

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ
Житомирський державний університет імені Івана Франка

МЕТОДИЧНІ РЕКОМЕНДАЦІЇ ДО ПРАКТИЧНИХ ЗАНЯТЬ
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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Р е ц е н з е н т и:

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Методичні рекомендації до практичних занять 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. 118 с.

Методичні рекомендації до практичних занять 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 освітню компоненту, готуються до відповідної професійної діяльності.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Інтеграція 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 вчителя змінюються: його діяльність орієнтована на створення умов для саморозвитку учнів і 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 робота студентів щодо практичних занять з освітніх компонентів.

Мета практичних занять – сприяти формуванню самостійності як особистісної риси та важливої професійної якості молодого людини, суть якої полягає в уміннях систематизувати, планувати, контролювати й регулювати свою діяльність без допомоги й контролю викладача.

Завданнями з практичних занять (семінарів) можуть бути засвоєння певних знань, умінь, навичок, закріплення та систематизація набутих знань, їхнє застосування, вирішення практичних завдань та виконання творчих робіт, виявлення прогалин у системі знань із предмета. Це дає можливість здобувачам працювати без поспіху, не боячись негативної оцінки товаришів чи викладача, а також обирати оптимальний темп роботи та умови її виконання.

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, формулювати 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.

ПРАКТИЧНО-СЕМІНАРСЬКІ ЗАНЯТТЯ

Теми практичних/ семінарських занять

(денна форма)

№ з/п	Назва теми	Кількість годин
1	Standard English.	2
2	National variants and local dialects.	2
3	American English.	2
4	Morphemes. Their structural and semantic classifications.	2
5	Semantic structure of the word. The problem of meaning	2
6	Synonyms. Antonyms.	2
7	Homophones	2
8	Phraseology. Classifications of phraseological units	2
9	Lexico-stylistic layers of the English vocabulary	2
10	Theoretical grammar of English	2
11	Parts of speech. The noun	2
12	Article	2
13	The adjective. The adverb. The Verb.	2
14	The Numeral. The Pronoun	2
15	Functional parts of speech	2
16	Phrase Syntax	2
17	Simple Sentence Syntax. Composite sentence syntax	2
Всього:		34

Теми практичних/ семінарських занять

(заочна форма)

№ з/п	Назва теми	Кількість годин
1	Standard English. National variants and local dialects.	2
2	Morphemes. Their structural and semantic classifications.	2
3	Semantic structure of the word. The problem of meaning. Synonyms. Antonyms. Homophones	2
4	Phraseology. Classifications of phraseological units. Lexico-stylistic layers of the English vocabulary	2
5	Theoretical grammar of English	2
Всього:		10

Семінар 1. STANDARD ENGLISH

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про стандартну англійську мову і про особливості її функціонування.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. The fundamentals of the theme
2. Historical, social, cultural, and regional varieties of English
3. Cases of difference between regional lexis and General English are classified into several groups.
4. Five national variants

Key words: dialects, communication, local distinctions, national variants, general English, modern English, Cockney.

Recommended Reading

Brinton, Laurel J. & Donna M. Brinton. 2010. The linguistic structure of Modern English, 2nd edn. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

Gramley Stephan, Gramley Vivian, Pätzold Kurt-Michael. A Survey of Modern English. London, Imprint Routledge, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429300356>

Hopper, Paul J. 1999. A short course in grammar. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Huddleston, Rodney. 1984. Introduction to the grammar of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Бережнюк В. М. Загальне мовознавство : хрестоматія; Ніжин. держ. ун-т ім. М. Гоголя. - Ніжин : Вид-во НДУ ім. М. Гоголя, 2011. 361 с.

Соловйова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. 232 с.

Бібліотека Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка: режим доступу: http://irbis.zu.edu.ua/cgi-bin/irbis64r_11/cgiirbis_64.exe

Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>

British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

Questions for self-control

1. What are the fundamentals of the theme
2. What are the historical, social, cultural, and regional varieties of English? Name their peculiarities.
3. Enumerate some cases of difference between regional lexis and General English
4. What are the classification of English as the national language?
5. Why the British local dialects are traced back to Old English dialects?

Realization of the plan

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.

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).

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme concerning the historical, social, cultural, and regional varieties of English.

2. Read an extract from the book below and analyze its content.

(Gramley Stephan, Gramley Vivian, Pätzold Kurt-Michael. *A Survey of Modern English*. London, Imprint Routledge, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429300356>)

1.1 STANDARD ENGLISH (StE)

There is little explicit agreement about just how StE should be regarded. Almost everyone who works with English assumes at least implicitly that it exists, but the descriptions which have been made of it – for example, in dictionaries, grammar books, and manuals of style – indicate that there is a certain amount of diversity in people’s ideas about StE. Yet there *are* dictionaries, grammars, and manuals of style, and what they document – some would say prescribe – is what is most often understood by StE (see §§1.3 and 1.4).

A standard language is used as a model in the speech community at large. In §1.3, you will read about four defining characteristics involved in the process of standardization: selection, acceptance, elaboration, and codification. That this is necessary is evident in the cases of so many indigenous languages in Third World countries (Chapter 12) which for lack of an indigenous standard have adopted a standardized European language such as English, hoping in this way to ease the path to “economic prosperity, science and technology, development and modernization, and the attractions of popular culture” and paying the price of some loss of self-expression and some diminishment in feelings of cultural worth (Bailey 1990: 87). The result is that “the old political empire with its metropolis and colonial outposts has nearly disappeared, replaced by a cultural empire of ‘English-speaking peoples’” (ibid.: 83). This quotation indicates that the move to English or, some might say, its imposition can also be overdone if English becomes the instrument of cultural imperialism. In order for English to occupy a more deeply rooted position within postcolonial societies, it must draw on the everyday usage of its speakers, and this includes the recognition not only of nonstandard forms but also of nonnative ones. While this is a current which moves contrary to StE in ENL (English as a Native Language) countries, it is also one which is likely to invigorate English worldwide and make it more flexible.

To look at this from another angle, StE is “the kind of English which draws least attention to itself over the widest area and through the widest range of usage” (Quirk and Stein 1990: 123). It is most clearly associated with the written language, perhaps because what is written and especially what is published is more permanent and is largely free of inadvertent slips and is transmitted in spelling, which is far more standardized than pronunciation is. Compare the relatively few AmE-BrE differences in orthography (§9.3.6) but the numerous national and regional accent standards (Chapters 3, 7–12). Two criteria may help us understand what it is that “draws least attention to itself” over the widest geographic spread and stylistic range. For one, there is the criterion of educated usage, sometimes broadened to include common, colloquial usage and probably most reasonably located somewhere between the two (§1.4). The other criterion is appropriateness to the audience, topic, and social setting. However these criteria are finally interpreted, there is a well-established bias toward the speech of those with the most power and prestige in a society. This has always been the better-educated and the higher socio-economic classes. The speech – however varied it may be in itself – of the middle class, especially the upper middle class, carries the most prestige: It is the basis for the overt, or publicly recognized, linguistic norms of most English-speaking societies. This is not to say that working-class speech or, for example, what is called British Black English (§7.5.4) or African-American English (AAE) (§8.5.2) are without prestige, but these varieties represent hidden or covert norms in the groups in which they are current. For a member of such a group not to conform to them would mean to distance themselves from the group and its dominant values and possibly to become an outsider. Language, then, is a sign of group identity. Public language and the overt public norm are what determine StE.

Although a great deal of emphasis has been put on *what* StE is, including lists of words and structures often felt to be used improperly (§1.2), it is perhaps more helpful to see *how* language use is performed. One approach is to see accommodation as a process which helps speakers communicate in a manner which is (1) socially appropriate (whether middle class or working class), (2) suitable to the use to which the language is being put (its register), and (3) clear. This means that

while we, the authors, recognize the effects of the varying characteristics of users as well as the diverse uses to which the language is put, we will, nevertheless, orient ourselves along the lines of educated usage, especially as codified in dictionaries, grammars, phonetic-phonological treatments, and a wide assortment of other sources. In doing this, we are more Anglo-American than Antipodean, more middle than working class, and look more to written than spoken language – except, of course, in the treatment of pronunciation (Chapter 3) and spoken discourse (Chapter 5).

The third criterion listed above, clarity, is often evoked by alarmists. Its loss, resulting in the demise of English, is foreseen and lamented by popular grammarians and their reading public. This is best treated in connection with the question of language attitudes.

1.3 THE EMERGENCE OF STANDARD ENGLISH

Although the focus of this book is on a synchronic presentation of present-day English, it is useful to take a glimpse at its diachronic (historical) development, since this makes the existence of the countless variants which are present in the varieties of modern English more understandable. In this section we will trace out some of the factors which led to the emergence of the form of English commonly called StE. Standardization generally proceeds in four stages: selection, acceptance, elaboration, and codification.

Selection. At the center of the process of standardization lies power, be it military, economic, social, or cultural. Those groups in a society which are the most powerful (richer, more successful, more popular, more intelligent, better looking, etc.) will be emulated according to the maxim: “Power attracts.” As England began to develop into a more unified political and economic entity in the late medieval period, the center of power began to concentrate more and more in London and the Southeast. The Court had moved from Winchester to London by the end of the 13th century. Gradually the London dialect (or more precisely that of the “East Midlands triangle”: London, Oxford, and Cambridge) was becoming the one preferred by the educated. This was supported by the establishment of printing in England in 1476 by William Caxton, who used an Eastern Midlands regional base in his work. Furthermore, this was a wealthy agricultural area and a center of the wool trade. With its commercial significance the London area was also becoming more densely populated, thus gaining in demographic weight. It was therefore inevitable that the English of this region would become a model with a wider geographic spread and eventually be carried overseas. Today it continues to exert considerable pressure on the regional dialects of England, which as a result are converging more and more toward the standard.

In this process variant forms were in competition with each other (§7.3.6: and Figure 7.1 on the Great Vowel Shift). But by the end of the 16th century the preferred dialect was that of London, which existed in two standards: a spoken one and the written “Chancery standard.” The latter moved more quickly toward what would be Standard English, while the former was slower to lose its Middle English features. Chancery also differed from popular London speech by adopting characteristics from the Northern dialects: Two of the best known are the inflection of the verb in the third person singular present tense and the personal pronoun for the third person plural. This explains why we have Northern *does* and not Southern *doeth*, even though the latter is familiar to many people even in the 21st century from the King James (Authorized) Version of the Bible. The Southern third person plural pronouns were *hy*, *here*, and *hem*; the Northern and Midland forms, which show the influence of the Vikings’ language, Old Norse, give us the present-day *th*-forms (*they*, *their*, and *them*).

1.4 STANDARD AND GENERAL ENGLISH (GenE)

Before looking at StE and GenE we need to point out that both are dialects of English but not dialects in the full sense of the term, which includes not only a description of vocabulary and grammar but one of pronunciation as well. StE and GenE are special cases. For one, since they are used widely everywhere in the English-speaking world, they may be described in terms of their grammar and vocabulary only and not according to their pronunciation. Both StE and GenE are, namely, pronounced with a great variety of different accents while staying within certain grammatical and lexical bounds. In contrast, the local speechways of the traditional dialects of Great Britain are all associated with specific local, dialect pronunciations. While StE in England

can, in principle, be spoken with any accent, it is closely, though not necessarily, associated with one particular accent, Received Pronunciation (RP). RP and General American (GenAm) are the two standard reference accents on which the description of pronunciation in Chapter 3 is based.

The Emergence of RP is one of the results of the process of standardization. It arose, relatively late, in the middle of the 19th century in the great public schools⁴ of England, where it was and still is maintained and transmitted from one student generation to the next without being deliberately taught (Abercrombie 1965: 12). It is maintained by virtue of the prestige and power of its speakers, who have traditionally formed the social, military, political, cultural, and economic elite of England (and Great Britain). It is, for example, still practically a prerequisite for entry into the diplomatic service. As such it is a socially rather than regionally based accent. Although it has considerable (overt) prestige, there are signs that it is giving way to a more regionally based pronunciation, that of the London-area lower Thames Valley, a variety (involving more than just pronunciation) sometimes termed Estuary English (cf. Rosewarne 1994; see also §7.5.4).

In none of the other English-speaking countries is there anything quite like RP. There is arguably a pronunciation which is recognized as the national standard in Scotland, the United States, Canada, South Africa, and so on, but in all of these cases the basis of the standard pronunciation is regional and not social. Australia, however, comes close to the English situation because none of the three pronunciation types usually recognized, Cultivated, General, and Broad, are regionally based.

Standard English is a relatively narrow concept as compared with General English, and the type of language associated with it is closely associated with a fairly high degree of education. It represents the overt, public norm. StE is that variety of English which is usually used in print and which is normally taught in schools and to nonnative speakers learning the language. It is also the variety which is, in principle at least, spoken by educated people and used in news broadcasts and other similar situations. The difference between standard and nonstandard, it should be noted, has nothing, in principle, to do with differences between formal and colloquial language. StE has colloquial as well as formal variants (Trudgill 1974: 17). An example of StE is the negated third person singular present tense form of the auxiliary *do*, which is *doesn't* (e.g., *He doesn't care what you do*). This stands in contrast to Non-Standard General English (NSGenE) *He don't care what you do*.

General English includes a wide spectrum of varieties which are widely used and understood. It is only the traditional dialects (of the British Isles; see below) and the English creoles (see below and Chapter 11) which do not belong to General English, since utterances rendered in them are not widely understood outside their immediate speech community.

If within the framework of GenE a speaker chooses a nonstandard variant, we can assume that they will be understood by other speakers of GenE. What is particularly significant about their choice is that the speaker's violation of the overt norms of StE is most likely a sign of their solidarity with a speech community more local in character than the global StE-speaking community. In this sense NSGenE represents a covert norm. However, since the possible variants of GenE include the forms which are used in StE, we can conclude that GenE is the more general term and includes StE. We have already seen one example above (the third person singular present tense form of the auxiliary *do*). A further example is sentence negation, which in NSGenE has a variant with double negation, viz. *He don't care about nothing you do*, which is commonly used (especially for emphasis). StE rules double negation strictly out, allowing only *He doesn't care about anything you do*. Here is a short list of further nonstandard features of GenE (cf. Gramley 2012: §10.4):

- nonstandard past and past participle forms (*they come to see us yesterday; you done a good job; have you went to see them yet?*)
- widespread use of *ain't* for *be* and the auxiliary verb *have* (*I ain't interested; he ain't comin'; we ain't seen him*)
- *never* for (*did*) *not* (*Did you take them sweets? No, I never*)

- various nonstandard relative pronouns such as *what* or *as* (*he was the man what/as did it*) or none at all as the subject of a restrictive relative clause (*he was the man did it*)
- the demonstrative determiner *them* (*where did you get them new glasses?*)
- the reflexive pronouns *hissself* and *theirselves* (*he hurt hissself playing football*)
- no plural form after numbers (*she's five foot five tall and weighs eight stone*)
- not quite so widespread is the use of the ending {s} for all persons in the west of Eng-land (*I likes it, you likes it, she likes it, ...*), but the lack of any {s} in East Anglia (*she like it*).

Traditional Dialect is a term which covers varieties which have the same historical roots as GenE but evolved in enough isolation from GenE that they are likely to contain features so different from GenE that they are difficult (or impossible) for outside speakers of GenE understand. See the examples given in Table 1.1 (further examples from the English West Country dialect in §7.5.1 and Lowland Scots in §7.5.2).

3. Describe the main characteristics of New Zealand English (NZE)

4. Optional task: prepare the slide presentation for this theme

Семінар 2. NATIONAL VARIANTS AND LOCAL DIALECTS

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про національні варіанти і локальні діалекти англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Modern linguistics distinguishes
2. The differences between the English language as spoken in Britain, the USA, Australia and Canada
3. Dialects in Britain.
4. Dialects in the USA

Key words: dialects, lexical differences, British and American variants, the British Isles, dialectal words, the national literary language.

Recommended Reading

Brinton, Laurel J. & Donna M. Brinton. 2010. The linguistic structure of Modern English, 2nd edn. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

Gramley Stephan, Gramley Vivian, Pätzold Kurt-Michael. A Survey of Modern English. London, Imprint Routledge, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429300356>

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Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>

British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

Questions for self-control

1. What are modern linguistics distinguishes between national variants and local dialects?
2. Why is the English language not used with uniformity in the British Isles and in Australia, in the USA and in New Zealand, in Canada and in India?
3. What are the dialects in Britain?
4. Describe major lexical differences between the British and American variants.
5. What are the differences in vocabulary in the British and American variants?

Realization of the plan

Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial variants of a national language and local dialects. Variants of a language are regional varieties of a standard literary language characterised by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and grammar and by their own literary norms. Dialects are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities, they are set off (more or less sharply) from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

It is natural that the English language is not used with uniformity in the British Isles and in Australia, in the USA and in New Zealand, in Canada and in India, etc. The English language also has some peculiarities in Wales, Scotland, in other parts of the British Isles and America.

The differences between the English language as spoken in Britain, the USA, Australia and Canada are immediately noticeable in the field of phonetics.

When speaking about the territorial differences of the English language philologists and lexicographers usually *note the fact that* different variants of English use different words for the same objects. Thus in describing the lexical differences between the British and American variants they provide long lists of word pairs like:

BE AE

flat apartment

underground subway

lorry truck

pavement sidewalk

post mail

tin-opener can-opener

government administration

leader editorial

teaching staff faculty

The number of lexical units denoting some “realia having no counterparts in the other English-speaking countries is considerable in each variant. To these we may refer, for example, lexical units pertaining to such spheres of life as flora and fauna (e.g. *AuE kangaroo, kaola, dingo, gum-tree*), names of schools of learning (e.g. **junior high school** and **senior high school** in *AE* or **composite high school** in *CnE*), names of things of everyday life, often connected with peculiar national conditions, traditions and customs (e.g. *AuE boomerang, AE drug-store, CnE float-house*).

Dialects in Britain. In the British Isles there exist many speech varieties confined to particular areas. These local dialects traceable to Old English dialects may be classified into six distinct divisions: 1) Lowland (Scottish or Scotch, North of the river Tweed), 2) Northern (between the rivers Tweed and Humber), 3) Western, 4) Midland and 5) Eastern (between the river Humber and the Thames), 6) Southern (South of the Thames). The Scottish dialect of the English language is to be distinguished from the Scottish tongue, which is a Celtic language spoken in the Highlands.

The local dialects in Britain are sharply declining in importance at the present time; they are being obliterated by the literary language. This process is twofold. On the one hand, lexical units of the literary language enter local dialects, ousting some of their words and expressions. On the other hand, dialectal words penetrate into the national literary language.

Dialects in the USA. The following three major belts of dialects have so far been identified, each with its own characteristic features: Northern, Midland and Southern, Midland being in turn divided into North Midland and South Midland.

The differences in vocabulary are rather numerous, but they are easy to pick up. Cf., e.g., Eastern New England **sour-milk cheese**, Inland Northern **Dutch cheese**, New York City **pot cheese** for Standard American **cottage cheese** (*cup*).

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme

2. Read an extract from the book below and analyze its content.

(Gramley Stephan, Gramley Vivian, Pätzold Kurt-Michael. *A Survey of Modern English*. London, Imprint Routledge, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429300356>)

1.5.3 Dialects

The second dimension in Part 2 is dialect, which is oriented more toward the social features of users than toward texts. Basic to any observation about language users is how much power and prestige they have and how much cohesion they feel toward the groups they identify with.

In sociolinguistics we correlate social/group features with the language the speakers or writers use. Gender is one such social feature (§6.3). However, gender alone does not determine linguistic behavior, but rather it is more fundamental social relations which are mirrored in gender: power, solidarity, and identity/stance. In short, the male-female divide is characterized largely (though surely not exclusively) and probably most definitively by a power differential while relations within each of the genders are often determined by solidarity. Of course, this does not mean that male-female relations cannot also be characterized by a high degree of solidarity. Furthermore, there are obviously male-female relationships in which the female is the dominant and more powerful figure. However, at a deeper societal level male dominance and power is almost an absolute – at least in Western society. This, we might say, lies in the basic economic hegemony of males in Western society, which is resistant to change, but may be covered over, even when superior female intelligence manifests itself, when individual females have better jobs than individual males, when females withhold sexual favors, when females are more wealthy, famous, or successful (and so on). One of the things that sociolinguistics does, we see, is to offer a reflection of society and its inequalities.

The complementary relationship, solidarity, is more likely to characterize interpersonal relationships by reciprocity, by a more or less balanced mutuality. One instance of this is the use of slang.

The type of language referred to as *slang* is more than a level of formality. That is, slang cannot be understood simply as informal, colloquial, careless, sloppy language even though these notions are indelibly connected with the idea of slang in many people's minds. Slang is, rather, first and foremost, group language. This restriction – at least in its origins – is the key feature of slang. That is, slang has an extremely important social function to fulfill with regard to the groups that

create it: it helps to establish solidarity and is associated with group identity. An elderly White American woman who talks about *dissing* (“to show *dis*respect toward someone”) may be using (relatively) recent slang, but she is violating numerous restrictions on its use, chief among which is that this is typical of young Black males. While slang usage such as this may drift upward into the language of the more powerful and outward into that of out-group users, this is far from automatic; and by the time this happens, the original group will probably have long since turned to a different expression. (Gramley 2001: 207f)

3. Describe, please, the main characteristics of Canadian English (CnE),

4. Optional task: prepare the slide presentation for this theme

Семінар 3.

AMERICAN ENGLISH

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про американський варіант англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. British English and American English: the problem of distinction
2. British English and American English: present perfect and past simple.
3. British English and American English: the past participle of the verb get is got.
4. British English and American English: verb forms with collective nouns
5. British English and American English: present perfect and past simple

Key words: British and American English, singular verb, present perfect, interactive exercises.

Recommended Reading

Brinton, Laurel J. & Donna M. Brinton. 2010. The linguistic structure of Modern English, 2nd edn. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

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Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>

British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

Questions for self-control

1. Do you know any differences between British and American English?
2. What are the peculiarities of using the present perfect and past simple in British English and American English?
3. What are the peculiarities of using the past participle of the verb *get* is *go* in British English and American English?
4. What are the peculiarities of using the verb forms with collective nouns in British English and American English?
5. What are the peculiarities of using the present perfect and past simple tenses in British English and American English?

Realization of the plan

British English and American English

(<https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/grammar/b1-b2-grammar/british-english-american-english>)

Do you know any differences between British and American English? Test what you know with interactive exercises and read the explanation to help you.

Look at these sentences. Do you know which sentences are more typical of British English or American English?

Shall I open the door for you?

He's taking a shower.

France have won the World Cup.

I'm not hungry. I just ate.

Grammar explanation

The main difference between British English and American English is in pronunciation. Some words are also different in each variety of English, and there are also a few differences in the way they use grammar. Here are five of the most common grammatical differences between British and American English.

1. Present perfect and past simple

In British English, people use the present perfect to speak about a past action that they consider relevant to the present.

The present perfect can be used in the same way in American English, but people often use the past simple when they consider the action finished. This is especially common with the adverbs *already*, *just* and *yet*.

