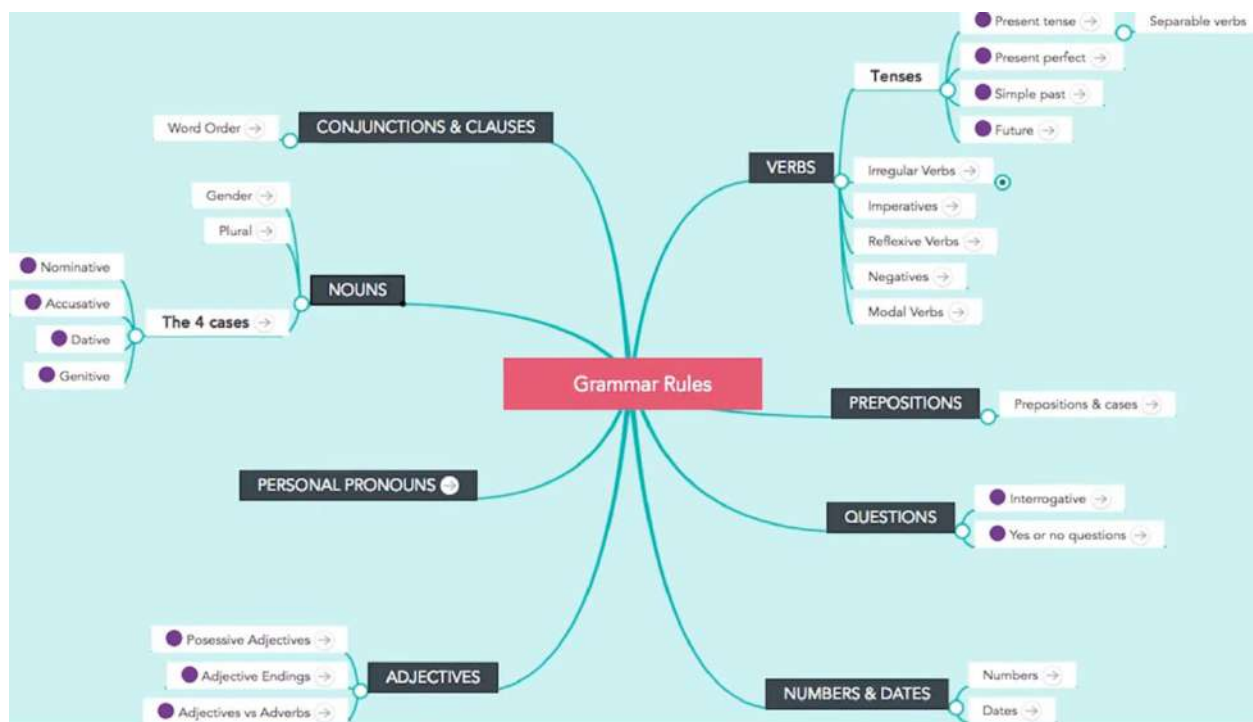
5. **vulgarisms** - coarse words that are not generally used in public.

There are different degrees of vulgar words. Some of them should not even be fixed in common dictionaries. They are euphemistically called «fourletter» words. A lesser degree of vulgarisms is presented by words like *damn*, *bloody*, *son of*

a bitch, *to hell* and others: rabbit! - черт подери!; rat (you)! - пропади ты пропадом!

6. **spontaneous colloquial coinages**. Only some of them are fixed in dictionaries; most of them disappear from the language leaving no trace, e.g.: newspaperdom; allrightmik - соглашатель; touch-menot-edness. The meaning of literary coinages can easily be grasped by the reader because of the use of the productive means of word-building, and also from the context.

4. The grammatical meaning, the grammatical form, the grammatical paradigm.



The grammatical meaning is a general abstract meaning which unites classes of forms or words and finds its expression through formal markers thus placing a linguistic unit in a grammatical category or a grammatical class of words (a part of speech). Grammatical meanings are more general and abstract whereas lexical meanings are usually more concrete and specific. The typological analysis of grammatical meanings reveals that they reflect not the fragments of reality but rather the structure of such fragments. Being limited in their number grammatical meanings have a regular and an obligatory character in the language. We cannot use a notional word without expressing its grammatical meaning/meanings. For example, when we say: It has been raining for hours, the verb rain expresses one lexical meaning and seven grammatical meanings (person, number, tense, aspect, time correlation, voice, and mood).