British English	American English
<i>He isn't hungry. He has already had lunch.</i>	<i>He isn't hungry. He already had lunch.</i>
<i>- Have you done your homework yet?</i>	<i>- Did you do your homework yet?</i>
<i>- Yes, I've just finished it.</i>	<i>- Yes, I just finished it.</i>

2. got and gotten

In British English, the past participle of the verb *get* is *got*.

In American English, people say *gotten*.

** Note that *have got* is commonly used in both British and American English to speak about possession or necessity. *have gotten* is not correct here.

British English	American English
<i>You could have got hurt!</i>	<i>You could have gotten hurt!</i>
<i>He's got very thin.</i>	<i>He's gotten very thin.</i>
<i>She has got serious about her career.</i>	<i>She has gotten serious about her career.</i>
BUT:	BUT:
<i>Have you got any money?</i>	<i>Have you got any money? (NOT Have you gotten ...)</i>
<i>We've got to go now.</i>	<i>We've got to go now. (NOT We've gotten to ...)</i>

3. Verb forms with collective nouns

In British English, a singular or plural verb can be used with a noun that refers to a group of people or things (a collective noun). We use a plural verb when we think of the group as individuals or a singular verb when we think of the group as a single unit.

In American English, a singular verb is used with collective nouns.

** Note that *police* is always followed by a plural verb.

British English	American English
<i>My family is/are visiting from Pakistan.</i>	<i>My family is visiting from Pakistan.</i>
<i>My team is/are winning the match.</i>	<i>My team is winning the match.</i>
<i>The crew is/are on the way to the airport.</i>	<i>The crew is on the way to the airport.</i>
BUT:	BUT:
<i>The police are investigating the crime.</i>	<i>The police are investigating the crime.</i>

4. have and take

In British English, the verbs *have* and *take* are commonly used with nouns like *bath*, *shower*, *wash* to speak about washing and with nouns like *break*, *holiday*, *rest* to speak about resting.

In American English, only the verb *take* (and not the verb *have*) is used this way.

British English	American English
<i>I'm going to have/take a shower.</i>	<i>I'm going to take a shower.</i>
<i>Let's have/take a break.</i>	<i>Let's take a break.</i>

5. shall

In British English, people often use *Shall I ...?* to offer to do something and/or *Shall we ...?* to make a suggestion.

It is very unusual for speakers of American English to use *shall*. They normally use an alternative like *Should/Can I ...?* or *Do you want/Would you like ...?* or *How about ...?* instead.

British English	American English
<i>It's hot in here. Shall I open the window?</i>	<i>It's hot in here. Can I open the window?</i>
<i>Shall we meet in the café at 5?</i>	<i>Do you want to meet in the café at 5?</i>
<i>Shall we try that again?</i>	<i>How about we try that again?</i>

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme
2. Prepare the slide presentation for this theme

Семінар 4.

MORPHEMES. THEIR STRUCTURAL AND SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATIONS

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про морфеми, їх структурну та семантичну класифікацію в сучасній англійській мові.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння знаннями про морфеми, їх структурну та семантичну класифікацію для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Morphemes. Their structural and semantic classifications.
2. Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.
- 3/ Word-formation patterns.

Key words: morph – allomorph – morpheme, root (radical), affix, inflexion, paradigm, stem, immediate and ultimate constituents, monomorph and polymorph words.

Recommended Reading

Main:

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Questions for self-control:

1. What do words consist of?
2. What is a morpheme?
3. What types of morphemes can be singled out semantically?
4. What do we call root-morphemes (or radicals)?
5. What do we call non-root morphemes?
6. What is a suffix? What is a prefix?
7. What structural types of morphemes can be singled out? Characterize each type.
8. In what way does the lexical meaning of root-morphemes differ from the lexical meaning of affixational morphemes?

Realization of the plan

A word consists of morphemes: roots (lexical morphemes) and affixes (prefixes and suffixes). Morphemes may be classified according to different criteria.

According to their function there exist:

- 1) word-building morphemes (*teach – teacher*) and
- 2) form-building morphemes (*teacher – teachers*), the latter are also called inflections.

According to the subsystem in which they operate and the type of meaning they convey there are:

- 1) lexical morphemes (roots): *work*;
- 2) lexico-grammatical morphemes (prefixes and suffixes): *worker*;
- 3) grammatical morphemes (inflections): *workers*.

On the basis of the degree of self-dependence and linear characteristics linguists distinguish:

- 1) free morphemes: *ask, work, teach, boy*;
- 2) bound morphemes: *asks*;
- 3) semi-bound morphemes: *will ask*;
- 4) discontinuous morphemes: *is asking*.

Grammatical morphemes may be positive (having their formal plane of expression) and negative (having no formal plane of expression). The latter are also called **zero morphemes** and are described as **a meaningful absence of a morpheme**.

The meaning of a zero morpheme is understood through the opposition of forms. For example, the meaning of a zero morpheme in *boy_* is understood as the meaning of singularity when opposed to the form *boys*, which has the meaning of plurality.

Word-formation patterns

1. Афіксація (affixation = prefix and suffix)

to **cover** – to discover (покривати – відкривати)
to mobilize – to demobilize (мобілізувати – демобілізувати)
usual – unusual (звичайний – незвичайний)
national – international (національний – інтернаціональний)
to read – reader (читати – читач)
to meet – meeting (зустрічати – зустріч)
to differ – different (розрізняти – різний)
nature – natural (природа – природний)
boy – boys (хлопчик – хлопчики) *boyhood* (дитинство) – *boy-friend* (хлопець-друг)
he – his (він – його) *him* (йому, його) – *himself* (сам)
just – justice – injustice – unjust

equal – equality – inequality – unequal
civil – civility – incivility – uncivil
polite – politeness – impoliteness – impolite

2. Словоскладання (compounding = common round = загальний удар, фунт, в'язниця)

hair + to cut (волосся + різати) = **a haircut** – стрижка
driving + license (процес їзди + ліцензія) = **a driving license** – водійські права (водійська ліцензія)
baby + to sit (дитина + сидіти) = **to babysit** – наглядати за дитиною
brain + to wash (мозок + мити) = **to brainwash** – промивати мозки (маніпулювати)
brain + drain (мозок + дренаж) = **a braindrain** – витік мізків
well + dressed (добре + одягнений) = **well-dressed** – гарно одягнений
green + eye (зелений + око) = **green-eyed** – зеленоокий
every + where (кожний + де) = **everywhere** – всюди
any + time (будь-який + час) = **anytime** – в будь який час
some + body (хтось + тіло) = **somebody** – хтось
forget + me + not (забувати + мене + ні) = **forget-me-not** – небазудка
broad + to cast (широкий + кидати, "кастинг" – підбір акторів) = **to broadcast** (транслявати = широко кидати)
white + wash (білий + мити) = **to whitewash** (білити)
black + mail (чорний + пошта) = **to blackmail** (шантажувати – *blackmail* – чорна пошта)
girl + friend (дівчина + друг) = **girlfriend** (подруга)
hand + book (рука + книжка) = **handbook** (довідник)
birth + day (народження + дей) = **birthday** (день народження)
bed + room (ліжко + кімната) = **bedroom** (спальня кімната)
news + paper (новини + папір) = **newspaper** (газета)
to watch + man (дивитися + людина) = **watchman** (сторож)
sugar+free (цукор + вільний) = **sugar-free** (без цукору)
alcohol-free (безалкогольний)
fireproof (вогнестійкий)
soundproof (звукоізоляційний)
water-way (водний шлях)
editor-in-chief (головний редактор)
mother-in-law (свекруха, тобто "мама у законі")
passer-by (перехожий) – to pass (проходити, передавати) – passage (прохід) – a passer (перехожий) – by (біля)
kind-hearted (добросердечний)
dark-green (темно-зелений)
short-sighted (короткозорий)
first-class (першокласний)
whenever (будь-коли)
however (однак)
whatever (що завгодно)
nowhere (ніде)
everyone (всі, кожен)
nothing (нічого) – nothingness (ніщо)

3. Конверсія (conversion) – наголос не змінюється

an email – to email (имейл – писати имейл)
a host – to host (хазяїн – приймати гостей) *This host hosts the guests*
a name – to name (імя – називати)
to call – a call (звонити – дзвоник)
to visit – a visit (відвідувати – візит)
to date – a date (зустрічатися – побачення)

to empty – empty (спустошувати – порожній)
dry – to dry (сухий – сушити)
clean – to clean (чистий – мити)
final – a final (фінальний – фінал)
rich – the rich (багатий – багатії)
water – to water (вода – поливати)
objective – an objective (об’єктивний – мета) – *aim, target, purpose, goal*
table – to table (стіл – ставити на стіл... *to table a resolution – подати резолюцію*)
to answer – an answer (відповідати – відповідь)
to hand – a hand (вручати – рука)
to order – an order (наказувати – наказ)
to walk – a walk (гуляти – прогулянка)
to work – a work (працювати – робота)
to check – a check (check, cheque) (перевіряти – чек, перевірка)
to test – a test (тестувати – тест)
to free – free (звільняти – вільний)
original – an original (оригінальний – оригінал)
intellectual – an intellectual (інтелектуальний – інтелект)
international – the International (інтернаціональний – інтернаціонал)
professional – a professional (професіональний – професіонал)
military (a military man) – **a military** (військовий – військовослужбовець)
native (a native speaker) – **a native** (рідний – носій рідної мови)

4. Зміна наголосу (change of emphasis)

to permit [pə'mɪt] – **a permit** ['pɜːmɪt] (дозволяти – дозвіл)
to export [ek'spɔːt] – **an export** ['ekspɔːt] (експортувати – експорт)
to present [prɪ'zent] – **a present** ['prez(ə)nt] (презентувати, дарити – дарунок, презент)
to progress [prəʊ'ɡres] – **a progress** ['prəʊɡres] (розвиватися, прогресувати – розвиток, прогрес)
to accent [æk'sent] – **an accent** ['æksent] (акцентувати, акцент)
to transport [træn'spɔːrt] – **a transport** ['trænsɔːrt] (перевозити, транспортувати – перевезення, транспорт)
to transfer [træns'fɜː] – **a transfer** ['trænsfɜː] (переміщувати – переміщення, трансфер)
to contract [kən'trækt] – **a contract** ['kɑːn.trækt] (заклювати договір – договір)
to produce [prə'duːs] – **a produce** ['prəduːs] (виготовляти – продукція)
to escort [e'skɔːrt] – **an escort** ['eskɔːrt] (супроводжувати – супровід)
to subject [səb'dʒekt] – **a subject** ['səbdʒekt] (підкорюватися – підлеглий)
to object [əb'dʒekt] – **an object** ['ɔːbdʒekt] (заперечувати – об’єкт)
to discount [dɪs'kaʊnt] – **a discount** ['diskaʊnt] (давати скидку – скидка, дисконт)
to desert [dɪ'zɜːt] – **a desert** ['dezət] (спустошувати – пустеля)
moral ['mɔːrəl] – **a morale** [mə'rɑːl] (мораль – моральний стан) – **morality**

Society might condemn such practices on **moral** grounds. I feel your **moral** compass wavering, John.

The **morale** and spirits of our soldiers remain high.

art objects (мистецькі об’єкти) = art objects (мистецтво заперечує, сперечається)

*A cynic was standing in front of an exhibition of local art talents labelled "Art **objects**".*

"Well", he announced to the attendant on charge,

*"I should think Art should **objects** and I can't say that I blame her"*

5. Чергування звуків і літер (alternation of sounds and letters)

to advise [əd'vaɪz] – **an advice** [əd'vaɪs] (давати пораду – порада)

to live [lɪv] – **a life** [laɪf] (жити – життя)
to believe [bɪ'li:v] – **a belief** [bɪ'li:f] (вірити – віра)
to use [ju:z] – **a use** [ju:s] (використовувати – використання)
to excuse [ɪk'skju:z] – **an excuse** [ɪk'skju:s] (вибачати – вибачення)
to descend [dɪ'send] – **a descent** [dɪ'sent] (спускатися – спуск)
to shelve [ʃelv] – **a shelf** [ʃelf] (ставити на полицю – полиця)
to choose [tʃu:z] – **a choice** [tʃɔɪs] (вибирати – вибір)
to lose [lu:z] – **a loss** [lɒs] (втрачати – втрата)
to breathe [bri:ð] – **a breath** [breθ] (**дихати** – дихання)
to prove [pru:v] – **a proof** [pru:f] (доводити – доказ)
to sit [sɪt] – **a seat** [si:t] (**сидіти** – сидіння)
to tell [tel] – **a tale** [teɪl] (розповідати – розповідь)
to sing [sɪŋ] – **a song** [sɒŋ] (співати – пісня)
to feed [fi:d] – **a food** [fu:d] (годувати – їжа)
to bleed [bli:d] – **a blood** [blʌd] (кровоточити – кров)
to shoot [ʃu:t] – **a shot** [ʃɒt] (стріляти – постріл)
to dig [dɪg] – **a ditch** [dɪtʃ] (рити – траншея)
to practise ['præktɪs] – **a practice** ['præktɪs] (практикувати – практика)
to license ['laɪsəns] – **a licence** ['laɪsəns] (ліцензувати – ліцензія)
to fill [fɪl] – **full** [fʊl] (наповнювати – повний)

a house ['haʊs] – **houses** ['haʊzɪz] (будинок – будинки)

intuition [ˌɪntu:'ɪʃən] – **to intuit** [ˌɪntu:'ɪt] (інтуїція – проявляти інтуїцію)
enthusiasm [en'θu:zɪ, æzəm] – **to enthuse** [en'θu:z] (ентузіазм – проявляти ентузіазм)
liaison [li'eɪ, zɑ:n] – **to liaise** [li'eɪz] (зв'язок – зв'язуватися) => **liana** [li'ɑ:nə] (лиана)

*Can you **liaise** with Tim and agree a time for the meeting, please?*
*She's always **enthusing** about her new teacher.*
*I think you're a strong enough now **to intuit** my response.*

6. Скорочення (reduction)

Air + plane = airplane → plane
Tele + phone = telephone → phone
advertisement → ad
examination → exam
canister → can
universal form → uniform
A military man → a military
April → Apr.
gasoline → gas
gymnasium → gym
influenza → flu
laboratory → lab
mathematics → math
memorandum → memo
photograph → photo
public house → pub

7. Аббревіатура (abbreviations)

NASA → National Aeronautics and Space Administration
UFO → unidentified flying object
USA → the United States of America

Laser → **l**ight **a**mplification by **s**timulated **e**mission of **r**adiation
Radar → **r**adio **d**etection and **r**anging
BBC → **B**ritish **B**roadcasting **C**orporation
VIP → **v**ery **i**mportant **p**erson
PIN → **p**ersonal **i**dentification **n**umber

8. Телескопія (telescoping)

television + broadcast = a telecast
science + fiction = a sci-fi
helicopter + lift = to helilift
sea + laboratory = a sea-lab

9. Змішення (blending)

blog: web + log
motel: motor + hotel
smog: smoke + fog
webinar: web + seminar
motel: motor + hotel
amtrak: America + track
fedex: Federal express
intel: integrated electronics
SitCom: situational comedy
SoHo: South of Houston
TriBeCa: Triangle Below Canal Street

10. Запозичення (borrowing)

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

11. Епонімія (eponyms)

Joseph Ignace Guillotin → guillotine
Candido Jacuzzi → jacuzzi
Franz Anton Mesmer → mesmerize

12. Приклади

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.

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the realization of the plan

2. Read the article below and analyze its content.

Використання кореневих груп під час складання навчальних текстів з англійської мови

(Вознюк О. В. (2024) Використання кореневих груп під час складання навчальних текстів з англійської мови. Збірник тез доповідей наукової конференції викладачів та молодих науковців Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка з нагоди Днів науки : збірник тез доповідей (електронне видання), 16-17 травня 2024 р. С. 184–188.)

Як засвідчують наукові розвідки, нейрони кори головного мозку людини функціонують за інтегральним механізмом, тобто організовують нейронні мережі і констеляції та синхронізують свою роботу [4; 12; 13]. Завдяки цьому мозок людини виявляє тенденцію сприймати й обробляти узагальнену та асоціативну вербальну інформацію, яка виявляється у цілісних вербальних мережах. За таких умов подібні змістовно-морфологічні, графічні та фонетичні елементи сприймаються мозком учасників освітнього процесу як цілісні утворення [13]. При цьому лексичні одиниці іноземної мови, які мають певну фонетичну подібність та спільний етимологічний витоки, фіксують активність однієї/цілісної нейронної ділянки головного мозку людини.

За таких умов можна говорити про певні принципи формування акустичної мови у відповідних ділянках мозку людини, що ілюструється *психологією суб'єктивної семантики*, у контексті якої можна аналізувати певні "оперативні одиниці сприймання", які описують той чи інший об'єкт інваріантним чином, що дозволяє створювати різні семантичні поля і простори [9].

Так, у дослідженнях Н. Хенлі виявлена семантична подібність лексичних одиниць, що виражають назви тварин [7]. Відтак, тварини розуміються людьми не так, як це має місце у біологічних класифікаціях. Тут використовуються ознаки екстралінгвістичного походження.

Ч. Осгуд виявив координатні вектори, які характеризують поняття, позначені словами різноманітних мов у різних культурах, що дозволило говорити про "стійкі зчеплення" властивостей об'єктів [5; 11].

Як засвідчили дослідження у сфері *звукового символізму*, окремі звуки мови змістовно мотивуються і можуть отримати оцінку носіями мови у контексті різних шкал (наприклад, "сила-слабкість", "доброта-жорстокість", "повільність-швидкість" та ін.) та окремих якостей (колір, рух, речовина) [8]. При цьому, така мотивація виявляється не тільки для звукового, візуального, але й тактильного аспектів інформації [1; 3].

Так, прикметно, що англійські звуки "fl" несуть значення легкості, повітряності, руху, який здійснюється у різних середовищах: flag, flake, flame, flannel, flap, flare, flash, flea, fledged, flee, fleece, flexible, flight, flinch, flimsy, fling, flip, flirt, float, flock, flog, flood, flop, flounce, flour, flourish, flow, fluctuate, flue, fluency, fluent, fluff, fluid, fluorescence, flurry, flush, fluster, flute, flutter, flux, fly.

Таким чином, споріднені/подібні слова у контексті етимологічно-словотвірних та асоціативно-фонетичних зв'язків, створюють цілісні вербальні мережі/комплекси, які необхідно використовувати в процесі навчання/вивчення іноземних мов цілісним чином, тобто ці слова слід вивчати у цілісному контексті [2].

За таких умов навчальні тексти з англійської мови можуть містити слова, що належать до однієї кореневої групи, яка може бути достатньо великою за обсягом. Розглянемо деякі приклади.

1. Етимологічно-словотвірний аспект.

Подамо кореневу групу, яка фокусується навколо слова *long*: longevity, longer, longest, belong, belonging, length, prolong, lengthen, prolongation, prolonged, lengthened longitude, London, long for, long ago, a long while ago, a long time, linger, Longmont, any longer, long way, lingering, age-long, lifelong, link, along, long-armed, long-headed, oblong, leg, log, elongated, elongation, lingo, linguist, purloined, lung, lank, lanky, cling, longanimity, alongside, so long, prolongation.

При цьому коренева група може охоплювати слова, які, на перший погляд, навряд чи можуть належати до неї (наприклад, breeze – to breathe – breath – breast).

2. Асоціативно-словотвірний аспект.

Подамо кореневу групу, яка фокусується навколо асоціативно-апроксимального значення слова *admiral* ("людина у чудовій, яскравій морській формі, якою можна захоплюватися"): *admiral, admiralty, admire, mire, admirable, admirer, admiring, admiration, mirage, mirror, miracle, miraculous.*

Подамо кореневу групу, яка фокусується навколо асоціативно-апроксимального значення слова *close* ("зачиняти", "обмежувати", "охоплювати" та ін.): *close, cloud, cloth, clothes, clot, clod, clench, cling, lock, clock.*

Подамо кореневу групу, яка фокусується навколо асоціативно-апроксимального значення слова *scrape* ("скребти", "обскрібати", "зскрібати", "дряпатися" та ін.) *scrape, scrapper, scraper, scrab, scarab, scrabble, scrub, rub, scribble, scrawl, scratch, scramble, describe, scratch, scrub, scoop, scope, scape, cap, cape, Capitol, Capital, escape.*

Висновки.

Проведений аналіз дозволив дійти висновку, що споріднені (подібні етимологічно, асоціативно, словотвірним чином) слова у контексті етимологічно-словотвірних та асоціативно-фонетичних зв'язків, слід використовувати в процесі освоєння іноземних мов (англійської мови) цілісним чином, тобто ці слова слід вивчати у цілісному контексті за допомогою певних вправ.

За таких умов, учні та студенти можуть засвоювати на порядок більше слів (на рівні носіїв мови), у томі числі й слова, які вживаються вкрай рідно, але які носії мови сприймають як споріднені, що досягається ними ще у дитинстві під час засвоєння мови як рідної, коли вербальна інформація сприймається дитиною саме у сфері певною глибинної/універсальної граматики (Н.Хомський [13; 14]) асоціативно-словотвірним чином у контексті механізмів *суб'єктивної семантики*, що дозволяє дитині поєднувати/інтегрувати різнобічну інформацію, яка стосується різних сенсорних систем – аудіальної, візуальної, кінестетичної.

3. Translate each sentence illustrating word formation patterns

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.

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*. **Lime lime-tree**, to be in the lime light

When the people are *evacuated* – **vacuum** – cleaner, vacant place, vacancy

This event is an *evacuation*.

Now we know the word-formation:

Organize – *organization*, an organ – human and musical organ

Constitute and *constitution*, status, state, to state, con- = common, common status, state

Lemon gives us *lemonade*,

Moving in *pairs* – is *parade*,

Policy, *political* – *politics*, *he is interested in politics* – *to pursue a policy of justice*

(проводити політику справедливості)

Tact and *tactful* – *tactics*.

Prejudice – *justice*, **jury**, *judge*, *to justify*, *justification*, *just*, *prejudice* (упередження) = *pre*
+ *judge* – *pre* = *before* (*pre-war*) *judicial*, *injudiciously*

If you eat your food – it is **eatable**. Eatable – being able to be eaten = ability – rehabilitate
re+ ability

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. – to pick up

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, dog – doggy

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. (To develop – de+ velocity – velocipede)

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 (baker – to bake – bakery)

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 (pro+ strait)

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. (em+ ply – to ply (to do) – plywood – фанера)

comply – compliment

He lives in Japan and speaks Japanese.

What's his nationality? He's 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.

4. Define which words have been combined to form the following computer terms. Give their meanings.

Netiquette, netizen, technophobe.

5. According to their pronunciation classify the given acronyms into two groups: 1) those that are read as ordinary English words; 2) those with the alphabetic reading.

UNESCO - United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, NATO – North Atlantic Treaty Organization, NASA – National Aeronautics and Space Administration, SALT – Strategic Arms Limitation Talks, IQ – intelligence quotient, UFO – unidentified flying object, VIP – very important person, FIFA – Federal International Football Association.

6. Optional task: prepare the slide presentation for this theme

Семінар 5.

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD.

THE PROBLEM OF MEANING

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про семантичну структуру слова в сучасній англійській мові.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння знаннями про семантичну структуру слова для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. The semantic structure of the word. Types of lexical meaning
2. Different approaches to the problem of word meaning
3. The problem of polysemy
4. The main semantic processes
5. Grammatical ambiguity
6. Lexical ambiguity

Key words: semantics, meaning, denotation, connotation, semantic (lexical) ambiguity, polysemy, homonymy.