The grammatical meaning finds its expression in a grammatical form which is a means of expressing a grammatical meaning. Difference between word-form and the word: w-form may be equal to the word but at any rate it presents an isolated unit. It's never part of a word. Word -forms- we abstract ourselves from lexical meaning of the corresponding word. We concentrate on the grammatical meaning it carries. Ex. speaks (it shows the 3d person singular- never interested in the fact that it's the verb of saying). Unlike a word, the word-form is not independent, it's always bound as a member of a corresponding set of forms, such as set of forms usually form a paradigm.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION FOR INDEPENDENT WORKING OUT

The farther reaches of studying foreign languages as a psycholinguistic phenomenon

Вознюк О.В. *The farther reaches of studying foreign languages as a psycholinguistic phenomenon // Building Professional Linguistic Competence of Future Specialists: VI Regional Students' Scientific Internet-Conference (November 27, 2020) – Zhytomyr: Zhytomyr Medical Institute, 2020. – 248 p. – P. 223-235.*

Language, being a means of communication, and a tool of thinking, is also a fundamental mechanism of human development in onto- and phylogenesis. This relates not only to the native but also to foreign languages being studied. One of the most developed aspects of learning and teaching foreign languages is psychological/psycholinguistic, which reveals the amazing phenomena that practitioners of education should get acquainted with. Let us consider both some of these phenomena and their implications for the educational process.

As the latest research has shown, the educational process, including the process of languages learning/teaching, appears *fundamentally resonant* when its participants reveal resonate relationships with each other.

At the level of neuron organization of the human brain, the principle of resonance is realized in the phenomenon of "*mirror neurons*", discovered and investigated by Giacomo Rizzolatti with his colleagues [5]. This Italian scientist has revealed the mirror effect according to which the functioning schemes of neuron cells in human brain of a person are mirrored by the neuron cells of another person when these persons are in the process of communicative interaction. That is, the actions of a person, accompanied by the activation of the corresponding structure of the neurons of his/her brain, cause the activation of the same structure of the neurons in the brain of another person, who observes these actions and participate in these actions.

This mirror effect is also manifested at the level of *ideomotor reactions*, when a thought or mental image brings about a certain muscular reaction being beyond the awareness of the subject, *when the movement being imagined by a person is realized reflexively*. So, under the influence of some mental processes within human nervous system the nerve impulses providing real physical movement in the body spring up, which activates minimal in intensity (and not realized in actual movements of human body) motor impulses arising in connection with person's thoughts about physical movements.

So, we can talk about the "*ideo-dynamic response*" (or "reflex") which relates to a wider domain, and is applied in the description of all bodily reactions (including ideo-motor and ideo-sensory responses) caused in a similar way by certain thoughts/mental images, when, for example, the salivation being a secretory response is often caused by mere imagining by a person of the process of tasting a lemon.

The mentioned phenomenon is embodied both in the context of *evoked potentials of the brain* (when the frequency characteristics of sounds perceived by human beings generate brain processes characterized by the same frequency characteristics), and in the form of *ideomotor reactions*, when in the brain of a person who imagines certain physical movements, the nerve impulses are detected, which occur during real physical movements.

Not only thoughts about own physical movements but the person's observation of physical movements of other people can cause the ideomotor reactions in this person. From this stems the colossal civilization phenomenon – "*spectacles and bread*" ("bread and circuses" or "bread and games").

The phenomena we have mentioned are used in educational processes in the form of *educational resonance* which presupposes the *resonant organization* of the educational process and which should be widely applied in teaching foreign languages.

The principles of educational resonance are used in the educational method/technology of "*resonant learning/teaching*", which can be illustrated by the following example: the class of students is divided into two groups: group A – those who are able to learn quickly, and group B – those who learn slowly. The teacher organises a lesson on a specific theme with group A only when the studying material is explained by the teacher to several smart students. Then the teacher waits for 1-2 weeks until this material is "filtered" through the class at the level of "ideas that are in the air" (when the circulation of ideas/information takes place at a non-verbal, resonant level).

Then groups A and B are united and the lesson is conducted on the same theme, when the studying material is explained to the whole class. Under these conditions, group B acquires knowledge somewhat better than when the lesson on the theme is organized for the students of group B only. Therefore, due to resonant effect the knowledge that group A has already acquired can somehow be transmitted to the students of group B who in this case can acquire studying information quickly and efficiently

Thus, resonant learning/teaching realizes the process of transferring information through information resonance within the educational process. Objections to resonant learning/teaching are based on the opinion that it is impossible to broadcast in a resonant way, for example, the multiplication table. But resonant learning/teaching does not presuppose the transmission of sign-verbal information (the problem of this type of resonant transmission is still under consideration in the scientific world), but the transmission of emotional-extraverbal information, which is very important not only in the process of communication, but also in the actualization of life experience in solving the problems, when person's emotional activation is an decisive stage (and mechanism) of this process.

Another important fact of psychological/psycholinguistic aspect of educational process is connected with that that ***a person's use of a foreign language can increase his/her level of aggression***. Cognitive scientist Julia Sedivey, the author of the book "*Language in Mind: An Introduction to Psycholinguistics*", analyses scientific data on the ethical shifts that occur when we think and communicate in another (foreign) language [3]. In this regard, the researchers have found that the use of a foreign language in some way changes the moral judgments of the participants, increasing their level of aggression.

One of the explanations of this phenomenon has it that the differences in the perception of the world by a person who uses native and foreign languages are due to the fact that the native language of our childhood is realized with greater emotional intensity than the foreign language which we learn in a more academic environment. Thus, moral judgments made in a foreign language are less charged with emotional reactions comparing with the case when we use the mother tongue being mastered in childhood. So, the native language of our childhood, being learned along with vivid life experiences, is full of deep emotions (such as empathy, compassion, love, etc.), while the foreign languages, especially if they were studied in academia through technical devices, are realized with less emotional colouring.

From the point of view of *the concept of the asymmetry of the hemispheres of human brain*, this phenomenon finds a simple explanation: a person learns the native language in childhood at the level of the right hemispheric irrational emotional-image mechanism that allows the child to perceive the world openly, sincerely, emotionally. When a person learns a foreign language in the educational environment of educational institutions, this process (especially when its aims are achieved within the so call grammar-translating method) is realized mainly at the level of the left hemispheric abstract-logical rational mechanism, the functioning of which makes a person a cold-emotional human being that tends to express a certain aggressive/alienating attitude toward the world.

Conclusions and recommendations

Taking into consideration the above mentioned psychological/psycholinguistic phenomena we can conclude that the process of language teaching/studying must be an emotionally deep multifarious communicative interaction of all the participants in educational process.

A foreign language must be mastered in the way we master our mother tongue, and must be mastered on the verbal basis of the latter. For this purpose we can apply the approximate and analytical method stemming from a fundamental problem concerning the studying of foreign languages: how can a person master a foreign language to perfection outside the communicative environment of its native speakers. The method has been developed to overcome this problem (as well as the problem concerning increasing person's aggression by using a foreign languages) since it teaches English outside the communicative environment of its native speakers and gains the efficiency comparable with that of the methods using the altered states of consciousness – such as hypnotic trance and others (the method of the 25-th film for example). The approximate and analytical method is based on several scientific regularities and laws. The first regularity concerns the peculiarities of human brain perception of the verbal information. The neurons of man's cortex function according to the integral mechanism, that is, they organize the neuron nets and constellations. Due to this person's brain tends to perceive generalized and associative verbal information compiling integral verbal nets. That is why similar meaningful and morphological, graphic and phonetic verbal elements are perceived by our brain as integral entities. So, etymologically and associative cognate words create integral verbal nets that are to be used in the process of foreign languages teaching/learning.

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Competence of the teacher of foreign language education: psycholinguistic and neuropsychological aspects

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The purpose of the study is to identify and analyze some problematic issues of the process of implementing the competency approach in the field of pedagogical education, as well as to outline ways to solve them, which are demonstrated in the context of the formation of teacher's professional competence in the field of foreign language education. In addition to the theoretical analysis of the problem field of the interdisciplinary research, psycholinguistic, psychopedagogical,

neuropsychological, psychophysical approaches to the analysis of educational activity have been used, as well as a synergistic approach has been implemented, enabling to present the system of competencies of a modern specialist in a holistic form.

It has been found that the process of implementing the competency approach, including in the field of pedagogical education, allows us to talk about the extreme complexity of its use for determining/covering a set of teacher's professional and personality qualities, when a purely quantitative/linear analysis of these qualities turns out to be unproductive and requires the use of an interdisciplinary-synergetic approach. Analysis of the problem field of the study allows us to conclude that as a property/characteristic of an individual/personality, professional competence exists in 16 main forms/manifestations.