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Questions for self-control

1. What are connotation and denotation?
2. Give an example of polysemantic words.
3. What are the "drawbacks" of a polysemantic word?
4. What word are called polysemantic?
5. What is a denotative component of the word?
6. What prevents from misunderstanding of a polysemantic word meanings?
7. What does semantics study?
8. What is the leading semantic component in the semantic structure of the word?

Realization of the plan

The semantic structure of the word. Types of lexical meaning.

The branch of Linguistics which studies the meaning of different linguistic units is called **Semantics**. The part of Lexicology which studies the meaning and the development of meaning of words is called **Semasiology**.

There are different approaches to the problem of word meaning:

1) The **referential**, or **denotational approach** is characterized by the thought that the essence of meaning lies in the interconnection and interdependence between: the word as the soundform, the referent, and the concept. Here **meaning** is the realization of the concept/notion by means of a definite language system.

2) The **functional**, or **contextual approach** is characterized by the idea that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. Thus, **meaning** is understood as the function of linguistic signs, or their use in context.

Word meaning is represented by different types of meaning: **grammatical, lexical, lexico-grammatical**.

Grammatical meaning is the component of word meaning, recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. It is expressed by:

1. word-form (such as books, girls, boys – the meaning of plurality; looked, asked – tense meaning);
2. the position of the word in relation to other words (e.g. He sings well, She dances badly – ‘sings’ and ‘dances’ are found in identical positions between a pronoun and an adverb, their identical distribution proves that they have identical grammar)

Lexico-grammatical meaning of the word is the common denominator (знаменатель) to all the meanings of the words belonging to a certain lexico-grammatical class or group of words.

Lexical meaning is the component of word meaning recurrent in all the forms of the word. The word forms go, goes, went, gone, going have different grammar, but they have one and the same lexical meaning ‘the process of movement’.

The **main component of lexical meaning** are:

the **denotational meaning** of words is the same for all the speakers. It is the realization of the concept by means of the given language.

The **pragmatic aspect** of lexical meaning is the part of meaning, that conveys information on the situation of communication: information on the ‘time and space’ relationship of the participants, information on the participants in the given language community, information on the register of communication.

The **connotational meaning** conveys the speaker’s attitude toward what he is speaking about. There are 4 main types of connotations:

- a) The **emotional** connotation expresses human emotions and feelings (e.g. daddy, father);
- b) The **evaluative** connotation expresses approval or disapproval (e.g. agent and spy, planning and scheming=planning secretly);
- c) The **intensifying** connotation adds emphasis to the meaning. (e.g. enormous, huge, tremendous = very);
- d) The **stylistic** connotation determines the functional speech style characteristic of the word usage (dad-father-parent; colloquial-neutral-bookish).

Polysemy

The problem of polysemy

Polysemy, the existence of multiple related meanings for a single word, presents a significant challenge in linguistics, particularly in areas like language acquisition, translation, and computational linguistics. The core problem is that a single word form can be interpreted in different ways depending on the context, leading to potential ambiguity and misunderstandings.

Polysemy is the ability of a word to have more than one meaning. The causes of the development of polysemy in Eng. are:

- 1) the great amount of monosyllabic root words;
- 2) an abundance of words of long duration, which in the course of time were used to express more new m-gs thus becoming highly polysemantic.

Monosemantic words, i.e. words which have only one meaning form. They are mostly names of birds (blackbird, swallow), animals (walrus, weasel), fishes (ruff, perch) & special terms (systole, phoneme). The bulk of Eng. words are polysemantic, i.e. they have several meanings. The m-g in speech is contextual. In a definite context any polysemantic word expresses only one meaning. A word in one of its meaning in which it is used in speech is called a lexico-semantic variant of a word.

The semantic structure of a polysemantic word presents a set of interrelated & interdependent lexico-semantic variants. WE distinguish on the **synchronic level**:

- the basic (major) & the minor;

- the central & the marginal;
- direct & transferred (figurative);

Every **lexico-semantic variant** is connected with the major meaning due to the existence of the common semantic components/ *semes*. The *seme* is the smallest further indivisible unit of meaning, the smallest unit of the plan of content. The analysis of the meaning into these components, or *semes*, is called the **componential analysis**.

The main semantic processes.

Specialization or narrowing of meaning indicates that the word passes from general usage & acquires some special meaning. When the meaning is specialized, the range of the notion is narrowed, i.e. the word can name fewer objects, but the content of the notion is enriched, the notion will include a greater number of relevant features. Old English (O.E.) "deor" - "wild beast" means now only "wild animal of a particular species" - "олень"; "girl" in O.E. meant "a child of any sex", now only "a female child". Common nouns are often specialized in toponymics (place names) becoming proper names, e.g. The City (the business part of London), the Tower (of London) - a fortress and a palace & now a museum.

Generalizing or widening of meaning. The word having a special meaning due to wide use gets widened in meaning: thing, business. In case of generalization the range of the new notion is wider than that of the original one, but the content of the notion becomes poorer. In many cases it is a kind of transition from a concrete meaning to an abstract one. In O.E. "season" meant only "spring time" then it acquired the meaning "time for sowing & in Modern English it means "any of the 4 seasons". The process of **generalizing** is mostly at work in creating generic terms, words which can be applied to a great number of individual members of a big class of words: thing, business, to have, to do.

Elevation & degradation of meaning are the semantic changes determined by social evaluation of the thing or phenomenon named & emotional tone. As the referent of the word comes up or down the social scale, its meaning is either elevated or becomes pejorative. Examples of elevation: Minister - in earlier times meant merely "a servant", now it means "an important public official". Comrade - is a Spanish borrowing which originally meant "a room-mate". Smart - in earlier times meant "causing pain", now it is synonymous with "chic". Knight - O.E. "lad, servant, soldier" now "a nobleman".

Degradation of meaning is the reverse of elevation often reflecting relations b/w classes. O.E. "cnafa" meant "a boy", the ruling classes called their servants "knaves" and the word got a negative emotive colouring. Now it means "негідник, шахрай". "vulgar, silly, insane, idiot" originally were neutral words meaning correspondently; vulgar - "common, ordinary", silly - "happy", insane - "not well", idiot - "a private person". We speak of generalization, specialization, elevation, degradation when we compare the results of the development of the semantic structure of words.

Here's a breakdown of the issues:

□ **Ambiguity:**

Polysemy inherently introduces ambiguity, as the intended meaning of a word may not be immediately clear without sufficient context. For example, the word "bank" can refer to a financial institution or the side of a river.

□ **Language Acquisition:**

Learners of a language often struggle to grasp the various senses of polysemous words, potentially leading to incorrect usage or misinterpretations.

□ **Translation:**

Translators must carefully discern the specific meaning of a polysemous word within its context to accurately convey the intended message in another language. This can be particularly challenging when the related meanings don't have direct equivalents in the target language.

□ **Computational Linguistics:**

Natural language processing (NLP) systems need to accurately identify and disambiguate polysemous words to perform tasks like text analysis, machine translation, and information retrieval effectively.

□ **Theoretical Modeling:**

Developing comprehensive theoretical models of meaning that can adequately account for polysemy has proven difficult, as it requires understanding the complex interplay between word forms, meanings, and contextual factors.

□ **Cognitive Processes:**

Polysemy also offers insights into how humans process language and meaning, with researchers exploring the cognitive mechanisms that allow us to understand and interpret words with multiple senses.

Essentially, the problem of polysemy highlights the complexities of language and meaning, emphasizing the need for a nuanced understanding of how words acquire and convey different senses in various contexts

□ **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]

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the realization of the plan

2. Read the article below and analyze its content. Make a plan for the article and write its abstract

Багатозначність слів як суттєва риса англійської мови

(Пономарьова Н. В., Вознюк О. В. (2025) Багатозначність слів як суттєва риса англійської мови. In: VII Всеукраїнська студентська науково-практична Інтернет-конференція «Нові горизонти інішомовної освіти в XXI столітті», 7-11 квітня 2025 р., Житомир.)

Вступ. Англійська мова у процесі свого розвитку поновлювала свій словниковий запас різним чином, а джерелами цього поповнення поставали різні мови, якими користувалися представники різних народів, що на історичному проміжку історії Великої Британії мешкали на її території [1].

Виклад матеріалу. За таких умов, нині достатньо складно простежити та встановити етимологічний «шлейф» багатозначних слів, яких в англійській мові велика кількість. При цьому окремі багатозначні слова можуть мати більше ніж 100 значень (*Run*: 645 значень, *Set*: 430 значень, *Go*: 368 значень, *Take*: 343 значень, *Stand*: 334 значень, *Get*: 289 значень, *Turn*: 288 значень, *Put*: 268 значень).

При цьому достатньо складно пояснити/зрозуміти мотивацію значень багатозначних слів [2].

Іншою причиною широкої багатозначності англійської лексики постає аналітичний лад мови, що створює ситуацію, коли значення слів багато в чому залежить від контексту, в якому ці слова вживаються/використовуються.

Так, слово *Fair* має декілька значень (світлий, ясний, гарний, справедливий, ярмарок), які залежать від контексту, в якому слово вживається. Цікавими є приклади, коли багатозначне слово використовується в одному реченні у декількох значеннях:

This fair girl is a fair salesgirl when she sells goods at the country fair.

Інший приклад. Слово *Draw*, яке має декілька значень (тягнути, тяга, черпати, вдихати, малювати, нічия, тираж). Ці значення є достатньо близькими за функціональною ознакою, коли значення тягнути (предмет) і тягнути (пересувати) олівець на папері виражають однакову дію.

Наведемо інший приклад. Слово *Run* має декілька значень (бігати, керувати – *to run the museum*). Спільність значень можна пояснити таким реченням:

To run the museum effectively he has to run along its corridors from one exposition hall to another.

Можна припустити, що базальне значення слова *Run* (бігати) було змінено/трансформовано у процесі функціонування англійської мови під впливом різних контекстів/ситуацій. Так, можна уявити ситуацію, коли керівник музею з метою вирішення певних керівних проблем був змушений інтенсивно пересуватися (бігати) у приміщенні музею, через що процеси керування і швидкого пересування (бігу) почали зближуватися за своїми значеннями. Чи, наприклад, процес керування магазином (*to run the shop*) може передбачати, що його керівник/менеджер має багато бігати містом у справах для забезпечення магазину товаром.

Наведемо і такі парадокси англійської мови, пов'язані з її лексичною багатозначністю.

Transparent:

Очевидний (*these lies are so transparent* – це настільки очевидна брехня)

Невидимий, прозорий (*a transparent stone* – прозорий камінь)

To dust:

Посипати (*to dust with salt* – посипати сіллю)

Протирати, прибирати пил (*to dust a vase* – протирати вазу)

To put out

Гасити, гасити знищувати (*to put out fire* – гасити пожежу)

Випускати, виробляти, створювати (*to put out an album* – випускати альбом).

Висновки. Таким чином, феномен багатозначності лексики англійської мови, що виявляє певну невизначеність її лексичного складу [3], є проблемою не тільки для такої навчальної дисципліни, як теорія сучасної англійської мови, але й для методики викладання англійської мови.

3. Explain some of the "etymological wonders" of the English language

Faggot вязанка дров, зв'язка, людина нетрадиційної сексуальної орієнтації, – укр. **багаття**

Whole – goal – hole – heal – health

Breeze – to breathe – breath – breast

Holder – holster

Sweltering – swell – sweat – sweater – wet

Bleed	кровотеча
Blow	удар
bloom	цвітіння
blossom	цвітіння
Blast	вибух
bluster	бахвальство
blush	рум'янець
Blind	сліпий
Bless	благословлять

Bliss	блаженство
Blister	пухир
Blizzard	завірюха
Stupid	ступор
Stupor	дурість
Stupidity	величезний
Stupendous	/приголомшливий
Stoop	сугутитися

Спільне значення цієї низки слів – «закривати»:

Cloud – close – cloth – clothes – clot – clod – clench – cling – lock – clock

Contentious – спірний, безглуздий, прискіпливий, сварливий

Насправді це слово походить з content – зміст. Тобто contentious у своїй основі виражає властивість, пов'язану зі змістом, тобто зі властивістю детально, змістовно розбиратися у питанні, у всі аспекти змісту будь-якого предмета. Таким чином, перше значення слова contentious – прискіпливий. Інші значення визначаються контекстом.

Хибні слова для перекладача: affair – spectacle – complexion

4. Read the sentences in which the polysemantic word *simple* is used. Give all the lexico-semantic variants constituting the semantic structure of this word. Check yourself by a dictionary.

1. The book tries to give *simple* explanations of some very complex scientific ideas. 2. Sally likes clothes that are *simple* but elegant. 3. The *simple* fact is that he wants a divorce. 4. Archaeologists found several *simple* tools at the site. A knife is a *simple* tool. 5. Her grandparents were *simple* people who never had much money. I'm just a *simple* farmer. 6. You may be joking but she's *simple* enough to believe you. 7. I'm afraid old Jack is a bit *simple*.

5 Analyze the meanings of the given polysemantic words taken from the Concise Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology. These meanings are considered primary and central in Middle English. What are their basic (or central) meanings from the point of view of the present-day language?

Model: *pension* – ‘fixed or regular payment, spec. out of the revenues of a benefice’ (XIV c.)

In modern English the central meaning of the word is ‘a regular payment made by the state to someone who can no longer earn money by working’. Thus, in the present-day language the primary meaning of the word *pension* remains central.

1) *likely* – „probable“ (XIII c.); 2) *revolution* – „moving of a celestial body in an orbit“ (XIV c.); 3) *to perish* – „come to a violent or untimely end, cease to exist“ (XIII c.); 4) *challenge* – „accusation“ (XIII c.); 5) *single* – „unaccompanied, unmarried; individual; not double“ (XIV c.); 6) *to betray* – „to give up treacherously“ (XIII c.).

6. Classify the given words into: 1) homonyms proper; 2) homophones; 3) homographs. Give meanings of these words.

Made (adj) – maid (n); row (n) – row (n); week (n) – weak (adj); seal (n) – seal (n); tear (v) – tear (n); bread (n) – bred (adj); band (n) – band (n); sum (n) – some (pron); fall (n) – fall (v); wind (n) – wind (v); base (n) – base (v); desert (v) – desert (n); hare (n) – hair (n); sewer (n) – sewer (n); corn (n) – corn (n).

7. Fill in the blanks choosing the right word.

1. Out of... out of mind (*cite, site, sight*). 2. Do not look a gift... in the mouth (*horse, hoarse*). 3. It never rains, but it... (*pours, paws*). 4. No ... without sweat (*sweet, suite*). 5. Do not run with the ... and hunt with the hounds (*hair, hare*). 6. All is ... in love and war (*fare, fair*). 7. Fame is chiefly a matter of... at the right moment (*die, dye*). 8. When two people ride the ..., one must ride behind (*hoarse, horse*).

Семінар 6. SYNONYMS. ANTONYMS.

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про синоніми та антоніми в сучасній англійській мові.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння знаннями про синоніми та антоніми для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. The definition of synonyms.
2. The synonymic dominant.
3. Classification of synonyms.
4. The definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms.

Key words: semantics, meaning, synonymic dominant, antonyms, classification of antonyms.

Recommended reading

Main:

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Бібліотека Житомирського державного університету імені Івана Франка: режим доступу: http://irbis.zu.edu.ua/cgi-bin/irbis64r_11/cgiirbis_64.exe

Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>

British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

Questions for self-control:

1. What are synonyms?
2. Give an example of a synonymic dominant.
3. What are antonyms?
4. Give an example of a antonyms.
5. What is the classification of antonymy?

Realization of the plan

Synonyms are words, morphemes, or phrases that means exactly or nearly the same as other words, morphemes, or phrases in a given language.

Antonyms are words with opposite or nearly opposite meanings. For example: hot ↔ cold, large ↔ small, thick ↔ thin, synonym ↔ antonym

Hypernyms and hyponyms are words that refer to, respectively, a general category and a specific instance of that category. For example, vehicle is a hypernym of car, and car is a hyponym of vehicle.

Homophones are words that have the same pronunciation but different meanings. For example, witch and which are homophones in most accents (because they are pronounced the same).

Homographs are words that have the same spelling but different meanings. For example, one can record a song or keep a record of documents.

Homonyms are words that have the same pronunciation and spelling but different meanings. For example, rose (a type of flower) and rose (past tense of rise) are homonyms.

SYNONYMS

A synonym is a word, morpheme, or phrase that means exactly or nearly the same as another word, morpheme, or phrase in a given language. For example, in the English language, the words begin, start, commence, and initiate are all synonyms of one another: they are synonymous. The standard test for synonymy is substitution: one form can be replaced by another in a sentence without changing its meaning. Words are considered synonymous in only one particular sense: for example, long and extended in the context long time or extended time are synonymous, but long cannot be used in the phrase extended family.

Synonyms with exactly the same meaning share a seme or denotational sememe, whereas those with inexactly similar meanings share a broader denotational or connotational sememe and thus overlap within a semantic field. The former are sometimes called cognitive synonyms and the latter, near-synonyms, plesionyms or poecilonyms.

Some lexicographers claim that no synonyms have exactly the same meaning (in all contexts or social levels of language) because etymology, orthography, phonic qualities, connotations, ambiguous meanings, usage, and so on make them unique. Different words that are similar in

meaning usually differ for a reason: feline is more formal than cat; long and extended are only synonyms in one usage and not in others (for example, a long arm is not the same as an extended arm). Synonyms are also a source of euphemisms.

Metonymy can sometimes be a form of synonymy: the White House is used as a synonym of the administration in referring to the U.S. executive branch under a specific president. Thus a metonym is a type of synonym, and the word metonym is a hyponym of the word synonym.

The analysis of synonymy, polysemy, hyponymy, and hypernymy is inherent to taxonomy and ontology in the information-science senses of those terms. It has applications in pedagogy and machine learning, because they rely on word-sense disambiguation.

Sources

Synonyms are often some from the different strata making up a language. For example, in English, Norman French superstratum words and Old English substratum words continue to coexist.[9] Thus, today we have synonyms like the Norman-derived people, liberty and archer, and the Saxon-derived folk, freedom and bowman. For more examples, see the list of Germanic and Latinate equivalents in English.

Loanwords are another rich source of synonyms, often from the language of the dominant culture of a region. Thus most European languages have borrowed from Latin and ancient Greek, especially for technical terms, but the native terms continue to be used in non-technical contexts. In East Asia, borrowings from Chinese in Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese often double native terms. In Islamic cultures, Arabic and Persian are large sources of synonymous borrowings.

For example, in Turkish, *kara* and *siyah* both mean 'black', the former being a native Turkish word, and the latter being a borrowing from Persian. In Ottoman Turkish, there were often three synonyms: water can be *su* (Turkish), *âb* (Persian), or *mâ* (Arabic): "such a triad of synonyms exists in Ottoman for every meaning, without exception". As always with synonyms, there are nuances and shades of meaning or usage.

In English, similarly, we often have Latin and Greek terms synonymous with Germanic ones: thought, notion (L), idea (Gk); ring, circle (L), cycle (Gk). English often uses the Germanic term only as a noun, but has Latin and Greek adjectives: hand, manual (L), chiral (Gk); heat, thermal (L), caloric (Gk). Sometimes the Germanic term has become rare, or restricted to special meanings: tide, time/temporal, chronic.

Many bound morphemes in English are borrowed from Latin and Greek and are synonyms for native words or morphemes: fish, *pisci-* (L), *ichthy-* (Gk).

Another source of synonyms is coinages, which may be motivated by linguistic purism. Thus the English word foreword was coined to replace the Romance preface. In Turkish, *okul* was coined to replace the Arabic-derived *mektep* and *mederese*, but those words continue to be used in some contexts.

Uses

Synonyms often express a nuance of meaning or are used in different registers of speech or writing. Different technical fields may appropriate synonyms for specific technical meanings. Some writers avoid repeating the same word in close proximity, and prefer to use synonyms: this is called elegant variation. Many modern style guides criticize this. Synonyms can be any part of speech, as long as both words belong to the same part of speech. Examples:

noun: drink and beverage
verb: buy and purchase
adjective: big and large
adverb: quickly and speedily
preposition: on and upon

Synonyms are defined with respect to certain senses of words: pupil as the aperture in the iris of the eye is not synonymous with student. Similarly, he expired means the same as he died, yet my passport has expired cannot be replaced by my passport has died.

A thesaurus or synonym dictionary lists similar or related words; these are often, but not always, synonyms.

ANTONYMS

An antonym is a type of word that has the opposite meaning to another word. For example, an antonym for 'good' is 'bad', and an antonym for 'hot' is 'cold'. Antonyms are useful in descriptive writing, as they allow us express things in powerful, impactful ways.

What is an antonym?

An **antonym** is a word that has the exact opposite meaning to another. Common antonyms are often adjectives and adverbs that have a word that they directly oppose.

Here's a couple of antonym examples:

‘Good’ is an antonym for ‘bad’.

‘Long’ is an antonym for ‘short’.

‘Wise’ is an antonym for ‘foolish’.

What are some antonym examples?

To help us to understand antonyms a bit better, let's explore a few more antonym examples. In this handy table, you'll see a list of words with their antonyms in the right-side column:

Example word: Antonym:

Hot	Cold
Dark	Light
Small	Big
Short	Tall
Good	Bad
Happy	Sad
Day	Night
Dry	Wet
Early	Late

What's the difference between antonyms and synonyms?

Now that we've seen a few antonym examples, let's explore how they differ from **synonyms**.

You're likely to have come across the term 'synonym' before, and a synonym' is essentially a word that has the same, or a similar, meaning to another word. The simplest way to remember the difference between synonyms and antonyms is to bear in mind that antonyms are opposites, while synonyms are words that are alike. In fact, the word 'synonym' is an antonym of the word 'antonym'!

Why do we use antonyms?

Now that we've learned about antonyms and read an antonym example or two, you might be wondering why we use them in the first place. In actual fact, antonyms are useful words that we can use when we want to produce more impactful writing.

Sometimes, we might know a specific word, but it's the opposite of what we want to incorporate into our writing. This is where antonyms can come in useful. Once we know several antonyms which have an opposite meaning to a single word, we'll have a bigger range of vocabulary to use in our writing.

Antonyms are also fantastic for descriptive writing. They can be used to show the two extremes of the thing that they are describing. This means they can help us to create writing that has a strong impact on the person reading it.

Antonyms are also used when comparing things and their features. For example, when teaching about materials and their properties, you might introduce vocabulary, such as opaque and transparent. These words mean the opposite of one another, making them antonyms.

Antonyms can also be very beneficial for your pupils. Introducing popular and common antonyms to children will make them more aware of their word choices when they're writing, and will help them to think about the words they're producing.

Antonyms can be used to develop themes in writing. For example, one popular theme in literature is that light and light colours represent good, while darkness represents evil.

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the realization of the plan

2. Give meanings of the following synonyms. State the difference in the connotational aspect of their meaning.

Model: love – worship

Love – an intense feeling of deep affection

Worship – the feeling of profound reverence and strong adoration

Emotive charge and expressiveness (intensity) are different.