Three paradigmatic aspects of professional education are considered: the traditional paradigm of narrow professional education (aimed at the formation of a narrow-profiled specialist), the paradigm of the formation of a holistic harmonious personality (aimed at the formation of a multiprofiled specialist), the paradigm of post-non-classical/continuous education, which seeks to reconcile and combine discrete profile-competence and holistic humanistic-personality educational approaches. The paradigm of post-non-classical education implements the task of forming a multifaceted specialist (who, through continuous education, is able to develop himself/herself in the context of relevant qualities of a narrowly profiled specialist, and integrate these into the qualities of a multiprofiled specialist), when the competences of a specialist should include the entire life spectrum of a person, which begins to form in early childhood. Therefore, the system of competencies of a modern specialist should also include the competencies being formed in childhood. The author's concept of the formation of a synthetic type of knowledge as a nonlinear aspect of the professional competence of a teacher is also outlined.

Keywords: *representational systems, foreign language education, foreign language teacher, mirror neuron phenomenon, infantilization technique.*

Introduction of the issue.

Analysis of the current socio-cultural situation both in Ukraine and in the world allows us to trace the current trend in education concerning changing the educational paradigm. This is due to globalization processes, as well as to the information boom associated with the dynamic development of the modern world and the rapid aging of knowledge and technology. This, in turn, reveals the phenomenon of "half-life of a specialist's competencies", when the results of professional training in higher education institutions become rather obsolete within a relatively short period of time (from 5 to 15 years depending on the speciality) [3].

This problem is solved by introducing the paradigm of continuing education of specialists. One of the tools of continuing education is connected with the competent approach, which has become widespread over the past 15-20 years and has been reflected in hundreds of thousands of scientific publications, dissertations in Ukraine and the world.

The competency-based approach, which is conditioned by the globalization processes of the modern world [2], acquires the character of a certain paradigm [14], which reveals an interdisciplinary nature, since the issues of this approach are actualized in the context of the analysis of various scientific problems.

We should also note that in the modern education system, the problem of educational effectiveness is particularly acute, when traditional methods and means of this process must ensure both the anticipatory nature of the development of education, and the creation of conditions for the harmonious development and self-realization of the personality. It is the competency-based approach that shifts the emphasis from the accumulation of normatively defined qualities (knowledge, skills, abilities, faculties, experience) to the formation and development of the ability to act practically, to apply the formed experience of successful professional actions in specific professional situations.

Current state of the issue.

One of the aspects of the modernization of education concerns its construction on the basis of a competency-based approach, which serves as a step in the transition from the paradigm of subject-knowledge education to the model of forming in students a holistic experience of solving life problems, performing key functions that belong to many spheres of culture and are implemented through the performance of socio-psychological/professional roles.

The paradigm of the competency-based approach in education has been actively developed in the works of both Ukrainian scientists [3; 5; 6] and foreign researchers, which reveals competency-based learning [1] in various educational spheres – in foreign language education [4], in professional training and in the sphere of personal creative growth [7–10; 17], etc. At the same time, the use of the competency-based approach in education expresses the main trends in the development of modern world [2; 12; 18] and takes on the character of a certain paradigm [14].

Competence is now understood as an integrative property of a person, which expresses the level of mastery of relevant knowledge, skills, abilities, social experience and ensures qualified solution of professional tasks. Key, **general, professional, special competences** are differentiated according to the principle of hierarchy, which determines the subordination of components and the subordination of lower-level systems to higher-level systems, as a result of which competence acquires the features of **a linear-hierarchical metasystem**.

1) General competence is an integral characteristic of a personality, which realizes person's ability to apply relevant knowledge, skills, and successfully act on the basis of practical experience when solving certain tasks in various spheres of life.

2) Professional competence is the ability to successfully act on the basis of practical experience, skills, and knowledge in the context of solving tasks/problems of professional activity.

3) Special competence is the ability to solve a specific (narrow) class of tasks/problems in a certain professional sphere of activity (for example, in educational activities – pedagogical diagnostics, design, implementation of innovations, etc.).

4) Key competences are competencies necessary for people for personality realization and development, active civic life, social solidarity, employment, etc.

Correlating professionalism with various aspects of a specialist's maturity, scientists also distinguish **four types of professional competence**: 1) special, 2) social, 3) personality 4) and individual.

Analysis of the problem field of the study allows us to conclude that as a property of an individual/personality, professional competence exists in various forms/manifestations [1-8], in particular

1) as a (high) level of professional skill of a person, which characterizes him/her as a professional in a certain field,

2) as a readiness (at a high professional level) to perform relevant professional tasks and to solve relevant professional problems,

3) as a tool for forming a personality and at the same time as a method/instrument of personality self-realization (in such entities as a habit, way of life, including a healthy lifestyle, hobbies, system of values, regulatory skills, etc.),

4) as a certain summary and indicator of the development/self-development of an individual/personality,

5) as a goal, tool and at the same time a means of testing/monitoring the process of forming a modern specialist in the system of professional/vocational education,

6) as a system of a person's life and professional experience, including the experience of the past (retrograde), present (current) and future (potential) life/existence,

7) as a form of manifestation of human abilities, his/her essence as a representative of *Homo sapiens* (I. Zyazyun),

8) as the ability to make adequate/effective decisions (production, management, life ones),

9) as the ability to independently acquire new knowledge and skills, successfully master new things, expand the horizon of different activities,

10) as the ability to effectively use new knowledge and skills in practical activities, including in new fields of science and technology (mobility of knowledge),

11) as the ability to qualitatively, effectively and accurately perform one's functions, both in normal and extreme conditions of life and professional activity,

12) as the ability to quickly adapt to changing conditions, including to new knowledge and production technologies.

13) as the ability of an individual to effectively carry out professional activities on the basis of acquired professional competencies, which should contribute to the development of the creative potential of the individual, his/her professional self-development, self-improvement, and life creativity,

14) as the ability to effectively perform socio-productive roles in various spheres of life,

15) as the ability to fully integrate into the socio-political, spiritual and cultural contexts of society,

16) as the ability to harmoniously combine the professional qualities of both a narrow and a multidisciplinary specialist.

However, the process of implementing the competency approach, including in the field of pedagogical education, allows us to speak about the extreme complexity of its use for determining *the set of professional and personality qualities of a teacher/specialist*. This constitutes the main problem of implementing the competency approach in the educational field, since a purely quantitative/linear analysis of professional and personal qualities (which in our study are reflected in the sixteen main forms/manifestations representing professional competence) turns out to be unproductive, since competence should synergistically encompass/integrate a set of certain qualities of a person, which cannot be fully defined/outlined in a linear way, but can be presented only in a first approximation.

The aim of the research.

For a more complete analysis of the system of competencies of a modern specialist, specifically the pedagogue, an interdisciplinary approach has been applied, which includes the use of neuropsychological and psycholinguistic approaches to the analysis of the competence of a foreign language teacher. This is the goal of our study.

Research methods.

In addition to the theoretical analysis of the problem field of the interdisciplinary research, the psycholinguistic, psychopedagogical, neuropsychological, psychophysical approaches to educational activities, as well as a synergistic approach, have been used.

Results and discussion.

We can talk about two target poles of the competency paradigm:

1) training a narrow specialist, competent in his/her narrow field (narrowly professional profile-centered education) and

2) formation of a holistic harmonious personality as a universal specialist (humanistic, personality oriented education);

3) it is possible to conceptualize a third aspect of the competency paradigm, within which discrete (profile) and holistic (humanistic) aspects are combined, which is implemented in the context of continuous education throughout life, which should combine aspects of specialization and universalization.

Continuous education expresses the need to form a universal multi-vector specialist, whose professional training stems from the tendency of modern science to exponential growth and constant renewal of knowledge and technologies. If at the beginning of the twentieth century the total sum of knowledge produced by humanity doubled every ten years, now this process takes less than a year. Therefore, specialized knowledge loses its applied value after a sufficiently short

period of time (depending on the sphere of activity), which reveals the problem of the half-life of the competencies of a modern specialist.

Therefore, competence should be associated not only with a specific amount of knowledge, skills and abilities, experience, but also with the ability to make adequate decisions and apply knowledge in new areas of science and technology, where the acquired knowledge may turn out to be outdated. And this reveals the need for universalization and modification of knowledge, the formation of the ability to use this knowledge in conditions of rapid change in the field of modern technologies.

Moreover, in the modern world, the knowledge-intensiveness of production processes, rapid change in technologies require constant improvement of the specialist's qualifications in the context of his/her ability to professional growth, mastering the new. At the same time, an essential feature of professional competence is the ability of an employee to perform his/her functions qualitatively and without error, both in normal and extreme conditions, to successfully master the new and quickly adapt to changing conditions, including the emergence of new knowledge and production technologies.

This requires the construction of such a pedagogical system of professional education that would ensure the introduction into the educational field of synthetic (constructive) knowledge, which is formed on the basis of interdisciplinary ties. For the knowledge to acquire the features of universality, integrity and creative content, this knowledge must receive additional representations, which enriches knowledge with new complex associative connections, additional interdisciplinary parallels and contributes to the formation of a specialist who should be a harmonious personality and combine the qualities of a narrow-profile and multidisciplinary specialist.