Confidence – assurance; to satisfy – to delight; alone – lonely; to create – to manufacture; to blush – to redden; to tremble – to shudder.

3. State the difference in the pragmatic aspect of meaning of the given synonyms. Consult a dictionary.

Model: to see – to behold

The verb to behold is formal, whereas the verb to see is neutral.

Car – automobile; refreshment – bite; soldier – warrior; to begin – to commence; face – puss; to leave – to abandon; hearty – cordial, hand – fin; to cry – to weep.

3. Look up in a dictionary meanings of the given pairs of synonyms. Classify synonyms into stylistic, ideographic and ideographic-stylistic.

Model: mum – mother

The words have the same denotational meaning ‘a female parent’, but they differ in the pragmatic aspect of meaning as the word mum is informal. Thus, this pair of synonyms belongs to the group of stylistic synonyms.

Information – data; associate – pal; infectious – contagious; to ask – to interrogate; to meet – to encounter; to reckon – to estimate; mum – mother, faculty – talent; to foretell – to predict; to walk – to promenade; blemish – flaw; heaven – sky; intelligent – smart; affair – business.

4. Find the synonymic dominant in the following groups of synonyms.

To sob – to weep – to cry; to brood – to reflect – to meditate – to think; to glare – to peep – to look – to stare – to glance; strange – quaint – odd – queer; terror – fear – horror; angry – furious – enraged; to flash – to gleam – to sparkle – to blaze – to shine.

4. Give antonyms to the following words. Group them into antonyms of the same root (a) and antonyms of different roots (b).

Model: artistic

The antonym of the word artistic is inartistic. These words belong to the group of antonyms of the same root (group a).

Happy (adj), careful (adj), dwarf (adj), obedience (n), criticism (n), above (adv), regular (adj), asleep (adj), back (adv), polite (adj), triumph (n), hope (n), artistic (adj), appear (v), prewar (adj), far (adv), logical (adj), love (n), known (adj).

5. Classify antonymous pairs into contradictories, contraries and incompatibles. To prove the division give intermediate members of the antonymous set where it is necessary, or give other members of the group which are excluded in the given antonymous pair.

Model: arid – awash

These antonyms refer to the group of contraries as they are polar members of a gradual opposition which has the following intermediate members: dry – wet.

Poetry – prose, inch – foot, man – woman, old – young, beautiful – ugly, Monday – Sunday, teacher – pupil, to adore – to loathe, one – thousand, tremendous – tiny, iron – copper, to accept – to reject, round – square, creditor – debtor, immaculate – filthy, boy – man, day – night, clever – stupid, red – brown, arid – awash, inside – outside, open – shut, November – March, evil – good.

Семінар 7. **НОМОРPHONES**

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про омонімію в сучасній англійській мові.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння знаннями про омоніми для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. The definition of homophones.
2. The definition of homographs.
3. The definition of homonyms.
4. The definition of heteronyms.

Key words: homophones, homographs, homonyms, heteronyms, examples of homophones

Recommended reading

Main:

Бережняк В. М. Загальне мовознавство : хрестоматія; Ніжин. держ. ун-т ім. М. Гоголя. Ніжин : Вид-во НДУ ім. М. Гоголя, 2011. – 361 с.

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Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу:
<http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>
British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу:
<http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

Questions for self-control

1. What are the homophones
2. What are the homographs?
3. What are the homonyms?
4. What are the heteronyms?
5. Give the explanation of homonymy in English
6. Give the reasons why the English language is so hard to learn:

Realization of the plan

Homophones are words that have the same pronunciation but different meanings. For example, *witch* and *which* are homophones in most accents (because they are pronounced the same).

Homographs are words that have the same spelling but different meanings. For example, one can *record* a song or *keep* a record of documents.

Homonyms are words that have the same pronunciation and spelling but different meanings. For example, *rose* (a type of flower) and *rose* (past tense of rise) are homonyms.

Homophones as a case of homonymy, i.e. different forms have different meaning and are pronounced identically. E.g. *buy*, *by* and *bye*; *night* - *knight* or *you to* - *you too*.

HOMOPHONES are a type of homonym that also *sound alike* and have *different meanings*, but have *different spellings*.

pear (fruit) pair (couple)

HOMOGRAPHS/ HOMONYMS are words that are *spelled the same, sound alike* but have *different meanings*.

fair (county fair) fair (reasonable, expressing justice, colour)
lie (untruth) lie (lie down)

HETERONYMS are a type of homograph that are also *spelled the same* and have *different meanings*, but *sound different*.

tear (in the eye) tear (to rip)
buffet (lunch counter) buffet (to hit, impact, blow, strike, shock)

WORDS THAT BOTH SOUND THE SAME AND ARE SPELLED THE SAME are both homonyms (same sound) and homographs (same spelling).

lie (untruth) lie (prone);
fair (county fair) fair (reasonable).

WORDS (HETERONYMS) with the *same spelling* but *different accent*

Object (objective) – to object – objection
Exploit – to exploit – exploitation

Transport – to transport (trans+port)
 Attribute – to attribute (The teacher attributes my mistakes to poor skills in English)

Record – to record
 content (meaning) – to content (to be satisfied)
 desert – to desert – deserter
 combine – to combine
 produce (product) – to produce (to make)
 subject (subjective) – to subject (The material was subjected to heat)
 abstract (abstract idea) – to abstract (to abstract from irritating event)
 digest (condensed information) – to digest (Our stomach digests food)
 compact (disk) – to compact (to compact means to make smth compact)

SUMMARY CHART

HOMONYM WORDS SOUND	HOMOPHONE WORDS type of homonym
same sound	same sound
same OR different spelling	different spelling
fair (county fair) fair (reasonable) pear (fruit) pair (couple)	pear (fruit) pair (couple)
HOMOGRAPH WORDS SPELLING	HETERONYM WORDS type of homograph
same OR different sound	different sound
same spelling	same spelling
lie (untruth) lie (lie down) tear (in the eye) tear (rip)	tear (in the eye) tear (rip)

EXAMPLES OF HOMOPHONES

Hear & here

“Hear” means to listen to sounds with the ear
 “Here” means “in this place”
 For example: "I asked you to come here. Didn't you hear me?"

License & licence

“License” means to allow a person to do something
 “Licence” is a permit or certificate
 For example: If you have a driver's licence, you are licensed to drive a car.

New & knew

“New” means that something made first. “Knew” means to have recognized or been acquainted with something
 For example: She never knew where he bought the new watch.

Principle & principal

“Principle” means fundamental truth or a moral law
 “Principal” means the first in rank or importance
 For example: The principal at our school is a man of high principles.

No & know

“No” means not any
 “Know” means to recognize or identify
 For example: "No. I don't know any of these people."

Stationary & stationery

“Stationary” means to stay in one place
 “Stationery” means writing materials (paper, pencils, etc.)
 For example: All of the stationery is stored in the stationary cabinet in the corner.

Stable & a stable

He is in a stable position
A stable is a place where horses are kept

Right & write

“Right” means correct

“Write” means to trace symbols representing words

For example: "He has to write a letter to his aunt. I hope he spells her name right this time."

Accept & except

“Accept” means to give consent or say "yes"

“Except” means to exclude from

For example: "We all accepted the invitation except for Paulette."

If you ever feel stupid, then just read on. If you've learned to speak fluent English, you must be a genius! This little treatise on the lovely language we share is only for the brave. Pursue at your leisure, English lovers.

Reasons why the English language is so hard to learn:

- 1) The bandage was **wound** (to wind – wound) around the **wound** (hurt).
- 2) The farm was used to **produce produce** (product).
- 3) The dump was so full that the manager had to refuse more refuse (wastes).
- 4) We must **polish** the **Polish** furniture.
- 5) He could lead if he would get the lead out.
- 6) The soldier decided to **desert** his **dessert** in the **desert**.
- 7) Since there is no time like the present, he thought it was time to present the present.
- 8) A **bass** (bass clef) was painted on the head of the **bass** drum of a military **base** orchestra.
- 9) When shot at, the dove could dove into the bushes.
- 10) I did not **object** to the **object**.
- 11) The insurance was **invalid** for the **invalid**.
- 12) There was a row among the oarsmen about how to row.
- 13) They were too close to the door to close it.
- 14) The buck does funny things when the **does** are present.
- 15) Since there is no time like present, he thought it was time to present the present.
- 16) A seamstress, a **sewer** and a **sower** (**to sew – to sow**) fell down into a **sewer** line (**sewage**).
- 17) To help with planting, the farmer taught his sow (swine) to sow.
- 18) The **wind** was **too** strong **to wind** the sail, but it rocked the boat and it was a problem **to wind** (to wind – wound) my clock.
- 19) After a **number** of injections my jaw got **number**.
- 20) Upon seeing the **tear** in the painting I shed a **tear**.
- 21) I had to **subject** the **subject** to a series of tests.
- 22) How can I **intimate** this to my most **intimate** friend?
- 23) As you sow, so you shall mow
- 24) He is a **world-minded** person; he is not a **worldly-minded** egoist.

World-minded person is a person whose interests and ideas are global, are of world / Planet dimension

Worldly-minded person is a person whose interests and ideas are egoistic and based on everyday needs.

war-minded person = the person is war-oriented = he likes wars

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme

2. Make up sentences with the homophones below

Oar – ore – awe – or

To – too
Sea – see
Root – route
To take root – to take route
Sight (eye-sight) – **cite** (to cite - citation) – **site** (web-site, construction-site)

3. Translate into Ukrainian the sentences with homophones

The sons raise meat
The sun's rays meet

It's bean soup (It is bean soup)
It's been soup (It has been soup)

You are to take root
You are to take route

It's a lovely day. (It is a lovely day.)
It's been a lovely day. (It has been a lovely day.)

I am begging you for mercy
I am begging you for bird-seed

I was bored on board the plane.

3. Fill in the gaps. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian

Air — heir

1. He got up with an ... of relief and yet reluctance.
2. The classroom should be...ed during the break.
3. John was the only ... to his uncle's estate.

Allowed — aloud

1. She read the passage ... so that her sister should understand what she meant.
2. Next day Jimmy was not ... lo leave the house again.

Bare — bear

1. The garden looked ... and deserted.
2. I can't ... the way you treat that man.
3. The ... has a massive body, coarse heavy fur and relatively short limbs.

Beach — beech. bitch

1. All the family sat round the table under i huge ... which grew near the house.
2. The day was stormy and there were very few people on the

Beat — beet.

1. While we were cutting up potatoes, carrots and ... root for-the soup I looked up and suddenly burst out laughing.

2. For a moment I could not feel my heart. It had stopped ... ing.

Berry — bury.

1. Are you going to ... yourself in your work?
2. There are a lot of different ... and mushrooms in this forest.

Birth — berth. bed

1. The upper ... was occupied by a young man who never took part in our conversation.
2. The news that Mrs. Davis had given ... to a daughter seemed to make no impression on her relatives.

Blue — blew.

1. A heavy storm ... up towards evening.
2. ... is my favourite colour.

Bean — been.

1. Don't try to fool him with that suggestion. He knows how many ... make five.
2. I've always ... treated as a gentleman.

Brake — break

1. Jerry was the first to ... the silence.
2. The driver put on the ... and the car stopped.
3. Wait a bit. We'll discuss it in the

Bread — bred breed - bred

1. He remained serene in a houseful of ill- ... people.
2. Her hands trembled while she was eating her ... and butter.

Bow — bough

1. He was not a young man any longer; age had ... ed his head.
2. He climbed onto the huge ... of a pine.
3. He greeted him with a low

Cell — sell

1. The ... is a structural unit of plant and animal life.
2. Don't ... this book, you may need it in future.

Cent — sent — scent

1. He could ... trouble the moment he stopped onto the porch.
2. The doctor was ... for immediately,
3. A ... is the hundredth part of the U. S. dollar.

Course — coarse

1. The main ... was steak with vegetables.
2. His hands were ... and roughened by years of hard work.
3. Christine did an intensive Ukrainian ... before she came to Ukraine.

Current — currant.

1. We had reached the bridge over the river and stood there, gazing down at its strong
2. I opened the gate and saw some ... bushes and a line of white flowers fringing the path.

Dear — deer.

1. Two dollars! That was too.....for such a trifle.
2. What a ... little kitten!
3. An adult male ... is called a stag.

Dew — due.

1. The grass and leaves of the trees were covered with
2. The meeting is ... to begin at 4 o'clock.

Die — dye.

1. A man can ... but once.
2. He is a liar of the blackest

Fare — fair.

1. What is the ... from here to Kyiv?
2. He was met by a .. -skinned young girl with a beautiful crown of black hair.

Flower — flour.

1. She liked violets more than any other . . .s.
2. ... is the finely ground meal of grain. **grind – ground – fine – miniature**

Farther — father.

1. Her ... lived not far from her, but they seldom saw each other.
2. Mr. Jones' house is just a few steps

For — four — fore

1. The part of the arm between the elbow and the wrist is called the ... arm.
2. These are good pills ... a cough, but you must not take more than ... pills at a time.

cough - coffee - coffin - coffer**Fir — fur**

1. We were decorating the ...-tree when our guests came.
2. She had a very beautiful .. -coat on.

Gate — gait

1. At the ... I met a strangely familiar man dressed in black.
2. He walked with an awkward, stooping ... which was due to nervousness.

Great — grate

1. Her singing ...s on my ear.
2. I have a ... desire to spend a fortnight in the country.

Grown — groan

1. He is ...-up and must be responsible for his actions.
2. The wounded man ...ed when they tried to lift him.

Hair —hare.

1. First catch your ..., then cook it.
2. What he saw there made his ... stand on end.
3. She took out all the pins and let her ... fall down her back.

Heal — heel.

1. Don't worry! It's just a scratch; it'll soon
2. The dog followed the hunter at his ...s.

Hoarse — horse.

1. Don't look a gift ... in the mouth.
2. They talked themselves ..., but never came to an agreement.

Hole — whole.

1. He ate three ... oranges.
2. The ... in the ground was covered with some fir branches.

Key — quay.

1. I often met this man wandering along the ... late in the evening, looking at the boats.
2. The landlady showed him upstairs and gave him a ... to his room.
3. The symphony is in a major

Lain — lane.

1. They could see them now, walking up the ..., him and his girl.
2. He had ... motionless on the ground for an hour or so before he heard steps.

Lead — led.

1. It could not be Tina! You must have been ... astray by her strong resemblance to Sophie!
2. The ... pencil does not, and never did, contain any

Meat — meet.

1. Though he worked hard, he had difficulty in making both ends
2. One man's ... is another man's poison.

Made — maid.

1. She ... up her mind not to interfere.
2. The door was opened by the .. , who told me that the master was out.

Mail — male.

1. ... animals are often larger than the females.
2. If you want the letter to get there quickly, send it by air

3. Mail**Main — mane.**

1. The ... library contains books of general interest.
2. The horse's ... was decorated with paper flowers and ribbons for the occasion.

Miner — minor.

1. By way of a ... psychological experience she decided to spend the night at a hotel.
2. His father worked as a ... in Donetsk.

Night — knight.

1. That ... I never thought of sleeping.
2. In the Middle Ages a mounted soldier serving under a feudal superior was called a

Pain — pane.

1. The rain beat at the window
2. He never took ..s to get a proper education.

Prey — pray.

1. These worries ...ed upon his mind.
2. She knelt down and began to

Pear — pair — pare. (to cut)

1. They left the house in ..s.
2. Very soon he was forced to ... down his expenses.

3. The woman carried a basket full of huge golden .. .s.

Pail —pale.

1. He turned ... when I told him we had found the gun near the house.
2. Take some water from the and wash your face.

Piece —peace.

1. He tore the letter into ... s and burned them in the fireplace.
2. May he rest in . . . , poor soul!
3. This play is all of a ... with his previous works.
4. A ... pipe is a pipe smoked by the North American Indians as a token of

Plain — plane. to ex+plain

1. There are . . brown curtains at the window of my bedroom.
2. ... geometry deals with figures whose parts ail lie in one

Rain — reign — rein.

1. She kept a tight ... on her husband.
2. He used to come to our place every Sunday ... or shine.
3. That building was designed during the ... of Queen Victoria.

Root — route. march+route

1. She was red as a beet
2. Which ... did he take?

Road — rode — rowed.

1. He jumped on his horse and ... away.
2. She turned on to a narrow country ... and went on faster.
3. We crossed the river in a boat. Jim . . . and I steered with a short scull.

Sail — sale. Sailor – seller

1. It is time to set
2. Be sure to buy this book: it is on ... now.
3. She .. ed into the room and stopped to be admired.

Sheer — shear

1. To ... means to remove wool from sheep with large scissors, or shears. *Caesar*
2. This work is a ... waste of time.

Sole — soul.

1. You must have shoes with thicker These won't stand up to a long walk.
2. He is the ... of humour.
3. Would you like ... for your lunch? — Oh, I don't like fish. Can I have some meat, please?

Sort — sought. It is a study in a sort

1. They ... shelter from the rain in a ... of shed.
2. I could not understand why he ... my advice again; he had never followed it before.

Stare — stair.

1. Don't ... at the poor girl. She is embarrassed as it is.
2. A long flight of .. .s led down to the sea.

Steel — steal.

1. She managed to ... a glance at the man.
2. He seemed to have nerves of

Steak — stake.

1. I'd like a nice ... for my dinner.
2. A ... is a thick sharpened stick used to support a tent for young trees or plants.

Sight — site. To cite – citation

1. My grandmother doesn't read much now. Her ... is failing.
2. Soames found a beautiful... for his new house,

Seen — scene.

1. We can't agree on this point, but please don't make a
2. He had never been ... since that day.

Sew — sow. to sew, to sow

1. I know that I can ... and hem much better than my Aunt Em.
2. ... the wind and reap the whirlwind.
3. It was too early to ... yet.
4. To .. one's wild oats means to live immorally, usually when young.

Through — threw.

Jane ... the apple away because it was rotten right

Tale — tail. tailor – tails – to curtail – to shorten

1. Children like fairy-tales, but when they grow older, they prefer ... of adventure.

2. I could not make head or ... of what he had told me.

Vein — vain — vane. – a vane – to vane, in vain

1. She was so thin that ... s stood out against her pale skin.

2. The weather ... on top of the town hall pointed east.

3. She was nothing but a silly ... girl.

4. She was not really bad, just ... and thoughtless.

Whether — weather.

1. ... we go or ... we stay, the result is the same.

2. He promised to come, though the ... was awful.

Which — witch

1. A ... is a person who professes or is supposed to practise magic, especially black magic.

2. I don't know ... way we must take.

Where — wear — ware.

1. After you pass the ... house, turn to the right.

2. ... can I find shoes for everyday ...?

3. He used to keep a hard ... shop.

4. There are all kinds of silver ... for sale here.

Write — wright — right — rite. rite = ritual

1. He is a well-known play... .

2. You are old enough to know the difference between ... and wrong.

3. He behaved in a strange way, as if performing some peculiar

4. ... to me as often as you can, please.

Wait — weight

1. In England apples are sold by ... and oranges at so much a piece.

2. ... a minute. Will you stand on the scales, please. I must put down your

Weigh — way

1. How often do you ... yourself? — Twice a week. But it does not seem to help. I'm not getting any thinner.— That is not the ... to lose weight. You should diet.

Waist — waste

1. Joseph Seddley was as vain as a girl. He had dozens of ... coats, a special one for every occasion.

2. Don't ... your time reading this book.

Семінар 8.

PHRASEOLOGY. CLASSIFICATIONS OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про фразеологію в сучасній англійській мові.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння знаннями про фразеологію для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. The problem of the definition of phraseological units.
2. General classification of phraseological units.
3. Structural classification of phraseological units.
4. Genetic (etymological) classification.
5. Proverbs.

Key words: stability vs. changeability, idiomaticity vs. motivation, word equivalence, set expressions, idioms, phraseological units (PhU), phraseological fusions, phraseological unities, phraseological collocations; traditional collocations, idioms proper, ready made utterances; free

(variable) context combinations – non-variable (stable) context combinations, phrasemes vs. idioms.

Recommended reading

Main:

Бережняк В. М. Загальне мовознавство : хрестоматія; Ніжин. держ. ун-т ім. М. Гоголя. Ніжин : Вид-во НДУ ім. М. Гоголя, 2011. – 361 с.

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Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу: <http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>

British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу: <http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

Questions for self-control:

1. What is a phraseological unit?
2. What does the structural similarity between word-groups and phraseological units consist in? Why are they opposed to words on the structural level?
3. What is the main difference between phraseological units and word-groups according to the structural criterion? What does the term 'structural invariability' imply?
4. What is the semantic difference between word-groups and phraseological units based on?
5. What role does a cultural component play in the semantic structure of phraseological units?
6. What do phraseological units and words have in common from the point of view of their semantics?

The realization of the plan

PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseological units, or idioms, represent what can be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary.

If synonyms can be figuratively described as the tints and colours of the vocabulary, then phraseology is a kind of picture gallery.

And what a variety of strange and grotesque images, figures and personalities one finds in this amazing picture gallery:

dark horse,
white elephant,
bull in china shops,
green-eyed monsters
dogs barking up the wrong tree.
dog barks but the caravan keeps moving

Sometimes this parade of funny animals and strange human beings looks more like a fancy dress ball (маскарад) than a peaceful picture gallery.

So, a **dark horse** mentioned above is actually not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite, and so one is not sure what can be expected from him.

A **bull in a china shop** describes a clumsy person.

A **white elephant**, however, is not even a person but a valuable object which makes a lot of troubles for its owner and which is also difficult to dispose of.

The **green-eyed monster** is jealousy, the image being drawn from *Othello* (Iago's words from Act III, Scene 3).

To let the cat out of the bag has actually nothing to do with cats, but means simply "to let some secret become known".

To bark up the wrong tree creates a picture of a foolish dog barking at the tree while the cat or the squirrel has long since escaped. But the actual meaning of the idiom is "to look for somebody in vain.

red tape - a phraseological unit не червона стрічка а бюрократизм, тяганина

red tapes - a free word-group червоні стрічки

to go to bed - a phraseological unit; лягати спати

to go to the bed - a free word-group. лягати у конкретне ліжко

to kick the bucket – вмирати,

at sixes and sevens – в безпорядку,

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.

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.

Baker's dozen – чертова дюжина,

a thorn in the flesh – більмо на оці,

skeleton in the cupboard – сімейна таємниця;

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 безпорядку,

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 – чертова 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 (марширують на місці – 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 звичай тягти до себе клієнтів, хапаючи їх гаками. Жінок – за сукню гострими гачками, чоловіків – за ногу великими гаками;

peeping Tom – надто цікавий чоловік. Джерело походження цього виразу – легенда про леді Годиву 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 Ставенки 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.

A proverb is a collection of words (phrase or sentence) that states a general truth or gives advice:

Idleness is the root of all evil. Бездіяльність – корінь усього лихого.

A penny saved is a penny gained. Заощаджена копійка – це зароблена копійка.

The pen is mightier than the sword. Перо сильніше меча.

Ask no questions, hear no lies. Не задавайте питань, не чуйте брехні

Silence is something an answer. Мовчання – це щось на кшталт відповіді.

Strike iron while it is hot (Strike while the iron is hot) – Куй залізо, поки горяче;

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

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.

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

As they sow, so let them reap (As you sow, you shall mow). – Що посієш, те і пожнеш.