This synthetic type of knowledge can be illustrated by the process of deep assimilation of a certain concept (as well as the word that stands for this concept). To do this, a person must represent this concept

- 1) in the form of an object/phenomenon that this concept/word reflects
- 2) in the audio form presupposing the hearing of this word,
- 3) in the visual form due to seeing its graphic representation (eidetic of the brain),
- 4) in the motor-pronouncing form due to pronouncing this word (motor skills of the articulation apparatus),
- 5) in the motor-writing form due to writing this word (motor skills of the hands, which have the greatest representation in the human brain),
- 6) in the feeling form due to feeling the object by touch.

In this regard, we note that one of the essential aspects of the actualization of the synthetic type of knowledge is implemented in the context of human representational systems, which can be presented in the context of neuro-linguistic programming, according to which we can talk about three sensory channels of perception of human reality: auditory (hearing), visual (eye-sight), kinesthetic (movement, touch, taste).

One of the goals of human development as a professional can be formulated, which is the harmonious development of three representative systems, which significantly expands the cognitive resources of the future specialist. Under such conditions, the process of human cognition of the world (as the expansion of the cognitive horizon of a person, which is the cornerstone of the process of professional training), his/her effective activity/life activity in the spheres of the social and professional environment largely depends on the level of development of representative systems, social perception, which, in turn, determines the formation of a person's empathic ability to empathize, the ability to understand the motivational impulses of other persons, the ability to take their point of view, which is a fundamental indicator of a wise person (O.K. Tikhomirov). *Therefore, the development of representative/sensory systems in future specialists, which are most effectively and dynamically formed in early childhood, is important in the process of professional training.*

The specified aspect of the formation of the professional competence of the teacher refers to the sphere of foreign language education, since it is in this sphere that the problems of the formation of the professional competence of the teacher can be solved in the context of neuropsychological [19] and psycholinguistic [20] approaches.

Under such conditions, the task of forming the relevant professional competences in the participants in the educational process should also include the task of actualizing certain competencies that were formed in childhood, when the formation of the competence system is considered as a nonlinear phenomenon that involves both actual and virtual aspects. This is achieved through the mental-emotional regression of students into their past childhood. In this context, we will consider the process of forming language-linguistic competencies in students in the context of their regression into childhood. Let us consider our experience in this process.

The most effective language acquisition by a person is carried out in the early preschool age, since a child (up to 5-6 years old) as a predominantly right-hemispheric being with a plastic psyche, colossal emotional-sensory resources and high dynamics of mental processes (this is reflected in the high speed of biological time), with a rapid metabolism, appears as a multifaceted gifted being capable of absorbing large amounts of verbal and extraverbal information due to the acceleration of its biological time, when a child, compared to an adult, encounters/interacts with a large "volume" of cosmic-socio-natural reality [20].

According to the principle "the giftedness is a synthesis of talents", when the development of one/separate talent in a child is initiated and enhanced (facilitated) by the development of other talents, when different talents (abilities) coexist in synergistic unity in the structure of the child's psyche [11], children's giftedness as an emergent entity (which, according to the synergistic view of the problem, is a systemic characteristic of the whole) can be "released" with the help of certain educational and developmental resources/procedures.

The state of childhood itself can positively influence an adult who is capable of activating this childish state under certain circumstances/conditions. This was proven by a psychological and pedagogical experiment conducted in 2020 at the Zhytomyr Ivan Franko State University.

At the first lesson with first-year students of the specialty "performing arts", for the purpose of preliminary testing the level of their knowledge in the English language, each of the 14 students was asked to read aloud a small text in English. The students read, and the teacher/experimenter did not correct the mistakes. After that, the experimenter asked the students to embody the psychological state of a 5-6-year-old child and read the same text from a child's perspective. As a result, the number of pronunciation errors of the students who read the text decreased sharply.

In this regard, we can talk about *the method/technique of infantilization* (psychologically positive regression to childhood), which in the context of the development of the educational environment was studied at the Research Institute of Suggestology (Bulgaria, Sofia), where it was found that the psychomental immersion of an adult in childhood can activate/release the resources of "childish genius". In this context, we can talk about the "basal genius" of each child, which the prominent American psychologist and philosopher A. Maslow called the "principle of sacredness" inherent in each child, which reveals the child's need to achieve great goals in its future life.

The next aspect of the problem of a competent teacher of foreign language education is the psycholinguistic and neuropsychological aspects, which is associated with the phenomenon of mirror neurons [13; 15; 16; 20]. This phenomenon raises the problem of forming a competent teacher to a new level. Let us consider this phenomenon.