Proverbs could be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community.

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 натури;

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.

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the realization of the plan

2. Complete the following sentences, using the words from the list. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

Ice, Beetroot, Mule, Feather, Sheet, Toast, Clockwork, Bee, Rail, Peacock.

1. She was so embarrassed that she went as red as a _____.
2. I can carry the suitcase easily; it's as light as a _____.
3. The room is as warm as _____.
4. My sister does so many things that she's always as busy as a _____.
5. He is as proud as a _____ of his new car.
6. It's as cold as _____ in that office.
7. Once he's made up his mind, he'll never change it, he's as stubborn as a _____.
8. She was so frightened that her face went as white as a _____.
9. The postman always calls at 8 o'clock; he's as regular as _____.
10. However much he eats, he's always as thin as a _____.

3. Translate the sentences (idioms/phraseological units) into Ukrainian.

the grass grows under your feet
nip it in the bud
the top of the tree
the pick of the bunch (stock)
a bed of roses
beat about the bush
put down roots
bear fruit
get to the root of the matter
up the garden path

4. Translate the proverbs:

1. moralize: Hell is paved with good intentions.
2. give advice: Don't judge a tree by its bark.
3. give warning: If you sing/laugh before breakfast, you will cry before night.
4. admonish: Liars should have good memories.
5. criticize: Everyone calls his own geese swans.

5. Choose the correct phraseological unit from the box to fill in the gaps in the sentences below. *dark horse, to work like a dog, sour grapes, to lord it over, Achilles heel, to put one's cards on the table, red tape, to see somebody in the flesh, fat cats, around the clock.*

1. Workers are losing their jobs while the ... who run the company are getting richer. 2. Stuart's getting married? He's a ... – I never even knew he had a girlfriend. 3. He was a gifted businessman, but greed was his 4. If I criticize her book, people will think it's just... . 5. There's so much ... involved in getting a visa. 6. Doctors and nurses worked ... to help the people injured in the train crash. 7. She thought it was time ... and tell him that she had no intention of marrying him. 8. He likes ... the more junior staff in the office. 9. I knew his face so well from the photographs that it felt a bit strange when I finally 10. He ... all day to finish the wallpapering.

6. Complete the following proverbs choosing from those marked a-p. Then try to explain what each proverb means.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Honesty... | a) ... less speed. |
| 2. Better late... | b) ... gathers no moss. |
| 3. Still waters... | c) ... twice shy. |
| 4. Actions... | d) ... lie. |
| 5. More haste... | e) ... while the sun shines. |
| 6. A fool and his money... | f) ... is the best policy. |
| 7. All's well... | g) ... was not built in a day. |
| 8. A rolling stone... | h) ... than never. |
| 9. A stitch in time... | i) ... leap. |
| 10. Don't count your chickens... | j) ... are soon parted. |
| 11. Strike... | k) ... run deep. |
| 12. Let sleeping dogs... | l) ... that ends well. |
| 13. Look before you... | m) ... while the iron is hot. |
| 14. Once bitten... | n) ... before they are |
| 15. Make hay... | o) ... saves nine. |
| 16. Rome... | p) speak louder than words |

7. Match up the definitions on the left (a-g) with the correct phraseological unit on the right (1-7).

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| a) to be impudent enough to | 1. to have two faces |
| b) to become opposed to | 2. to face the music |
| c) to grimace | 3. to face someone with |
| d) to appear courageous | 4. to set one's face against |
| e) to make one's appearance | 5. to make a face or faces |
| f) to accuse someone with | 6. to show one's face |
| g) to be hypocritical | 7. to have the face to |

8. Analyze the origin of the following phraseological units and explain their meaning.

Cross the Rubicon, Solomon's judgement, shed crocodile tears, the sword of Damocles, a doubting Tom, the hub of the universe, in the seventh heaven, Achilles' heel, Procrustean bed, an apple of discord, the horn of plenty, a baker's dozen, a Peeping Tom, Hobson's choice

9. State which of the italicized units are phraseologisms and which are free word-combinations. Give proof of your answer.

1. He asked to warm a glass of juice but they *left* it rather *cold* on the table. 2. Instrumental music, oddly enough, *left* me rather *cold*. 3. Where do you think you *lost your purse*. 4. I couldn't stand that noise any longer. I *lost my temper*. 5. Have a look *at the reverse side of the coat*. 6. *The reverse side of the medal* is that we'll have to do it ourselves. 7. *Keep the butter* in the refrigerator. 8. *Keep the eye on* the child. 9. He *threw some cold water* on his face to wake up. 10. I didn't expect that he would *throw cold water* upon our project. 11. The tourists *left the beaten track* and saw a lot of interesting places. 12. The author *leaves the beaten track* and offers a new treatment of the subject.

10. Read the following proverbs and their explanation

1. A bad workman always blames his tools.

This proverb is used when someone blames the quality of their equipment or other external factors when they perform a task poorly.

Example: X: The turkey isn't cooked well because the oven is not functioning well. Y: Well, it's the case of a bad workman blaming his tools.

2. A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.

Things we already have are more valuable than what we hope to get.

Example: X: Why did you turn down that job offer when you don't have anything concrete in hand at the moment? Y: Well, I'm confident I'll land one of the two jobs I interviewed for last week. And they're better than this one. X: In my opinion, you should've taken it. A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.

3. Absence makes the heart grow fonder.

When people we love are not with us, we love them even more.

Example: When I was with her she always fought with me but now she cries for me on phone. I think distance made her heart grow fonder.

4. A cat has nine lives.

Cat can survive seemingly fatal events.

Example: I haven't seen him for several weeks, but I wouldn't really worry about him. Everyone knows a cat has nine lives.

5. A chain is only as strong as its weakest link.

One weak part will render the whole weak.

Example: No matter how confident the team is, it is as strong as its weakest link – its defence.

6. Actions speak louder than words.

Actions are a better reflection of one's character because it's easy to say things, but difficult to act on them and follow through.

Example: Julie always says she'll donate to the school, and she never does, so I doubt she will this year. Actions speak louder than words, after all.

7. A drowning man will clutch at a straw.

When someone is in a difficult situation, s/he will take any available opportunity to improve it.

Example: After trying all reliable medicines, he is now visiting quacks to get a cure for his baldness. A drowning man will clutch at a straw.

8. Adversity and loss make a man wise.

We gain wisdom faster in difficult times than in prosperous times.

Example: After losing money in my investments, I know which investments to avoid. It is rightly said adversity and loss make a man wise.

9. A fool and his money are soon parted.

Foolish people do not know how to hold on to their money.

Example: She gave up her entire estate on the basis of a verbal promise. A fool and his money are indeed easily parted.

10. A journey of thousand miles begins with a single step.

Howsoever big a task is, it starts with a small step.

Example: I'm feeling overwhelmed by the prospect of completing 4,000-word paper by next week, but I guess I'll start by writing 500 words every day. After all, a journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step.

11. A leopard can't/ doesn't change its spots.

A person can't change its innate character, especially bad.

Example: X: Do you think he'll stop copying after being caught and penalized? Y: I don't think so. A leopard can't change its spots.

12. All good things come to an end.

Good experiences eventually come to an end.

Example: I was so sad to graduate from college and separate from my friends, but I've to realize that all good things come to an end.

13. All's well that ends well.

As long as the outcome is good, problems on the way don't matter.

Example: I'm glad you finally got here, even though your car had a flat tire on the way. Oh well, all's well that ends well.

14. All that glitters is not gold.

Things that look good outwardly may not be as valuable or good.

Example: X: I want to be a movie star when I grow up. Y: Film industry looks good from the distance, but it has its own problems. Remember, all that glitters is not gold.

15. All's fair in love and war.

One can break the rules of fair play under extenuating circumstances.

Example: X: How can you pitch my idea to the boss to look good? Y: Come on, all is fair in love and war.

16. Always put your best foot forward.

Try as hard as you can or give your best.

Example: You need to put your best foot forward in the interview if you want to land that job.

17. Among the blind the one-eyed man is king.

An incapable person can gain powerful position if others in the fray are even more incapable.

Example: Despite his obvious lack of exposure and skills, he became head of the department because he is one-eyed among the blind.

18. An apple a day keeps the doctor away.

Eating an apple a day will keep you healthy.

Example: Switch from chips to apples for your snack. An apple a day keeps the doctor away.

19. An empty vessel makes much noise.

Foolish or stupid people are the most talkative.

Example: The spokesperson of the ruling political party yesterday was shouting at the top of his voice on a TV debate, trying to defend the indefensible. Empty vessel makes much noise.

20. An idle brain is the devil's workshop.

If you've nothing to do, you'll likely think of mischief.

Example: The kids should be kept busy during the summer break. Otherwise, you know an idle brain is devil's workshop.

21. An ounce of protection is worth a pound of cure.

A little precaution before a crisis hits is better than lot of firefighting afterwards.

Example: Get the vaccination on priority. An ounce of protection is worth a pound of cure.

22. A picture is worth a thousand words.

It is easier to show or explain something through a picture than through words.

Example: A picture is worth a thousand words. It is easier to learn biology through pictures than through reams of text.

23. Appearances can be deceptive.

Outward appearance may not be what you believe them to be.

Example: X: He was well-mannered, suave, and good to talk to, but he turned out to be a cheater. Y: Well, appearances can be deceptive.

24. A rolling stone gathers no moss.

A person who is always changing jobs and places has the advantage of less responsibilities, but also the disadvantage of no fixed place to live.

Example: He was a bit of rolling stone before he got the job and settled down.

25. A ship in the harbor is safe, but that is not what a ship is for.

Get out of your comfort zone to grow and fulfill your potential.

Example: I think your fears are unfounded. You should travel to Italy for the Model UN. I'm sure you'll learn a lot. Remember, a ship in the harbor is safe, but that is not what a ship is for.

26. A stitch in time saves nine.

It's better to deal with problems immediately rather than wait by when they worsen and become much bigger.

Example: Because we anticipated and responded to the possible change in Facebook algorithm, the referral traffic to our website dropped much less than what happened to some of our competitors. A stitch in time saves nine.

27. As you sow, so you shall reap.

Your actions – good or bad – determine what you get.

Example: You've got entangled in few cases of fraud. That's a result of your illegal get-rich-quick methods. You should have known as you sow, so you shall reap.

28. A thing begun is half done.

A good beginning makes it easier to accomplish the rest of the project.

Example: He has already won first set in the match. I think he is on course to take this match. Well begun is half done, after all.

29. Barking dogs seldom bite.

People who appear threatening rarely do harm.

Example: X: I'm really scared to report delay in the project to the boss. His temper is so over the top. Y: I don't think you should worry too much about it. Barking dogs seldom bite.

30. Be slow in choosing, but slower in changing.

Choose things or people after proper diligence, but once you choose, stick for long.

Example: Don't be hasty in picking friends, but once you make friends with someone, don't change him/her fast. You should be slow in choosing, but slower in changing.

31. Beauty is in the eye of the beholder.

What may seem beautiful to one person may not seem to another.

Example: You may not like the curves of my new car, but then beauty is in the eye of the beholder.

32. Beauty is only skin deep.

A person's character, intellect, and other inner qualities are more important than his/ her physical beauty.

Example: That gorgeous actress behaved so rudely with the driver – beauty is skin deep, after all.

33. Beggars can't be choosers.

People who depend on the generosity of others can't pick & choose things as per their liking. They've to accept what is given to them.

Example: X: I borrowed this jacket from my friend, but it's not one of his nice ones. Y: Well, but, beggars can't be choosers.

34. Best things in life are free.

The most valuable things are often free.

Example: I feel so rejuvenated in clean air, sparkling water, and beautiful nature of the mountains. Often times, the best things in life are free.

35. Better late than never.

It is better to get something (you desire) late than get it never.

Example: I'm sorry I'm late to the party, but better late than never, right?

36. Better to be poor and healthy rather than rich and sick.

Good health is more important than money.

Example: The pharma tycoon has been in and out of hospital for the last two months because of kidney ailments. It's better to be poor and healthy than rich and sick.

37. Better to wear out than to rust out.

It is better to remain active than to be idle (used mainly for old people)

Example: X: Seeing your age, I wouldn't recommend you to work so hard. Y: It's better to wear out than to rust out.

38. Blood is thicker than water.

Relationships with family (or blood relatives) is stronger than other relationships.

Example: My friends invited me for the picnic on Sunday, but I have to go to my cousin's birthday instead. Blood is thicker than water, isn't it?

39. Cleanliness is next to Godliness.

Cleanliness is a sign of goodness, a great virtue.

Example: Keep yourself clean, after all cleanliness is next to Godliness.

40. Clothes do not make the man.

A person's character can't be judged by his/ her clothing and outward appearance.

Example: X: I can't believe he has been charged for insider trading. He always seemed so professional and impeccable. Y: Well, clothes don't make the man.

41. Cowards die many times before their deaths.

Cowards suffer the feared effects of death many times over in their lives.

Example: X: He is constantly worried about the security of his job, and I don't think he'll pursue his true interests. Y: He exemplifies the saying 'cowards die many times before their deaths'.

42. Cross the stream where it is shallowest.

To do things in the easiest possible way.

Example: Let's just cross the stream where it is shallowest and find a spot that you can pull right in to— don't worry about parallel parking.

43. Curiosity killed the cat.

Enquiring into others' work can be dangerous. One should mind own business.

Example: I know curiosity killed the cat, but I can't stop the investigation until I know where the donations are really going.

44. Curses, like chickens, come home to roost.

The consequences of doing wrong always catch up with the wrongdoer.

Example: Politicians can fool some people some of the time, but in the end, chickens come home to roost.

45. Discretion is the better part of valor.

It is wise to be careful and not show unnecessary bravery.

Example: Son: Can I go hand gliding with my friends? Father: No. Son: But they'll say I'm a chicken if I don't go! Father: Discretion is the better part of valor, and I'd rather have them call you chicken than risk your life.

46. Don't bite off more than you can chew.

Don't take more responsibility than you can handle.

Example: I bit off more than I can chew when I said 'yes' to my boss for another project.

47. Don't bite the hand that feeds you.

Don't act badly toward the person who has helped you or from whom you derive some benefits, for you may lose those benefits in future.

Example: Don't bite the hand that feeds you by talking ill of your mentor for such a small thing. If he distances himself from you or talk bad about you, it can hurt you bad.

48. Don't blow your own trumpet.

You should avoid proudly talking of your achievements and success in front of others.

Example: Don't blow your own trumpet by talking of who your clients are and how much money you make every month.

49. Don't cast pearls before swine.

Don't offer something valuable to someone who doesn't value it.

Example: To serve them French cuisine is like casting pearls before swine.

50. Don't count your chickens before they hatch.

Don't make plans based on future events that may not happen at all.

Example: X: I've to prepare for my campaign. Y: But you haven't been nominated yet. Don't count your chickens before they hatch.

51. Don't cross a bridge until you come to it.

Deal with a situation when it happens and not unnecessarily worry about it in advance.

Example: I know you're worried about the mortgage payment in January, but don't cross the bridge till you come to it.

52. Don't judge a book by its cover.

Just like you can't form an opinion of a book just by looking at its cover, you can't form an opinion about someone (or something) from their outward appearance.

Example: He seems a bit jerk to me, but, hey, you never know. He may be good. You shouldn't judge a book by its cover.

53. Don't kill the goose that lays the golden eggs.

If you kill a goose that lays golden eggs, you destroy something that makes lot of money for you.

Example: Tourists come to this city mainly to see this monument. By opening it to commercial use, the city council may kill the goose that lays golden eggs.

54. Don't put all your eggs in one basket.

Don't put all your effort into a single course of action, venture, investment, goal, or the like, because if it doesn't work, you lose everything.

Example: Almost entire revenue of the Company comes from the Facebook platform. If Facebook tweaks its policies in future, the Company may sink. They shouldn't put all their eggs in the same basket.

55. Don't put the cart before the horse.

Do things in proper order. 'Horse before the cart' is the proper order, and not 'cart before the horse'.

Example: Don't put the cart before the horse by finalizing the house you want to buy before you arrange the funds for down payment.

56. Don't throw the baby with the bathwater.

Don't discard something valuable while getting rid of something worthless.

Example: We shouldn't scrap the entire project for a subpart not planned well. Let's not throw the baby with the bathwater.

57. Early bird catches the worm.

One who starts early on the work has higher chance of success.

Example: X: Why have you come so early for the season-ending sale? Y: So that I can choose from a wider selection and get a better piece. Early bird catches the worm, after all.

58. Easy come, easy go.

You say this when you get something easily and then lose it as easily.

Example: I found fifty dollars while on my morning walk, but I frittered it away foolishly by the afternoon – easy come, easy go.

59. Empty bags cannot stand upright.

A poor or hungry person cannot discharge his duties well.

Example: You cannot expect poor people to fight for climate change, because empty bags cannot stand upright. They need to first fulfill their basic needs.

60. Every cloud has a silver lining.

Every bad or negative situation can result in some benefit to you. (The presence of silver lining means that the sun is behind the cloud and will eventually emerge.)

Example: I know your business has suffered few setbacks this season. But remember, every cloud has a silver lining.

61. Every dog has his day.

Even the unluckiest or the most unfortunate will taste success at some point.

Example: Are you surprised that John, the laggard, has got 92 percent marks in math? Well, every dog has his day.

62. Every man is the architect of his destiny.

Your own actions and decisions decide what you achieve (or don't) in life.

Example: Don't blame others for your current state of affairs. Every man is the architect of his destiny. You too are.

63. Every man has his price.

Anyone can be swayed to do something. It's just that some may demand high price, some low. This proverb is also used in the sense of bribing people.

Example: X: He has declined our offer to join the company. Y: Sweeten the offer. Raise the compensation. Every man has his price.

64. Fall seven times. Stand up eight.

Be resilient and try despite failures. That's how you succeed.

Example: Abraham Lincoln lost so many elections, but he kept trying. Eventually he became the President of United States. It's rightly said: Fall seven times. Stand up eight.

65. Familiarity breeds contempt.

If you know a situation, person, or thing well, you stop respecting them and become careless.

Example: After working so many years in that role, I don't like it. I guess familiarity breeds contempt.

66. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

Fools or inexperienced persons get involved in situations or pursue goals without much thought. In contrast, wise are thoughtful about such situations or goals.

Example: He sent an angry email without going into the background of the matter – fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

67. Fortune favors the brave.

If you carry out your plans boldly, the luck is more likely to favor you.

Example: I know you're hesitant to accept the overseas position in your Company because the ground realities there are different from what you've faced so far, but remember fortune favors the brave.

68. Get out while the going (getting) is good.

To leave a place or situation before conditions worsen and it becomes difficult to leave.

Example: With the stock market at an all-time high and further upside looking difficult, we decided to sell our shares and get out while the going was good.

69. Give them an inch and they'll take a mile.

If you give someone a small amount of power or freedom to do something, they may try to get a lot more.

Example: He borrowed my car for a day, but hasn't returned even after four days. Well, give them an inch and they'll take a mile.

70. God helps those who help themselves.

God doesn't help those who don't try. You've to make effort if you want to succeed.

Example: You've to take the bull by horns and try getting a new job. God helps those who help themselves.

71. Good things come to those who wait.

Patience is often rewarded.

Example: The best investors in the world have made their fortunes by investing for the long term. Good things come to those who wait.

72. Grief divided is made lighter.

If you share your grief, it'll get easier to bear.

Example: You shouldn't hold back the news of financial loss you've incurred in your business. Grief divided is made lighter.

73. Half a loaf is better than none.

Getting less than what one wants is better than not getting anything.

Example: X: Did you get the compensation for damage to your vehicle? Y: I was hoping for \$2,000, but the judge awarded only \$800. X: Well, half a loaf is better than none.

74. Honesty is the best policy.

It's always better to be truthful and honest, even if the opposite may get you the benefits.

Example: I think you should just explain what happened, rather than trying to cover your tracks. Honesty is the best policy, after all.

75. Hope for the best, prepare for the worst.

Be optimistic, but be prepared for a scenario where things can go wrong.

Example: We're hoping to raise capital from investors, but it may not come so soon. Therefore, it's imperative to look for alternatives as well. Let's hope for the best, but prepare for the worst.

76. If it ain't broke, don't fix it.

If something is working fine, don't change it unnecessarily.

Example: X: Why do you want to change this component in the machine when everything is working fine?
Y: OK. I agree. If it ain't broke, don't fix it.

77. If the mountain won't come to Muhammad, Muhammad must go to the mountain.

If things don't turn the way you want them to, then adjust your way to suit those things.

Example: I need that book for completing my assignment. If you aren't coming to the college tomorrow, I'll come to your place to take it – if the mountain won't come to Muhammad, Muhammad must go to the mountain.

78. If wishes were horses, beggars would ride.

If things were to happen by just wishing them, even the poorest will have everything they want.

Example: X: I want to be in a job that would pay me a million dollars a year. Y: If wishes were horses, beggars would ride. Stop fooling yourself and work hard towards your goal.

79. If you can't beat them, join them.

If you can't beat your opponent, then work alongside them for mutual benefit.

Example: ABC Pvt. Ltd. has struck partnership with its competitor after it failed to gain market share despite aggressive marketing. If you can't beat them, join them.

80. If you play with fire, you'll get burned.

If you do something dangerous or adventurous, you may get harmed.

Example: Enacting the stunts of movie superheroes in real life is playing with fire. You may get burned.

81. Ignorance is bliss.

If you don't know about something, you don't need to bother about it. In other words, if you're unaware of something, it won't cause you stress. This proverb, however, is often used in negative way – ignorance is not bliss.

Example: I didn't know that the neighbor next door was involved in criminal activities. Sometimes, ignorance is bliss.

82. It's better to be safe than sorry.

It's better to be cautious than regret later.

Example: One shouldn't complain about the inconvenience of security check each time you enter the building. It's better to be safe than sorry.

83. It's easy to be wise after the event.

It is easy to understand what you could have done to prevent something bad from happening after it has happened.

Example: I would have never bought an apartment if I had known that the land on which it has been built is disputed. Well, it's easy to be wise after the event.

84. It's never too late to mend.

It's never too late to change your wrong ways or habits.

Example: X: I still miss my best friend, but it's been a year since our fight and we haven't spoken to each other since. Y: Well, it's never too late to mend; why don't you call him up and apologize?

85. It's not over till it's over.

Till the event has completely played, you're still in with a chance to succeed.

Example: Jo-Wilfried Tsonga came back from two sets down at Wimbledon to pull off a miraculous win. That's why they say it's not over till it's over.

86. It's no use crying over spilt milk.

There is no point in staying upset over a mistake because you can't undo what has happened.

Example: X: He is feeling terrible for accidentally elbowing the flower pot from the window. Y: It's broken now. It's no use crying over spilt milk.

87. It takes two to make a quarrel.

An argument of quarrel is not one person's fault.

Example: X: Why are you always so quarrelsome? Y: I'm not the only person involved. It takes two to make a quarrel.

88. It takes two to tango.

Where two parties are involved in a situation, fault usually lies with both if things go wrong. Rarely can one party be blamed entirely.

Example: This deal won't go through unless you too are willing to compromise. It takes two to tango, after all.

89. Keep your mouth shut and your eyes open.

Speak only when necessary and remain alert and observant at all times.