Any interaction/communication that takes place in any social sphere, including in the sphere of education, involves multi-level interaction of its participants. For example, we can talk about the interaction of people in the context of the concept of instances, according to Eric Berne, according to which (refer to his book "*Games People Play*", 1964) each person combines three aspects: adult, child and parent. Thus, pair interaction reveals several scenarios when one of the specified aspects can interact separately.

However, the most interesting and profound interaction occurs at the level of the neural organization of the human brain, when brain's neural ensembles reflect the activity of a person – physical and psychological, which is accompanied by the creation in the brain of a certain/unique neural picture associated with a certain/unique activity of a person. This peculiar picture of neural ensembles can be transmitted to the brain of another person in a situation of close interaction/communication. That is, when a student/pupil observes the actions/activity of a teacher in the mode of active interaction, a picture of neural ensembles is formed in the student's brain, identical to the same picture that is generated in the teacher's brain. It turns out that the student turns into a teacher in the sphere of the nervous processes at the level of the neuron organization of the student's brain, who, although remaining a passive observer of the teacher's actions, nevertheless repeats/mirrors these actions at the internal virtual ideomotor level of his/her body/organism.

For psychology, the discovery of mirror neurons is as important as the discovery of DNA is for biology. The history of the discovery of *the phenomenon of mirror neurons* goes back to 1992, when in Parma (Italy), under the direction of Giacomo Rizzolatti, studies of the brain of macaques were conducted in order to analyze how exactly the motor function of their body is carried out. When the monkeys performed any movement, a certain activity was observed in the F5 zone – the premotor zone of the cerebral cortex. Moreover, the neurons of this zone became active not only when the macaques performed any action, but also when the macaques observed how other monkeys were going to perform or were performing any action. When a monkey took a raisin from a plate, the neurons responsible for this action were activated. When the monkey watched the experimenter take a raisin from a plate, the same neurons were activated thus revealing the inter-species interaction[13].

Then, after numerous studies, mirror neurons were discovered in other areas of the human brain (and humans have many more of them than monkeys), in mammals, birds, and possibly in reptiles, amphibians, and fish. It is natural, based on the functions of mirror neurons, that they are found more often in herd animals.

Since the 90s, the number of studies on mirror neurons has been growing every year. And we are beginning to better understand their features, anatomy, and functions.

Today, mirror neurons are associated with motor imitation, empathy, sharing the "picture of the world" of another.

The functions of mirror neurons are associated with learning and knowledge transfer, understanding the actions and intentions of other people/animals, empathy. They are also associated with the effective organization of social life, the development of speech and language, and culture.

The prerequisites for the discovery of these neurons were already in the 50s of the last century when scientists researched into processes of brain rhythms (the mu rhythm). The mu (μ) rhythm of the brain (localized above the motor cortex) is observed in a state of physical rest and disappears during voluntary movements. In 1954, the French neurologist Henri Gastaut noted that the mu rhythm is also suppressed when a person observes the actions of others (refer to his book "*The Epilepsies Electro-Clinical Correlations*", 1954). In the early 2000s, Vilayanur Ramachandran, an Indian-American neurologist and neurophysiologist, and his colleagues repeated the experiments using more advanced methods and obtained similar results. By the way, the mu rhythm is suppressed only when performing an action or observing the actions of another, but suppression does not occur if one simply observes a moving object, for example, a bouncing ball [15; 16].

The evolutionary meaning of the emergence of mirror neurons as *neuron and ideomotor imitation* reveals several aspects: learning, synchronization, and understanding the intentions of others. Such imitation, for which mirror neurons are responsible, is the basis of learning in many species, including humans. From birth, a child learns to repeat gestures and facial expressions after the parents, without even understanding their meaning. As it grows, imitation becomes more complex and persons learn complex skills. When we observe and repeat simple movements, our mirror neurons located in the motor cortex are activated. When it comes to complex movements

oriented toward a goal, mirror neurons located in the frontal association cortex (responsible for the formation of a global task and selection of a program of actions), in the premotor cortex (responsible for dividing the program into individual movements) and then in the motor cortex (responsible for signals going to muscles to perform the actual movement) are activated.

One of the striking examples of motor imitation is yawning. When a person next to you yawns, you often want to yawn back. Moreover, the desire to yawn also arises when we watch a movie or a photo with a yawning person or sometimes even an animal. As a rule, mirror neurons work on animals of their own species, and even more so on their pack (family). But there are examples of interspecies imitation when the dogs very often can repeat some of people's movements.

Synchronization of behavior and mental-emotional states is the most important aspect for the successful functioning of a social communities (pack/family). For effective interaction, the state and actions of each member must be similar and coordinated. This creates the foundation for a successful search for food, hunting, defense and attack, moving in space. A sensory signal from one individual (audible, visual) is transmitted to another and causes a similar signal to appear in it, thanks to the work of mirror neurons.

Synchronized work of mirror neural networks of different individuals creates coordinated work of a team, be it a pack of wolves, a herd of gazelles or a group of employees involved in working process.

There is data showing that mirror neurons function more actively within close communities rather than within the strange persons. The effect of greater activation of mirror neurons on someone we consider "ours" is especially strong in empathy. In this case, mirror neurons, being located in the limbic system and some other brain structures, function.

The peculiarity of mirror neurons is that they react especially strongly not just to the actions of other people, but to *purposeful actions*: not just to stretch out a hand, but to stretch out with the intention of taking a cup and drinking tea, for example. Since, thanks to the work of mirror neurons, the associative frontal cortex, premotor and motor zones are activated when observing this action, it turns out that both the action and the purpose for which this action is performed are reflected in the brain of the observer. In this way, we can understand/predict the intentions of other people, what they really want to do.

This is the most important ability that helps in communication, learning, and action. We don't just mimic behavior, we model aspects of other persons' mind and can see the world from their point of view, predicting their behavior and understanding their intentions. This ability (being called "*The Theory of Mind*") begins to develop at the age of three and is the basis of emotional intelligence. The better ones network of mirror neurons is developed, the better one can understand others, "read" their states and intentions, and be more effective in communicating with them and managing them.

Thus, any action of the teacher can be transferred to students/pupils in such a mirror-resonance mode. This means that in the context of the phenomenon of mirror neurons, the teacher reveals a new and rather important facet within the set of professional competencies.

Under such conditions, a system of teacher professional training can and should be developed regarding his/her ability (in the context of knowledge and skills) to generate appropriate psychological (mental and emotional) states during, for example, explaining educational material to students, as well as the ability to transmit these states to students.

Under such conditions, the educational process should also be oriented towards creating conditions that would allow students to most effectively reflect the teacher's actions.

Conclusions and research perspectives.

1. It has been found that the process of implementing the competency approach, including in the field of pedagogical education, allows us to speak about the extreme complexity of its use for determining/covering a set of professional and personality qualities of a teacher, when a purely

quantitative/linear analysis of these qualities turns out to be unproductive and requires the use of an interdisciplinary/synergetic approach.

2. Three paradigmatic aspects of professional education have been considered: the traditional paradigm of narrow professional education (aimed at the formation of a narrowly specialized specialist), the paradigm of the formation of a holistic harmonious personality (aimed at the formation of a multi-profiled specialist), the paradigm of post-non-classical/continuous education, reconciling and combining discrete profile-competence and holistic humanistic-personality educational approaches. The paradigm of post-non-classical education implements the task of forming a multifaceted specialist (who, through continuous education, is able to develop in the context of the relevant qualities of a narrow-profiled specialist and integrate the qualities of a multi-profiled specialist into these qualities), which can be achieved 1) due to the technology of mental-emotional regression of future specialists in childhood, 2) due to the development of the sensory sphere in future specialists, 3) as well as due to developing teacher's ability to generate appropriate psychological states and to transmit these states to students who are to be open to these states.

3. It has been outlined that the result of professional training in higher educational institutions should be concentrated not only in the sphere of personality and professional qualities of the educational staff, but also in the sphere of certain qualities of the student being the future specialists and main result of professional training.

4. A synthetic type of knowledge is conceptualized based on an illustration of the process of deep assimilation of a certain concept through its representation at the level of six aspects of human activity: in the form of an object/phenomenon that this concept/word reflects; in the audio form presupposing the hearing of this word; in the visual form due to seeing its graphic representation (eidetic of the brain); in the motor-pronouncing form due to pronouncing this word (motor skills of the articulation apparatus); in the motor-writing form due to writing this word (motor skills of hands having the greatest representation in the human brain); in the feeling form due to feeling the objects by touch.

The prospects for further development can be considered the implementation of the above tasks in terms of transforming the competency approach into an effective tool for developing the creative personality of all participants in the educational process, including the process of professional training.

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**КУРС ЛЕКЦІЙ
З ВИБІРКОВОЇ ОСВІТНЬОЇ КОМПОНЕНТИ**

«Теорія сучасної англійської мови»

для студентів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти

Надруковано з оригінал-макета авторів