Example: We're in a hostile territory. So, to avoid problems, keep your mouth shut and your eyes open.

90. Laughter is the best medicine.

Thinking positively and laughing will help you to feel better.

Example: I think the best thing for you right now would be to spend some time with people you can joke around with. Laughter is the best medicine, after all.

91. Learn to walk before you run.

Learn basic skills first before venturing into complex things.

Example: X: I want to submit my first article to Fortune magazine for publication. Y: I think you should aim for smaller publications to start with. You should learn to walk before you run.

92. Let sleeping dogs lie.

Don't talk about a bad situation people have forgotten and that could unnecessarily create problem in the present.

Example: X: Should I ask the professor if he is upset about my late submission of the assignment? Y: If he hasn't said anything, then don't bring forth the topic – let sleeping dogs lie.

93. Life begins at forty.

A person truly starts enjoying life after forty as a result of accumulated skills and wisdom.

Example: X: I'm turning 40 next month. Y: You look glum. You should instead be cheerful, after all life begins at forty.

94. Lightning never strikes twice in the same place.

Misfortune does not occur twice in the same way to the same person.

Example: X: I don't want to take this route, because I was robbed the last time I traveled on this route. Y: Don't worry, lightning never strikes twice in the same place.

95. Look before you leap.

Consider all consequences before taking an action, especially when you can't retract.

Example: X: I'm planning to pursue an MBA. Y: It's an expensive degree and, moreover, you'll be out of work for two years. I would say look before you leap.

96. Make hay while the sun shines.

Make the most of favorable conditions till they last.

Example: I got plenty of referral traffic to my website from Facebook in its initial years. I made hay while the sun shone. Later on they changed their algorithm, after which the traffic dried.

97. Money doesn't grow on trees.

Spend money carefully because it's limited. You can't grow it on trees and replenish.

Example: I'm surprised that you spent your entire month's salary on a frivolous gadget. Well, money doesn't grow on trees.

98. Money talks.

Money gives one power and influence.

Example: I don't have access to many people like he has, after all he is a scion of a rich family. Money talks, you know.

99. Necessity is the mother of invention.

A need or problem forces people to come up with innovative solutions.

Example: In some parts of the world, farmers use washing machine to clean potatoes in large volumes. Necessity, after all, is the mother of invention.

100. Never put off until tomorrow what you can do today.

Don't delay doing something if you can do it immediately.

Example: X: I'm done with most of my assignment, but I'll pick the remaining part on Monday. Y: Why don't you complete it now? You'll be more relieved and in a better state of mind. You shouldn't put off until tomorrow what you can do today.

101. Never test the depth of water with both feet.

If you're in water with both feet down, you risk being swept away by the currents. The message is: don't put all your eggs in the same basket. Think twice before placing all your bets and investments on one thing.

Example: While applying to colleges, don't limit yourself only to those with high cutoff marks. Never test the depth of the water with both feet.

102. No gain without pain.

It is necessary to suffer or work hard in order to succeed or make progress.

Example: You've to drastically reduce the time you spend on video games and TV if you want to get admission in a good college. No gain without pain.

103. No news is good news.

If you don't receive any news about someone or something, it means that everything is fine and going normally.

Example: My daughter has been working in Australia for nearly five years now. At first I used to get worried when I didn't hear from her, but now I know that no news is good news.

104. Once bitten twice shy.

You say this proverb when someone won't do something a second time because they had bad experience the first time.

Example: I won't try this drink, because last time I had a burning sensation in my throat. Once bitten twice shy, I guess.

105. One man's junk is another man's treasure.

What may seem to be junk to one person maybe valuable to another.

Example: I sold my 6-year-old laptop for little amount, but I'm sure the buyer will make hefty profit on it by refurbishing and selling it to someone else. One man's junk is another man's treasure, after all.

106. One shouldn't miss forest for the trees.

Sometimes you get so focused on small details that you may miss the larger context.

Example: The marketers got so bogged down on creating the perfect ad campaign that they didn't realize that the medium – Facebook – they wanted to use was no longer a viable option because of its recent algorithm updates.

107. Out of sight, out of mind.

If someone or something is not seen for a long time, it'll be forgotten.

Example: Many celebrities find a way to appear in media because they know that out of sight is out of mind.

108. Pen is mightier than sword.

Thinking and writing have more influence on people and events than use of force.

Example: After the mass killings at the newspaper office, there is a protest which is happening in the city declaring support to the paper and proving that pen is mightier than sword.

109. People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones at others.

People who have faults should not criticize other people for having the same faults.

Example: The main political party in the opposition has blamed the ruling party for giving tickets to people with dubious background in the upcoming elections. But the big question is: are they themselves clean on this count? People who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones at others.

110. Persuasion is better than force.

You can achieve better results through persuasion than through coercion.

Example: After many futile attempts by the government, farmers finally agreed to acquisition of their land on the promise of economic development of the area. That's why it is said persuasion is better than force.

111. Practice makes perfect.

Doing something over and over makes one better at it.

Example: You can't expect to master guitar in two months. You've to keep at it for several months, as practice makes perfect.

112. Practice what you preach.

Behave the way you encourage other people to behave.

Example: You keep telling us to go for a jog in the morning, but I wish you would practice what you preach.

113. Rome wasn't built in a day.

Important work takes time to complete.

Example: You can't expect her to finish such a complex project in a week. Rome wasn't built in a day.

114. Silence is half consent.

If you don't object to what someone says or does, you may be assumed to agree to some extent.

Example: He didn't say anything to my proposal of going for a picnic on the weekend. I believe he is not saying 'no'. Silence is half consent.

115. Slow and steady wins the race.

Slow and consistent work leads to better chance of success than quick work in spurts.

Example: X: I've built a strong vocabulary by learning a word a day for the last three years. Y: Mine has been much less even though I've had days when I polished off ten words. I guess slow and steady wins the race.

116. Still waters run deep.

If a person doesn't speak much, it doesn't mean they lack depth or are uninteresting.

Example: She is one of the smartest persons in the organization. She may not talk much, but still waters run deep.

117. Strike while the iron is hot.

Take advantage of an opportunity as soon as it comes along.

Example: I thought over the job offer I got way too long. Now it has been offered to someone else. I should have struck while the iron was hot.

118. The best-laid plans go astray.

Despite best preparations, things may not go your way.

Example: X: I had everything covered for this project, but now I'm told that the project can't go ahead because the Company is planning an organizational restructuring. Y: Well, that's unfortunate, but sometimes the best-laid plans go astray.

119. The end justifies the means.

A desired result is so important that any method, even a morally bad one, may be used to achieve it.

Example: He's campaigning with illegal funds on the theory that if he wins the election the end will justify the means.

120. The harder you work, the luckier you get.

The harder you work, the more good ideas and chances you may make for yourself.

Example: Many think he got lucky in getting that fat contract, but few know he had been pursuing dozens of such contracts for several weeks – the harder you work, the luckier you get.

121. The grass is greener on the other side of the fence.

People are never satisfied with their own situation; they always think others have it better.

Example: X: When I see him post all those travel pictures on Instagram, I feel he has the perfect life. Y: It's usually not like that in real life. I'm sure he too has his share of problems. I see your thought as grass being greener on the other side of the fence.

122. The proof of the pudding is in the eating.

You can only judge the quality of something after you have tried, used, or experienced it.

Example: X: Marketers have claimed that this weight loss diet produces strong results in just two months. Y: Well, I'll reserve my opinion till I've tried it myself. After all, proof of pudding is in the eating.

123. There are more ways than one to skin a cat.

There is more than one way to reach the same goal.

Example: We can get around that by renting instead of buying the delivery van – there's more than one way to skin a cat.

124. There is no time like the present.

The best time to do something is right now. So, act now.

Example: Don't wait until New Year to change your bad habits. There's no time like the present.

125. There is safety in numbers.

A group offers more protection than when you are on your own.

Example: Her parents won't allow her to date but do let her go to parties, saying there's safety in numbers.

126. The road to hell is paved with good intentions.

Good intentions do not matter if a person's actions lead to bad outcomes.

Example: X: Well, I was only trying to be helpful by mixing those two acids. Y: But, it exploded the beaker. Well, the road to hell is paved with good intentions.

127. The show must go on.

A performance, event, etc., must continue even though there are problems.

Example: The chairman died yesterday but the show must go on.

128. The squeaky wheel gets the grease.

People who complain the most are the ones who get attention or what they want.

Example: If you're not satisfied with the service at the hotel, then you should call up the manager there. The squeaky wheel gets the grease, after all.

129. Time and tide wait for no man.

You've no control over passage of time; it'll keep slipping. So don't procrastinate, don't delay things.

Example: We need to hurry up or else we'll miss the flight. Time and tide wait for no man.

130. Too many cooks spoil the broth.

When too many people work together on a project, the result is inferior.

Example: This proposal has received feedback from too many parliamentary committees, and that's probably the reason why it lacks clear actionables. I've no doubt that too many cooks spoil the broth.

131. Two heads are better than one.

Two persons have a better chance to solve a problem than one.

Example: More startups have two cofounders than one. That's because they very well understand that two heads are better than one.

132. Two wrongs don't make a right.

You shouldn't harm a person who has harmed you, even if you think that person deserves it.

Example: Just because he insulted you doesn't mean it's OK for you to start a rumor about him – two wrongs don't make a right.

133. Watch the doughnut, and not the hole.

Focus on what you have and not on what you don't.

Example: X: I've to submit the assignment next Monday, but I don't have a clue on the topic. Y: Consult your friends. Consult books. Understand the topic. Watch the doughnut, and not the hole.

134. What goes around comes around.

If someone treats other people badly, he or she will eventually be treated badly by someone else.

Example: He tormented me back in high school, and now he has his own bully. What goes around comes around.

135. When in Rome, do as the Romans do.

When visiting a foreign land, follow the customs of local people.

Example: I don't love cotton candy, but we are at a carnival. When in Rome, do as the Romans do, right?

136. When the going gets tough, the tough get going.

When conditions become difficult, strong people take action.

Example: I know you're not used to climbing at such heights, but come on when the going gets tough, the tough get going.

137. Where there's a will, there's a way.

If you are determined enough, you can find a way to achieve what you want, even if it is difficult.

Example: He had little resources to start his business, but he eventually did through a small opening – blog. Where there's a will, there's a way.

138. Where there's smoke there's fire.

If there are rumors or signs that something is true so it must be at least partly true.

Example: X: Do you believe those rumors about the mayor? Y: Well, you know what they say, where there's smoke, there's fire.

139. Where one door shuts, another opens.

When you lose an opportunity to do one thing, an opportunity to do something else appears.

Example: X: I failed to get into my dream college. Y: Don't worry, this has happened with many. I'm sure something better is waiting for you. Where one door shuts, another opens.

140. While the cat's away, the mice will play.

Without supervision, people will do as they please, especially in disregarding or breaking rules.

Example: As soon as their parents left, the children invited all their friends over – when the cat's away, you know.

141. You can catch more flies with honey than with vinegar.

It's easier to win people to your side by persuasion and politeness than by confrontation and threats.

Example: X: The courier service has taken more time to deliver than they had promised. I want to take the issue up with them and get a refund. Y: I would suggest you deal with them politely. You can catch more flies with honey than with vinegar.

142. You can lead a horse to water but you can't make it drink.

You can show people the way to do things, but you can't force them to act.

Example: X: He has received all the resources one needs to start a business, but even after six months I don't see anything happening. Y: Well, you can lead a horse to water but you can't make it drink.

143. You can't always get what you want.

Sometimes you may face disappointments in your pursuits or your wishes may not be fulfilled.

Example: X: I want a bike on my birthday. Y: Sorry, you can't always get what you want.

144. You can't fit a round peg in a square hole.

You can't force someone into a role for which s/he is not suited.

Example: It took me a while, but I eventually understood that I was a round peg in a square hole in the firm. That's why I quit for a better-fitting role.

145. You can't have your cake and eat it too.

To have two things that one desires, but they're normally impossible to get simultaneously.

Example: If you want more local services, you can't expect to pay less tax. Well, you can't have your cake and eat it.

146. You can't make an omelette without breaking eggs.

It is hard to achieve something important without causing unpleasant effects.

Example: If I don't slash people's salaries, the company is going to go bankrupt. It's unfortunate, but you can't make an omelet without breaking eggs.

147. You can't teach an old dog new tricks.

People who have long been used to doing things in a particular way will not abandon their habits.

Example: I bet you can't get him to get up at 5 AM and go out for a walk. After all, you can't teach an old dog new tricks.

148. You can't unscramble a scrambled egg.

Some actions are irreversible.

Example: The spilt milk can't be used. You can't unscramble a scrambled egg.

149. You can't win them all.

It is not possible to succeed at everything you do.

Example: I know you're disappointed to not convert that interview, but you can't win them all.

150. You show me the man and I'll show you the rule.

Rules change depending on how influential or powerful the person likely to be affected by the rules is.

Example: X: He has been treated leniently by the police. Y: That's why they say – you show me the man and I'll show you the rule.

Семінар 9.

LEXICO-STYLISTIC LAYERS OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про лексико-стилістичні шари англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Division of vocabulary into different layers
 2. Formal, neutral and informal/colloquial layers
 3. Formal vocabulary
 4. Informal vocabulary
 5. Low colloquial is illiterate popular speech
- Key words:** formal, neutral and informal/colloquial layers, slang words, polished speech

Recommended Reading

Main:

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Національна бібліотека України імені В.І.Вернадського: режим доступу:
<http://nbuv.gov.ua/node/554>
British Council. – [Електронний ресурс]: – Режим доступу:
<http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/en/>

Questions for self-control

1. What are the common literary words?
2. What are the neutral words?
3. What are the colloquial words?
4. Explain the phenomenon of spontaneous colloquial coinages

Realization of the plan

Division of vocabulary into different layers

Stylistically words can be subdivided into **formal, neutral and informal/colloquial layers**.

The formal and informal layers contain a number of sub-groups. 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 – классный, потрясный, клёвый; cold turkey – голая правда;

3. professionalisms – words used in a definite trade, profession.

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

– 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; eneugh; 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; allrighmik – 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.

The literary and colloquial layers contain a number of sub-groups. Each of these groups has an aspect (a property, a common feature) it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. The common property of the literary layer is its markedly bookish character, which makes the layer stable. The common property of the colloquial layer of words is its lively spoken character, which makes it unstable, fleeting. The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character, which means that words belonging to this layer are not restricted in use and can be employed in all styles and all spheres of human communication, which makes this layer the most stable of all.

The literary layer includes words that are universally accepted, words that have no local or dialectal character. The literary vocabulary consists of the following groups of words:

common literary

terms and learned words

poetic

archaic

barbarisms and foreign words

literary coinages (including nonce-words)

The colloquial layer of words is often limited to a definite language community (e.g. professional group) or confined to a special locality where it is spoken. It falls into:

common colloquial

slang

jargonisms

professionalisms

dialectal

vulgar

colloquial coinages

The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term “Standard English Vocabulary”. Other groups in the literary layer are regarded as special literary vocabulary and those in the colloquial layer – special colloquial (non-literary) vocabulary.

Neutral words, which form the bulk of the English Vocabulary, are used both in literary and colloquial language. They are the main source of synonymy and polysemy. It is the neutral stock of words that is so prolific in the production of new meanings. Unlike literary and colloquial words, neutral words lack special stylistic colouring.

Common literary words are chiefly used in writing and polished speech. It may seem difficult to distinguish a literary word from a colloquial word as no objective criteria of classification have been worked out. The opposition between literary, colloquial and neutral can become more apparent in pairs/ groups of synonyms.

Slang words are identified and distinguished by contrasting them to standard literary vocabulary. They are expressive, mostly ironical words serving to create fresh names for some things that are frequent topics

of discourse. For the most part they sound somewhat vulgar, cynical and harsh, aiming to show the object of speech in the light of an off-hand contemptuous ridicule. Vivid examples can be furnished by various slang words for money, such as beans, brass, dibs, dough, chink, oof, wads; the slang synonyms for the word head are attic, brain-pan, hat peg, nut, upper storey; compare also various synonyms for the adjective drunk: cock-eyed, high and many more.

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme

2. Prepare the slide presentation for this theme

Семінар 10.

THEORETICAL GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про теоретичну граматику сучасної англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Theoretical grammar
2. The object of theoretical grammar
3. The main notions of theoretical grammar.
4. Practical (normative) grammar
5. Theoretical (scientific) grammar

Key words: morphology, syntax, basic grammatical notions, meaning, traditional grammar vs. theoretical grammar.

Recommended Reading

Renouf Antoinette and Kehoe Andrew, The Changing Face of Corpus Linguistics. Rodopi, 2003.

Mikhail John, Elements of Moral Cognition: Rawls' Linguistic Analogy and the Cognitive Science of Moral and Legal Judgment. Cambridge Univ. Press, 2011

Baker Paul, Hardie Andrew, and McEnery Tony, A Glossary of Corpus Linguistics. Edinburgh Univ. Press, 2006.

Classe O.. Encyclopedia of Literary Translation Into English. Taylor & Francis, 2000.

Pieter A. M. Seuren, Western Linguistics: An Historical Introduction. Blackwell, 1998

Волкова Л.М. Теоретична граматики англійської мови: сучасний підхід. Навчальний посібник. К.: Освіта України, 2010. 256 с.

Соловійова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. 232 с

Questions for self-control

1. What are the differences between the traditional grammar and theoretical grammar?
2. What generative linguists mean by 'grammar' ?
3. What are the Descriptive and Theoretical Linguistics?
4. Outline the purpose of descriptive and theoretical linguistics

Realization of the plan

Theoretical grammar is concerned with language in general rather than with an individual language, as is the study of essential components of any human language.

Theoretical grammar explains language rules in general, not just one specific language. Unlike traditional grammar, theoretical grammar is a scientific theory about how we understand language. Theoretical grammar helps figure out why languages have certain forms and not others.

Theoretical grammar is concerned with language in general rather than with an individual language, as is the study of essential components of any human language.

The object of theoretical grammar as a science is the grammatical structure of language, i.e. the system of laws governing the change of grammatical forms of words and the building of sentences.

The main notions of theoretical grammar are grammatical form, grammatical meaning and grammatical categories.

Grammar studies the relations between elements of the language system. There are the fundamental types of such relations: syntagmatic and paradigmatic.

Grammar of a language is not a list of rules forced on people who speak it. It is just a record made by careful observation of how people speak a language.

Laws of grammar are objective. They can be compared with those of nature. Law of nature are a few things that people have observed as the way nature acts. If we find that nature is now acting according to these rules, we do not try to force nature to obey them. We change our ideas about nature and discover new laws.

It's the same with grammar. English of today is not quite the same English as English of 17th century.

The main difference between the grammatical structure of English and that of Ukrainian lies in ways of expressing grammatical relations between words in word-groups and sentences. In Ukrainian grammatical relations between words in a sentence are mainly expressed by forms of the words. Such a type of grammatical structure is called analytical.

Practical (normative) grammar is a collection of rules, which will enable one to speak and write correctly. Practical grammar is dogmatic to some extent.

Theoretical (scientific) grammar is a scientific description of grammatical structure of a language. Theoretical grammar is connected with phonology, lexicology and the history of language.

Traditionally grammar is divided into morphology and syntax.

Morphology (which means "study of law") is the part of grammar that treats of forms of words.

Syntax is the part of grammar that of phrases and sentences. Morphology and syntax are closely connected and it's impossible to draw precise boundaries between them.

Basic grammatical notions

By grammatical forms we understand variations of a word having the same lexical meaning but differing grammatically (e.g. child, child's children, children's; teaches, taught, teaching).

Meaning expressed by a grammatical form is called grammatical meaning. Each notional word is a unity of two types of meaning – lexical and grammatical. Lexical meaning is of individual character. It is common in a lot of words, which have different lexical meanings (e.g. tables, chairs, men, women, events; played, lived, wrote, ran, went).

Grammatical meaning is always expressed by a grammatical marker and it is obligatory.

Grammatical meanings are revealed in oppositions.

Oppositions are pairs of grammatical forms opposed to each other in some way" (B.Ilysh).

A two-member opposition is called binary. Of the two members of an opposition one is called marked and the other one unmarked. For example, in the opposition "cat//cats" "cats" is the marked

member. The meaning of the marked member is quite definite, whereas the meaning of the unmarked one is less definite and even vague.

Binary oppositions are typical of the English language. An opposition may consist of more than two members. (e.g. the tense opposition: studies – studied – will study).

The general meaning of two or more homogeneous grammatical meanings opposed to each other, makes up a grammatical category. E.g. the general meaning of singular and plural makes up the grammatical category of number; future tense makes up the grammatical category of tense.

There are two conditions for existing a grammatical category:

1. a grammatical category must be represented by at least two homogeneous grammatical meanings;
2. it must be expressed by some grammatical means. Grammatical categories may not coincide in different languages. For example, in Russian and Ukrainian there exists the grammatical category of animateness/ inanimateness, which does not exist in English; in English there exists the grammatical category of definiteness/indefiniteness, which does not exist in Ukrainian.

According to Antoinette Renouf and Andrew Kehoe:

"**Theoretical grammar** or syntax is concerned with making completely explicit the formalisms of **grammar**, and in providing scientific arguments or explanations in favour of one account of grammar rather than another, in terms of a general theory of human language." (Antoinette Renouf and Andrew Kehoe, *The Changing Face of Corpus Linguistics*. Rodopi, 2003)

Traditional Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar

"What generative linguists mean by 'grammar' should not be confused, in the first instance, with what ordinary persons or nonlinguists might refer to by that term: namely, a **traditional** or **pedagogical grammar** such as the kind used to teach language to children in 'grammar school.' A pedagogical grammar typically provides paradigms of regular constructions, lists of prominent exceptions to these constructions (irregular verbs, etc.), and descriptive commentary at various levels of detail and generality about the form and meaning of expressions in a language (Chomsky 1986a: 6). By contrast, a **theoretical** grammar, in Chomsky's framework, is a scientific theory: it seeks to provide a complete theoretical characterization of the speaker-hearer's knowledge of her language, where this knowledge is interpreted to refer to a particular set of mental states and structures.

The difference between a theoretical grammar and a pedagogical grammar is one important distinction to bear in mind in order to avoid confusion about how the term 'grammar' operates in theoretical linguistics. A second, more fundamental distinction is between a **theoretical grammar** and a **mental grammar**." (John Mikhail, *Elements of Moral Cognition: Rawls' Linguistic Analogy and the Cognitive Science of Moral and Legal Judgment*. Cambridge Univ. Press, 2011)

Descriptive Grammar vs. Theoretical Grammar

"A **descriptive grammar** (or **reference grammar**) catalogues the facts of a language, whereas a **theoretical grammar** uses some theory about the nature of language to explain why the language contains certain forms and not others." (Paul Baker, Andrew Hardie, and Tony McEnery, *A Glossary of Corpus Linguistics*. Edinburgh Univ. Press, 2006)

Descriptive and Theoretical Linguistics

"The purpose of descriptive and **theoretical linguistics** is to further our understanding of language. This is done through a continual process of testing theoretical assumptions against data, and analyzing data in the light of those assumptions which previous analyses have confirmed to such a degree that they form a more or less integral whole that is accepted as the currently preferred theory. Between them, the mutually dependent fields of descriptive and theoretical linguistics provide accounts and explanations of how things seem to be in language, and a terminology for use in discussions." (O. Classe, *Encyclopedia of Literary Translation Into English*. Taylor & Francis, 2000)

"It seems that in modern **theoretical grammar** the differences between **morphological** and **syntactic** constructions are beginning to show up, for example in the fact that, in the European languages at least, syntactic constructions tend to be right-branching while morphological

constructions tend to be left-branching." (Pieter A. M. Seuren, *Western Linguistics: An Historical Introduction*. Blackwell, 1998)

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theoretical grammar of English
2. Analyze the figure of the grammar rules of English



3. Translate Glossary of linguistic terms into Ukrainian

abstract noun
 adverbial clause
 adverbial clause of
 circumstances
 adverbial clause of
 concession
 adverbial clause of
 condition
 adverbial clause of
 manner
 adverbial clause of place
 adverbial clause of
 purpose

adverbial clause of
 reason (cause)
 adverbial clause of result
 adverbial clause of time
 adverbial modifier
 adversative coordination
 affirmative
 alternative question
 analytical form
 animate noun
 apposition
 appositive clause
 asyndetic
 attribute

attributive clause
 auxiliary verb
 causative-consecutive
 coordination
 collective noun
 common noun
 comparative degree
 complete sentence
 complex object
 complex sentence
 composite sentence
 compound nominal
 predicate
 compound sentence

compound-complex sentence	indefinite article	positive degree
compound verbal	indicative mood	predicate
predicate	indirect object	predicative
conjunction	intensification	predicative clause
conjunctive adverb	interrogative sentence	principle clause
coordination	in the plural	pronominal (special)
copulative coordination	in the singular	question
count noun	introductory	proper name
declarative sentence	intransitive verb	prepositional object
definite article	invariable noun	relative pronoun
degrees of comparison	inversion	restrictive (limiting)
descriptive attribute	limiting clause (also: restrictive, defining clause)	attribute
detached	link verb	rhetorical question
direct object	material noun	simple nominal predicate
direct word order	negative	simple verbal predicate
disjunctive coordination	nominal	subject
disjunctive question	nominative absolute	subject clause
exclamatory sentence	construction	subordinate clause
expanded (extended)	non-detached	subordination
sentence	notional verb	substantivized adjective
general question	non-limiting clause (also: non-restrictive, non-defining clause)	suggestive question
genitive (possessive)	object	superlative degree
case	object clause	suppletive form
homogeneous	obligatory	syndetic
imperative mood	oblique moods	synthetic form
impersonal	one-member sentence	transitive verb
inanimate noun	optional	two-member sentence
incomplete (elliptical)		uncount noun
sentence		unexpanded
		(unextended) sentence

4. Optional task: prepare the slide presentation for this theme.

Семінар 11. **PARTS OF SPEECH. THE NOUN**

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про іменник самостійну частина мови, яка називає предмети, істот, явища, поняття тощо,

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. English words are streamered into 9 basic types called "parts of speech" or "word classes".
2. Parts of Speech Table
3. Parts of Speech Examples
4. Words with More Than One Function
5. Examples of Nouns in Sentences

Key words: verb, noun, adjective, determiner, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

Recommended Reading

Соловйова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. – Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. – 232 с.

Довідник словотвірних елементів англійської мови / уклад. О. В. Вознюк. – Житомир : ЖВІРЕ, 2003. – 96 с.

Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. 499 p.

Brinton, Laurel J. & Donna M. Brinton. 2010. The linguistic structure of Modern English, 2nd edn. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Hopper, Paul J. 1999. A short course in grammar. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Huddleston, Rodney. 1984. Introduction to the grammar of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Questions for self-control

1. Categorize English words into 9 basic types called "parts of speech" or "word classes".
2. What do nouns do?
3. What are the singular and plural nouns?
4. Explain using nouns with other parts of speech
5. Explain the cases of replacing nouns with pronouns

Realization of the plan

We can categorize English words into **9 basic types** called "parts of speech" or "word classes". It's quite important to recognize parts of speech. This helps you to analyze sentences and understand them. It also helps you to construct good sentences.

Parts of Speech Table.

A summary of the 9 parts of speech*.

You can find more detail if you click on each part of speech.

PART OF SPEECH	FUNCTION OR "JOB"	EXAMPLE WORDS	EXAMPLE SENTENCES
VERB	ACTION OR STATE	(TO) BE, HAVE, DO, LIKE, WORK, SING, CAN, MUST	ENGLISHCLUB IS A WEB SITE. I LIKE ENGLISHCLUB.
NOUN	THING OR PERSON	PEN, DOG, WORK, MUSIC, TOWN, LONDON, TEACHER, JOHN	THIS IS MY DOG . HE LIVES IN MY HOUSE . WE LIVE IN LONDON .
ADJECTIVE	DESCRIBES A NOUN	GOOD, BIG, RED, WELL, INTERESTING	MY DOGS ARE BIG . I LIKE BIG DOGS.
DETERMINER	LIMITS OR "DETERMINES" A NOUN	A/AN, THE, 2, SOME, MANY	I HAVE TWO DOGS AND SOME RABBITS.
ADVERB	DESCRIBES A VERB, ADJECTIVE OR ADVERB	QUICKLY, SILENTLY, WELL, BADLY, VERY, REALLY	MY DOG EATS QUICKLY . WHEN HE IS VERY HUNGRY, HE EATS REALLY QUICKLY.
PRONOUN	REPLACES A NOUN	I, YOU, HE, SHE, SOME	TARA IS INDIAN. SHE IS BEAUTIFUL.
PREPOSITION	LINKS A NOUN TO ANOTHER WORD	TO, AT, AFTER, ON, BUT	WE WENT TO SCHOOL ON MONDAY.
CONJUNCTION	JOINS CLAUSES OR SENTENCES OR WORDS	AND, BUT, WHEN	I LIKE DOGS AND I LIKE CATS. I LIKE CATS AND DOGS. I LIKE DOGS BUT I DON'T LIKE CATS.
INTERJECTION	SHORT EXCLAMATION, SOMETIMES INSERTED INTO A SENTENCE	OH!, OUCH!, HI!, WELL	OUCH! THAT HURTS! HI! HOW ARE YOU? WELL , I DON'T KNOW.

* Some grammar sources traditionally categorize English into 8 parts of speech. Others say 10. Some use the more recent categorization of 9 parts of speech. Examples of other categorizations are:

Verbs may be treated as two different parts of speech:

lexical Verbs (work, like, run)

auxiliary Verbs (be, have, must)

Determiners may be treated as adjectives, instead of being a separate part of speech.

Parts of Speech Examples

Here are some examples of sentences made with different English parts of speech:

verb
Stop!

noun	verb
John	works.

noun	verb	verb
John	is	working.

pronoun	verb	noun
She	loves	animals.

noun	verb	noun	adverb
Tara	speaks	English	well.

noun	verb	adjective	noun
Tara	speaks	good	English.

pronoun	verb	preposition	determiner	noun	adverb
She	ran	to	the	station	quickly.

pron.	verb	adj.	noun	conjunction	pron.	verb	pron.
She	likes	big	snakes	but	I	hate	them.

Here is a sentence that contains every part of speech:

interjection	pron.	conj.	det.	adj.	noun	verb	prep.	noun	adverb
Well,	she	and	my	young	John	walk	to	school	slowl

Words with More Than One Function

Many words in English can have more than one job, or be more than one part of speech. For example, "work" can be a verb and a noun; "but" can be a conjunction and a preposition; "well" can be an adjective, an adverb and an interjection. In addition, many nouns can act as adjectives.

To analyze the part of speech, ask yourself: "What **job** is this word doing in this sentence?"

In the table below you can see a few examples. Of course, there are more, even for some of the words in the table. In fact, if you look in a good dictionary you will see that the word "**but**" has six jobs to do: verb, noun, adverb, pronoun, preposition and conjunction!

word	part of speech	example
work	noun	My work is easy.
	verb	I work in London.

word	part of speech	example
but	conjunction	John came but Mary didn't come.
	preposition	Everyone came but Mary.
well	adjective	Are you well ?
	adverb	She speaks well .
	interjection	Well! That's expensive!
afternoon	noun	We ate in the afternoon .
	noun acting as adjective	We had afternoon tea.

What Is a Noun?

Nouns are one of the eight types of speech in the English language. They describe:

- people – words used to name a person (teacher, mother, friend)
 - includes people's names (Brian, Mr. Davidson, Liliana)
- places – countries, cities, or states (Canada, Los Angeles, Missouri)
 - includes general locations (school, supermarket, home)
- things – any other item, including:
 - everyday objects (stapler, car, dishwasher)
 - animals (pelican, cat, iguana)
- ideas – words for concepts (independence, friendship, work)
 - includes emotions (hatred, confusion, hope)

If you can see or touch it (like cat or banana) it's a concrete noun. If it can't be observed with the five senses (like love or sadness), it's an abstract noun.

When a noun includes two words (such as birthday cake or hot dog), it's a compound noun.

10 Examples of Nouns in Sentences

Seeing examples of nouns in action helps you better understand how to use the different types of nouns. Notice that if you substitute one noun with another noun, the sentences still make sense.

- I need to feed my new goldfish. (concrete noun naming a thing)
- My aunt is staying with us for a while. (concrete noun naming a person)
- I am looking forward to visiting Disneyland. (concrete noun describing a place)
- We are eating pizza tonight. (concrete noun naming a thing)
- He needs a new computer. (concrete noun naming a thing)
- My bedroom is chilly this morning. (concrete noun naming a place)
- Seeing my baby sister fills me with love. (abstract noun naming an idea)
- This price is too high. (abstract noun naming an idea)
- The server asked if I'd like to order. (concrete noun naming a person)
- Tim really values honesty in a relationship. (abstract noun naming an idea)

What Do Nouns Do?

Although there are many types of nouns, they all do the same things in a sentence. They name things, perform actions, receive actions, and even redefine other nouns.

Nouns Name Things

All names of all things, such as people, cities, buildings, monuments, rivers, natural disasters, books, magazines, and songs, are nouns.

When they're naming something general, they're uncapitalized common nouns. For example:

man
dog
country
restaurant
president

But when they're naming something specific, they're capitalized proper nouns.

Harvey
Mr. Fluffy
Norway
McDonald's
President Eisenhower

Nouns Perform Actions

In a sentence, one noun performs the action (or verb). This noun is the subject of the sentence. For example:

Harvey bought a shovel. (Harvey is the noun, bought is the verb)
The dog chases squirrels. (dog is the noun, chases is the verb)
Norway celebrates Constitution Day. (Norway is the noun, celebrates is the verb)
That restaurant sells hamburgers. (restaurant is the noun, sells is the verb)
President Eisenhower won the election. (President Eisenhower is the noun, won is the verb)

Nouns Receive Actions

When a noun comes after the verb, the action is happening to the noun. These nouns are the second nouns in the sentences, and they're known as sentence objects. For example:

Harvey bought a shovel. (shovel is the noun, bought is the verb)
The dog chases squirrels. (squirrels is the noun, chases is the verb)
Norway celebrates Constitution Day. (Constitution Day is the noun, celebrates is the verb)
That restaurant sells hamburgers. (hamburgers is the noun, sells is the verb)
President Eisenhower won the election. (election is the noun, won is the verb)

Nouns Redefine Other Nouns

When nouns follow helping verbs, typically forms of is, they're known as complements. These nouns are also known as predicate nominatives.

Subject complements rename or redefine the sentence subject.
Harvey was a gardener. (The noun gardener defines the noun Harvey)
The dog is a mutt. (The noun mutt defines the noun the dog)

Object complements rename or redefine a sentence object.
Norway is a European country. (The noun European country defines Norway)
That restaurant is a McDonald's. (The noun McDonald's defines that restaurant.)

Singular and Plural Nouns

Nouns can be singular (refers to one) or plural (refers to more than one).

Most English nouns can be made plural simply by adding an -s to the end of the word, but there are a few irregular plural nouns that are exceptions to that rule.

Nouns with a singular form that ends in -s, -z, -x, -ch, or -sh need to add -es to become plural (boss/bosses, box/boxes, watch/watches, bush/bushes).

Certain nouns that end in -o also need -es to become plural (potato/potatoes, hero/heroes, volcano/volcanoes).

For nouns that end in -f or -fe, change the "F" to a "V" and add -es (knife/knives, hoof/hooves, wolf/wolves).

If a singular noun ends in a single or double consonant followed by "Y," change the "Y" to "I," and add -es (lady/ladies, bully/bullies, spy/spies).

Using Nouns With Other Parts of Speech

When nouns aren't naming things and performing verbs, they're working with other parts of speech. Verbs, adjectives, pronouns, and articles work with nouns to make sentences as clear as possible.

Modifying Nouns With Adjectives

When you need to describe a noun in more detail, use an adjective. Adjectives often come before the noun they're describing, and depending which one you use, an adjective can change a lot about the noun.

In these examples, the adjective is in bold, and the noun it's modifying is underlined.

The white truck is in the driveway.
The broken truck is in the driveway.

A short customer takes out her money.
An angry customer takes out her money.

An excited octopus swims by.
A dangerous octopus swims by.

Replacing Nouns With Pronouns

You can replace a noun in a sentence with a pronoun. Replace subjects with subjective pronouns (such as I, you, he, she, it, or they).

The white truck is in the driveway.
It is in the driveway.

A customer takes out her money.
She takes out her money.

Some octopuses swim by.
They swim by.

Using Articles With Nouns

Use an article before a noun to point out which one you're talking about. Indefinite articles (a or an) come before a general, nonspecific noun.

A truck is in the driveway.
A customer takes out her money.
An octopus swims by.

But when the definite article the comes before a noun, you're talking about a specific noun.

The truck is in the driveway.
The customer takes out her money.
The octopus swims by.

Tasks to be done

- 1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme*
- 2. Prepare the slide presentation for this theme*

Семінар 12. THE ARTICLE

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про феномен артикля в сучасній англійській мові

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Three articles: a, an, and the
2. Using Articles
3. Indefinite Articles: a and an
4. Definite Article: the
5. Geographical use of the
6. Omission of Articles

Key words: dialects, lexical differences, British and American variants, the British Isles, dialectal words, the national literary language.

Recommended Reading

Соловійова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. – Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. – 232 с.

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Brinton, Laurel J. & Donna M. Brinton. 2010. The linguistic structure of Modern English, 2nd edn. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Hopper, Paul J. 1999. A short course in grammar. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Huddleston, Rodney. 1984. Introduction to the grammar of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Questions for self-control

What is an article?

Why basically, an article is an adjective?

Why we call the the *definite* article and a/an the *indefinite* article?

Realization of the plan

In English there are three articles: **a, an, and the**. Articles are used before nouns or noun equivalents and are a type of adjective. The definite article (the) is used before a noun to indicate that the identity of the noun is known to the reader.

Using Articles

What is an article? Basically, an article is an adjective. Like adjectives, articles modify nouns.

English has two articles: the and a/an. The is used to refer to specific or particular nouns; a/an is used to modify non-specific or non-particular nouns. We call the the *definite* article and a/an the *indefinite* article.

the = definite article

a/an = indefinite article

For example, if I say, "Let's read the book," I mean a *specific* book. If I say, "Let's read a book," I mean *any* book rather than a specific book.

Here's another way to explain it: The is used to refer to a *specific* or *particular* member of a group. For example, "I just saw the most popular movie of the year." There are many movies, but only one particular movie is the most popular. Therefore, we use the.

"A/an" is used to refer to a *non-specific* or *non-particular* member of the group. For example, "I would like to go see a movie." Here, we're not talking about a *specific* movie. We're talking about *any* movie. There are many movies, and I want to see *any* movie. I don't have a specific one in mind.

Let's look at each kind of article a little more closely.

Indefinite Articles: a and an

"A" and "an" signal that the noun modified is indefinite, referring to *any* member of a group. For example:

- "My daughter really wants a dog for Christmas." This refers to *any* dog. We don't know which dog because we haven't found the dog yet.

- "Somebody call a policeman!" This refers to *any* policeman. We don't need a specific policeman; we need any policeman who is available.

- "When I was at the zoo, I saw an elephant!" Here, we're talking about a single, non-specific thing, in this case an elephant. There are probably several elephants at the zoo, but there's only *one* we're talking about here.

Remember, using a or an depends on the sound that begins the next word. So...

- a + singular noun beginning with a consonant: *a boy; a car; a bike; a zoo; a dog*
- an + singular noun beginning with a vowel: *an elephant; an egg; an apple; an idiot; an orphan*
- a + singular noun beginning with a consonant sound: *a user* (sounds like 'yoo-zer,' i.e. begins with a consonant 'y' sound, so 'a' is used); *a university; a unicycle*
- an + nouns starting with silent "h": *an hour*
- a + nouns starting with a pronounced "h": *a horse*
- In some cases where "h" is pronounced, such as "historical," you can use **an**.

However, **a** is more commonly used and preferred.

A historical event is worth recording.

Remember that these rules also apply when you use acronyms:

Introductory Composition at Purdue (ICaP) handles first-year writing at the University. Therefore, an ICaP memo generally discusses issues concerning English 106 instructors.

Another case where this rule applies is when acronyms or initialisms start with consonant letters but have vowel sounds:

An MSDS (material safety data sheet) was used to record the data. An SPCC plan (Spill Prevention Control and Countermeasures plan) will help us prepare for the worst.

If the noun is modified by an adjective, the choice between a and an depends on the initial sound of the adjective that immediately follows the article:

- a broken egg
- an unusual problem
- a European country (sounds like 'yer-o-pi-an,' i.e. begins with consonant 'y' sound)

Remember, too, that in English, the indefinite articles are used to indicate membership in a group:

- I am a teacher. (I am a member of a large group known as teachers.)
- Brian is an Irishman. (Brian is a member of the people known as Irish.)
- Seiko is a practicing Buddhist. (Seiko is a member of the group of people known as Buddhists.)

Definite Article: the

The definite article is used before singular and plural nouns when the noun is specific or particular. The signals that the noun is definite, that it refers to a particular member of a group. For example:

"The dog that bit me ran away." Here, we're talking about a *specific* dog, the dog that bit me.

"I was happy to see the policeman who saved my cat!" Here, we're talking about a *particular* policeman. Even if we don't know the policeman's name, it's still a particular policeman because it is the one who saved the cat.

"I saw the elephant at the zoo." Here, we're talking about a *specific* noun. Probably there is only one elephant at the zoo.

Count and Noncount Nouns

The can be used with noncount nouns, or the article can be omitted entirely.

- "I love to sail over the water" (some specific body of water) or "I love to sail over water" (any water).
- "He spilled the milk all over the floor" (some specific milk, perhaps the milk you bought earlier that day) or "He spilled milk all over the floor" (any milk).

"A/an" can be used only with count nouns.

- "I need a bottle of water."
- "I need a new glass of milk."

Most of the time, you can't say, "She wants a water," unless you're implying, say, a bottle of water.

Geographical use of the

There are some specific rules for using the with geographical nouns.

Do not use the before:

- names of most countries/territories: *Italy, Mexico, Bolivia*; however, *the Netherlands, the Dominican Republic, the Philippines, the United States*
- names of cities, towns, or states: *Seoul, Manitoba, Miami*
- names of streets: *Washington Blvd., Main St.*
- names of lakes and bays: *Lake Titicaca, Lake Erie* except with a group of lakes like *the Great Lakes*
- names of mountains: *Mount Everest, Mount Fuji* except with ranges of mountains like *the Andes* or *the Rockies* or unusual names like *the Matterhorn*
- names of continents (Asia, Europe)
- names of islands (Easter Island, Maui, Key West) except with island chains like the Aleutians, the Hebrides, or the Canary Islands

Do use the before:

- names of rivers, oceans and seas: *the Nile, the Pacific*
- points on the globe: *the Equator, the North Pole*
- geographical areas: *the Middle East, the West*
- deserts, forests, gulfs, and peninsulas: *the Sahara, the Persian Gulf, the Black Forest, the Iberian Peninsula*

Omission of Articles

Some common types of nouns that don't take an article are:

- Names of languages and nationalities: *Chinese, English, Spanish, Russian* (unless you are referring to the population of the nation: "**The** Spanish are known for their warm hospitality.")
- Names of sports: *volleyball, hockey, baseball*
- Names of academic subjects: *mathematics, biology, history, computer science*

Tasks to be done

1. *Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme*
2. *Prepare the slide presentation for this theme*

Семінар 13.

THE ADJECTIVE. THE ADVERB. THE VERB.

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про прикметник. прислівник. дієслово як частини англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. An adjective
2. Adjective forms
3. An adverb
4. Examples of adverb in a sentence
5. A verb
6. How to recognize a verb

Key words: action verbs, transitive verbs, intransitive verbs, auxiliary verbs, stative verbs, modal verbs, phrasal verbs

Recommended Reading

Соловйова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. – Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. – 232 с.

Довідник словотвірних елементів англійської мови / уклад. О. В. Вознюк. – Житомир : ЖВІРЕ, 2003. – 96 с.

Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. – 499 p.

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Hopper, Paul J. 1999. A short course in grammar. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Huddleston, Rodney. 1984. Introduction to the grammar of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Questions for self-control

What is an adjective?

What are adjective forms?

What is an adverb?

Give examples of adverbs in a sentence/

What is a verb?

How to recognize a verb?

Realization of the plan

WHAT IS AN ADJECTIVE?

adjective (noun): a part-of-speech that modifies or describes a noun or a pronoun

An adjective is one of the nine parts of speech.

An *adjective* is a word that tells us more about a *noun*. It "describes" or "modifies" a *noun* (The **big** dog was **hungry**). In these examples, the adjective is in **bold** and the noun that it modifies is in *italics*.

An adjective often comes BEFORE a noun:

- a **green** *car*
- a **dark** *sky*
- an **interesting** *story*

And sometimes an adjective comes AFTER a verb:

- My *car* is **green**.
- The *sky* became **dark**.
- His *story* seemed **interesting**.

But adjectives can also modify *pronouns* (*She* is **beautiful**). Look at these examples:

- *They* were **empty**.
- I thought *it* seemed **strange**.
- *Those* are not **expensive**.

Note that we can often use two or more adjectives together (a **beautiful young French** *lady* / *it* is **black and white**).

The adjective is the enemy of the noun

This is sometimes said because, very often, if we use the precise noun we don't need an adjective. For example, instead of saying "a large, impressive house" (2 adjectives + 1 noun) we could simply say "a mansion" (1 noun).

Adjective Form

Some adjectives have particular endings, for example:

- -able/-ible: *washable, credible*
- -ish/-like: *childish, childlike*
- -ful/-less: *careful, careless*
- -ous: *dangerous, harmonious*
- -y: *dirty, pretty*

However, many adjectives have no obvious form.

Comparative, Superlative

Most adjectives can be comparative or superlative, for example:

- *big, bigger, biggest*
- *good, better, best*
- *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful*

Definition of *adverb*

: a word belonging to one of the major form classes in any of numerous languages, typically serving as a modifier of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a preposition, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence, expressing some relation of manner or quality, place, time, degree, number, cause, opposition, affirmation, or denial, and in English also serving to connect and to express comment on clause content In "arrived early" the word "early" is an adverb.

WHAT IS AN ADVERB?

Adverbs are words that usually modify—that is, they limit or restrict the meaning of — verb. They may also modify adjectives, other adverbs, phrases, or even entire sentences.

An adverb answers the question *when?*, *where?*, *how?*, *how much?*, *how long?*, or *how often?*:

The elections are coming *soon*.

They only shopped *locally*.

They are *happily* married.

The roads are *very* steep.

He stopped by *briefly* to say hello.

My daughter calls me *regularly*.

Most adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective. If the adjective already ends in *-y*, the *-y* usually changes to *-i*.

bold / boldly

solid / solidly

interesting / interestingly

heavy / heavily

unnecessary / unnecessarily

There are, however, many common adverbs that do not end in *-ly*, such as *again, also, just, never, often, soon, today, too, very, and well*.

There are a few different kinds of adverbs. The words *when, where, why, and how* are called **interrogative adverbs** when they begin a question.

When did the event occur?

Where is the proof?

Why was he so late?

How did they get here?

The **relative adverbs**—*where, when, and why* (*how* is sometimes included as well)—introduce **subordinate clauses** (also called *dependent clauses*), which are clauses that do not form simple sentences by themselves.

This is the house *where* I grew up.

They go to bed *when* they want to.

She wondered *why* the door was open.

When an adverb modifies a whole sentence or clause, it is called a **sentence adverb**. Words such as *fortunately*, *frankly*, *hopefully*, and *luckily* are generally used as sentence adverbs and usually express the speaker's feelings about the content of the sentence. Such adverbs normally come at the beginning of a sentence, but may also come in the middle or at the end.

Unfortunately, Friday will be cloudy.

Friday, *unfortunately*, will be cloudy.

Friday will be cloudy, *unfortunately*.

Examples of adverb in a Sentence

Noun In “arrived early,” “runs slowly,” “stayed home,” and “works hard” the words “early,” “slowly,” “home,” and “hard” are *adverbs*.

Recent Examples on the Web: Noun Adjectives and *adverbs* were as precious to her as cashmere and silk. — *The Economist*, 6 July 2019 What if every college football school trademarked an appropriate conjunction, preposition, *adverb*, pronoun or interjection of three letters or shorter? — Mike Finger, *ExpressNews.com*, 15 Aug. 2019 The next morning, Archie makes quick work of moving hay bales shirtlessly (Is that an *adverb*?)

WHAT IS A VERB?

Verbs are the action words in a sentence that describe what the subject is doing. Along with nouns, verbs are the main part of a sentence or phrase, telling a story about what is taking place. In fact, without a verb, full thoughts can't be properly conveyed, and even the simplest sentences, such as *Maria **sings***, have one. Actually, a verb can be a sentence by itself, with the subject, in most case you, implied, such as, ***Sing!*** and ***Drive!***

When learning the rules of grammar, schoolchildren are often taught that verbs are ‘doing’ words, meaning they signify the part of the sentence which explains the action taking place: *He **ran** away, she **eats** chocolate cake on Sundays, the horses **gallop** across the fields. **Ran**, **eats** and **gallop** are the ‘action’ parts of those sentences, thus they are the verbs. However, it can be confusing because not all verbs are easily identifiable as action: *I **know** your name, Jack **thought** about it, we **considered** several applications*. These are non-action verbs, i.e. those that describe a state of being, emotion, possession, sense or opinion. Other non-action verbs include include **love**, **agree**, **feel**, **am**, and **have**.*

How to Recognize a Verb

As you can see from the examples above, one clue to help you recognize a verb is its location compared to the subject. Verbs almost always come after a noun or pronoun. These nouns and pronouns are referred to as the subject. The verb **thought** comes after the noun Jack, so the action Jack (subject) was taking was **thinking** (verb).

1. Mark **eats** his dinner quickly.
2. We **went** to the market.
3. You **write** neatly in your notebook.
4. They **thought** about all the prizes in the competition.

Here are some other ways to recognize verbs in a sentence:

1. If you're not sure if a word is a verb, ask yourself, “Can I do _____?”

Can I think, wonder, walk, yawn? Yes, so these are verbs.

2. You can also ask, “What is happening?”

In the sentence *Mark eats his dinner quickly*, what is happening? Eating is happening, so eating is the verb.

In the sentence *They thought about all the prizes* what is happening? Thought (thinking) is happening, so thought is the verb.

Physical Verbs – Definition and Examples

Physical verbs are action verbs. They describe specific physical actions. If you can create a motion with your body or use a tool to complete an action, the word you use to describe it is most likely a physical verb. For example, *Joe **sat** in his chair, the dog **breathes** quickly after she **chases***

her ball, and *should we **vote** in the election?* Even when the action isn't very active, if the action is done by the body or a tool, consider it a physical verb.

Physical Verb Examples

The physical verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- Let's **run** to the corner and back.
- I **hear** the train coming.
- **Call** me when you're finished with class.

Mental Verbs – Definition and Examples

Mental verbs have meanings that are related to concepts such as discovering, understanding, thinking, or planning. In general, a mental verb refers to a cognitive state.

Mental Verb – Definition and Examples

Mental verbs have meanings that are related to concepts such as discovering, understanding, thinking, or planning. In general, a mental verb refers to a cognitive state.

Mental Verb Examples

The mental verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- I **know** the answer.
- She **recognized** me from across the room.
- Do you **believe** everything people tell you?

States of Being Verbs – Definition and Examples

Also known as linking verbs, state of being verbs describe conditions or situations that exist. State of being verbs are inactive since no action is being performed. These verbs, forms of to **be**, such as **am**, **is**, **are**, are usually complemented by adjectives.

States of Being Verb Examples

The state of being verbs in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- I **am** a student.
- We **are** circus performers.
- Please **is** quiet.

Types of Verbs

There are many types of verbs. In addition to the main categories of physical verbs, mental verbs, and state of being verbs, there are several other types of verbs. In fact, there are more than ten different types of verbs that are grouped together by function.

List of all Verb Types

Action verbs

Action verbs express specific actions and are used any time you want to show action or discuss someone doing something. It's important to remember that the action does not have to be physical.

Action verb examples:

1. Run
2. Dance
3. Slide
4. Jump
5. Think
6. Do
7. Go
8. Stand
9. Smile
10. Listen.

The action verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

I **run** faster than David.

He **does** it well.

She **thinks** about poetry all day long

Transitive verbs

Transitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities that relate or affect someone or something else. These other things are generally direct objects, nouns or pronouns that are affected by the verb, though some verbs can also take an indirect object, such as show, take, and make. In a sentence with a transitive verb, someone or something receives the action of the verb.

Transitive verb examples:

1. Love
2. Respect
3. Tolerate
4. Believe
5. Maintain.

The transitive verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Gary **ate** the cookies.

The transitive verb is *ate*, Gary is the subject, because it is Gary who is doing the eating, and *the cookies* are the direct object, because it is the cookies that are being eaten. Other examples:

He **kicked** John.

John **punches** him.

They **sold** the tickets.

Examples of verbs used with both direct and indirect objects:

They **sell** him the tickets.

In this sentence, *the tickets* are the direct object while *him* is the indirect object.

Mary **baked** her mother a pie.

In this sentence, *a pie* is the direct object while *her mother* is the indirect object.

Intransitive verbs

Intransitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities. They are different from transitive verbs because there is no direct object following an intransitive verb.

Intransitive verb examples:

1. Walk
2. Laugh
3. Cough
4. Play
5. Run

The intransitive verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

We **travelled** to London.

The intransitive verb is *travelled*, the subject is *we*, because *we* are doing the travelling, but *London* is not a direct object because London is not receiving the action of the verb. Other examples:

I **sneeze** in the morning.

He **arrived** with moments to spare.

Kathryn **sat** away from the others.

John **eats** before leaving for school.

The last example shows that the verb *eats* can be both transitive and intransitive depending on whether there is a direct object or not. If the sentence read: *John eats the cookies before leaving for school*, *eats* would be transitive as there is a direct object – *the cookies*.

By the way, some verbs can be both transitive and intransitive. These verbs include: start, leave, change, live, stop.

Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs are also known as helping verbs and are used together with a main verb to show the verb's tense or to form a question or negative. Common examples of auxiliary verbs include *have*, *might*, *will*. These auxiliary verbs give some context to the main verb, for example, letting the reader know when the action took place.

Auxiliary verb examples:

1. Would

2. Should
3. Do
4. Can
5. Did
6. Could
7. May

The auxiliary verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

I **will** go home after football practice.

The auxiliary verb **will** is telling us that the action of the main verb *go* is going to take place in the future – *after football practice* has ended. If the auxiliary verb **will** was removed, we get the sentence:

I **go** home after football practice.

In this case, there is no definite time frame for the action. The sentence suggests that going home after football practice is just something the subject *I generally* does. Other examples:

I **may** dance with you later.

We **did** consider Bryan's feelings.

Jenny **has** spoken her final words.

In addition, we can sometimes use the auxiliary very before the pronoun to make a question:

Might you dance with me later?

Did we consider Bryan's feelings?

Has Jenny spoken her final words?

Also, auxiliary verbs are used to help form negative statements, with the use of words like *not* and *never*. These will usually split the auxiliary and main verbs:

I **may** never dance with you again.

We **did** not consider Bryan's feelings.

Jenny **has** not spoken her final words.

Stative verbs

Stative verbs can be recognized because they express a state rather than an action. They typically relate to thoughts, emotions, relationships, senses, states of being, and measurements. The best way to think about stative verbs is that they are verbs that describe things that are not actions. The stative verbs are all expressing a state: A state of doubting, a state of believing, a state of wanting. These states of being are often temporary.

The stative verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

The doctor **disagrees** with your analysis.

Disagree is a stative verb here, as it describes the doctor's state of being – disagreement.

John **doubts** the doctor's opinion.

I **believe** the doctor is right.

She **wanted** another opinion.

Modal verbs

Modal verbs are auxiliary verbs that are used to express abilities, possibilities, permissions, and obligations.

Modal verb examples:

1. Can
2. Must
3. May
4. Should
5. Would

The modal verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

He **can** shoot a three-point shot easily.

The auxiliary verb *can* is expressing an ability, suggesting that shooting a three-point shot is a skill the subject possesses.

Please note that in the case of *should* and *must* in the examples below, the modal verbs are expressing obligations, whereas *would* and *may* are expressing possibilities.

I **should** go home.

You **must** not delay.

Sally **would** not recommend the sushi.

David **may** be late.

Phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs aren't single words; instead, they are combinations of words that are used together to take on a different meaning to that of the original verb. There are many examples of phrasal verbs, some of which have colloquial meanings, such as *make up*, *hand in*, *bring up*, *point out*, *look forward to*. Each time the verb takes the extra word(s) it takes on a new meaning. For example, *make* without the *up* expresses that something is being created, whereas with *make up*, the suggestion is that there are some lies or a fantastical element to the story and *make out* can mean either to grasp or see something difficult, or to kiss passionately.

Phrasal verb examples:

1. Run out
2. Go all out
3. Make out
4. Hand out
5. Bring out
6. Face up
7. Think through

The phrasal verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Mary **looked forward to** her high school reunion.

The verb *looked* has taken on *forward to* to become a phrasal verb meaning to be excited about or eagerly await something.

He **brought up** the same points again and again.

Leroy **handed in** the wallet to the police.

I **make up** stories all the time.

She **pointed out** Donald's mistake.

Irregular verbs

Irregular verbs are those that don't take on the regular spelling patterns of past simple and past participle verbs. Unfortunately, there are hundreds of irregular verbs in the English language. But don't worry, while many are used often, the majority are not in common usage – or if they are, you will use them so often you will learn them quickly. Some of the most common irregular verbs include: say, make, go, take, come, know and see.

Irregular verbs:

bet	bet	bet	тримати пари	stand	stood	stood	стояти	
burst	burst	burst	лопатись	understand	understood	understood	розуміти	
cost	cost	cost	коштувати	can	could	could	могти	
cut	cut	cut	різати					
hit	hit	hit	ударяти	freeze	froze	frozen	морозити	
hurt	hurt	hurt	заподіювати біль	speak	spoke	spoken	розмовляти	
let	let	let	дозволяти	steal	stole	stolen	красти	
put	put	put	класти, покласти	weave	wove	woven	ткати	
shut	shut	shut	закривати	break	broke	broken	ламати	
spread	spread	spread	розгортатися	wake	woke	woken	просипатися	
split	split	split	розколювати	forget	forgot	forgotten	забувати	
slit	slit	slit	розрізувати	draw	drew	drawn	малювати	
set	set	set	встановлювати	blow	blew	blown	дути	
upset	upset	upset	перекидати	grow	grew	grown	рости	
build	built	built	будувати	know	knew	known	знати	
				throw	threw	thrown	кидати	
begin	began	begun	починати	fly	flew	flown	літати	
drink	drank	drunk	пити	bind	bound	bound	з'ясувати	
ring	rang	rung	дзвонити	find	found	found	знаходити	
shrink	shrank	shrunk	скорочувати	grind	ground	ground	молоти	
sing	sang	sung	співати	wind	wound	wound	витися	
sink	sank	sunk	тонутися	light	lit	lit	світити	
spring	sprang	sprung	стрибати	slide	slid	slid	сковзати	
stink	stank	stunk	смердіти	forbid	forbade	forbidden	забороняти	
swim	swam	swum	плавати	give	gave	given	давати	
drink	drank	drunk	пити	forgive	forgave	forgiven	прощати	
dig	dug	dug	копати	shake	shook	shaken	трясти	
fling	flung	flung	кидати	take	took	taken	брати	
spin	spun	spun	прясти	sell	sold	sold	продавати	
stick	stuck	stuck	устромляти	tell	told	told	говорити	
sting	stung	stung	жалити	shine	shone	shone	світити	
swing	swung	swung	качати (ся)	fight	fought	fought	битися	
win	won	won	перемогати	shoot	shot	shot	стріляти	
wring	wrung	wrung	скручувати	buy	bought	bought	купувати	
hang	hung	hung	висіти	lose	lost	lost	утрачати	
hang	hanged	hanged	висіяти	bring	brought	brought	нести	
strike	struck	struck	ударяти	think	thought	thought	думати	
bleed	bled	bled	кровоточити	teach	taught	taught	учити	
breed	bred	bred	розводити	catch	caught	caught	ловити	
feed	fed	fed	годувати	get	got	got	одержувати	
lead	led	led	вести	drive	drove	driven	вести, їхати	
meet	met	met	зустрічати	ride	rode	ridden	їхати, верхи	
read	read	read	читати	rise	rose	risen	підніматися, уставати	
speed	sped	sped	поспішати	write	wrote	written	писати	
creep	crept	crept	повзти	fall	fell	fallen	падати	
keep	kept	kept	тримати	swell	swelled	swollen	дути	
sweep	swept	swept	мести	choose	chose	chosen	вибирати	
sleep	slept	slept	спати	swear	swore	sworn	клястися	
weep	wept	wept	плакати	tear	tore	torn	рвати	
leave	left	left	залишати	bite	bit	bitten	кусати (ся)	
flee	fled	fled	тікати	hide	hid	hidden	ховати (ся)	
deal	dealt	dealt	мати справу	eat	ate	eaten	їсти	
feel	felt	felt	почувати	see	saw	seen	бачити	
kneel	knelt	knelt	схилияти коліна	be	was/were	been	бути	
lean	leant	leant	нахилиятися	lie	lay	lain	лежати	
mean	meant	meant	значити	lay	laid	laid	класти	
dream	dreamt	dreamt	бачити сни, мріяти	do	did	done	робити	
	dreamed	dreamed		go	went	gone	йти	
leap	leapt	leapt	стрибати	may	might	might	мати можливість	
	leaped	leaped						
sit	sat	sat	сидіти					
spit	spat	spat	плювати					
hold	held	held	тримати					
hear	heard	heard	чути					
say	said	said	сказати					
make	made	made	робити					

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the realization of the plan

2. Prepare the slide presentation for this theme

Семінар 14

THE NUMERAL. THE PRONOUN

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про числівник та займенник англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Cardinals (cardinal numerals) and ordinals (ordinal numerals).
2. The functions of cardinal numerals in a sentence
3. The functions of ordinal numerals in a sentence.
4. The Classification of pronouns

Key words: dialects, lexical differences, British and American variants, the British Isles, dialectal words, the national literary language.

Recommended Reading

Соловійова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. – Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. – 232 с.

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Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. – 499 p.

Brinton, Laurel J. & Donna M. Brinton. 2010. The linguistic structure of Modern English, 2nd edn. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Hopper, Paul J. 1999. A short course in grammar. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Huddleston, Rodney. 1984. Introduction to the grammar of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Questions for self-control

1. What is the difference between the cardinal numerals) and ordinal numerals?
2. What is the functions of cardinal numerals in a sentence, I wonder?
3. Outline the functions of ordinal numerals in a sentence.
4. Give the classification of pronouns.

Realization of the plan

THE NUMERAL

The numeral is a part of speech, which indicates number or the order of persons and things in a series. Accordingly numerals are divided into **cardinals** (cardinal numerals) and **ordinals** (ordinal numerals).

Cardinal numerals.

Cardinal numerals indicate exact number; they are used in counting. As to their structure, the cardinal numerals from 1 to 12 and 100, 1000, 1,000,000 are simple words (*one, two, three, etc., hundred, thousand, million*); those from 13 to 19 are derivatives with the suffix *-teen* (*thirteen, fourteen, etc.*); the cardinal numerals indicating tens are formed by means of the suffix *-ty* (*twenty, thirty, etc.*). The numerals from 21 to 29, from 31 to 39, etc. are composite: *twenty-two, thirty-five, etc.*

Note 1. *Twenty-two, thirty-five* etc. are spelt with a hyphen.

Note 2. In *two hundred and twenty-three, four hundred and sixteen* etc. there must be the word *and* after the word *hundred*.

Such cardinal numerals as *hundred, thousand, million* may be used with articles (*a hundred, a thousand, a million*), they may be substantivized and used in the plural (*hundreds, thousands, millions*). When used after other numerals they do not take *-s* (*two hundred times, thirty thousand years* etc.). The word *million* may be used with or without *-s* (*two million, two millions*). When the word *million* is followed by some other cardinal numeral only the first variant is possible: *two million five hundred inhabitants*.

The functions of cardinal numerals in a sentence.

Cardinal numerals are used in the function of subject, predicative, object, adverbial modifier and attribute (apposition).

... the young man opposite had long since disappeared. Now the other **two** got out. (*Mansfield*)
(SUBJECT)

Earle Fox was only **fifty-four**, bill he felt timeless and ancient. (*Wilson*) (PREDICATIVE)

And again she saw them, but not **four**, more like **forty** laughing, sneering, jeering... (*Mansfield*) (OBJECT)

At eight the gang sounded for supper. (*Mansfield*) (ADVERBIAL MODIFIER)

Four men in their shirtsleeves stood grouped together on the garden path. (*Mansfield*) (ATTRIBUTE)

And he remembered the holidays they used to have the **four** of them, with a little girl, Rose, to look after the babies. (*Mansfield*) (APPOSITION)

Cardinals are sometimes used to denote the place of an object in a series. Cardinals are used in reading indications: *line 23, page 275, Chapter X, No. 49* etc.

... but from the corner of the street until she came to **No. 26** she thought of those four flights of stairs. (*Mansfield*)

Class nouns modified by a numeral in post-position are used without articles.

All he wanted was to be made to care again, but each night he took up his briefcase and walked home to dinner at 117th Street and Riverside Drive, **apartment 12D**. (*Wilson*)

Ordinal numerals.

Ordinal numerals show the order of persons and things in a series.

With the exception of the first three (*first, second, third*) the ordinal numerals are formed from cardinal numerals by means of the suffix *-th*.

In ordinal groups only the last member of the group takes the ordinal form: (*the*) *sixty-fifth*, (*the*) *twenty-third*. Ordinal numerals are generally used with the definite article (*the first, the fifth, the tenth* etc.). Ordinal numerals may be used with the indefinite article when they do not show a definite order of persons and things in a series:

"I've torn simply miles and miles of the frill," wailed **a third**. (*Mansfield*)

The functions of ordinal numerals in a sentence.

As a rule ordinal numerals are used as attributes.

"No, this is my **first** dance," she said. (*Mansfield*)

Almost immediately the band started and her **second** partner seemed to spring from the ceiling. (*Mansfield*)

But they may also be used as subject, as predicative and as object.

Then, advancing obliquely towards us came **a fifth**. (*Wells*) (SUBJECT)

Sooner or later, someone is going to tell you about that damned river, so I might as well be **the first**. (*Wilson*) (PREDICATIVE)

... she noted a scar on his cheek, another that peeped out from under the hair of the forehead, and **a third** that ran down and disappeared under the starched collar. (*London*) (OBJECT)

In fractional numbers the numerator is a cardinal and the denominator is a substantivized ordinal: *two-thirds, three-sixths*.

Decimal fractions are read in the following way: 7.58—*seven point (decimal) five eight*.

THE PRONOUN

The pronoun is a part of speech, which points out objects and their qualities without naming or describing them.

The Classification of pronouns.

Pronouns fall under the following groups:

(1) **Personal** pronouns: *he, she, it, I, we, you, and they*.

(2) **Possessive** pronouns: *my, his, her, its, our, your, their, mine, his, hers, our's, yours, theirs*.

(3) **Reflexive** pronouns: *myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourself (yourselves) and themselves*.

(4) **Reciprocal** pronouns: *each other, one another*.

(5) **Demonstrative** pronouns: *this (these), that (those), such, (the) same*.

(6) **Interrogative** pronouns: *who, whose, what, which*.

(7) **Relative** pronouns: *who, whose, which, that, as*.

(8) **Conjunctive** pronouns: *who, whose, which, what*.

(9) **Defining** pronouns: *each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, all, either, both, other, another*.

(10) **Indefinite** pronouns: *some, any, somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, anyone, one*.

(11) **Negative** pronouns: *no, none, neither, nobody, no one, nothing*.

There is no uniformity of morphological and syntactical characteristics in the groups of pronouns. Some pronouns have the grammatical categories of **person, gender, case** and **number**. The categories of person and gender (in the third person singular) exist only in personal and possessive pronouns.

Pronouns as well as nouns have two cases but whereas some pronouns (e.g., personal pronouns and

the relative and interrogative *who*) have the nominative and objective cases, others (e. g. indefinite pronouns such as *somebody*, reciprocal pronouns such as *one another*, negative pronouns such as *nobody*) have the common and genitive cases.

The category of number is found in demonstrative pronouns (*this* and *that*) and the defining pronoun *other*.

Many pronouns are characterized by double syntactical use (they may be used as subject, predicative, object, and at the same time as attribute). Here belong demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns etc.

Personal pronouns.

1. The personal pronouns are *I, he, she, it, we, you, and they*. The personal pronouns have the grammatical categories of person, case, number and (in the third person singular) gender.

The personal pronouns have **two cases**: the **nominative** case and the **objective** case. The nominative case: *I, he, she, it, we, you, they*. The objective case: *me, him, her, it, us, you, them*. The objective case of the pronouns *I, he, she, we* is expressed by suppletive forms.

In colloquial speech *me*, not *I* is commonly used as a predicative:

Who is there? — It is me.

The personal pronouns have two numbers, singular (*I, he, she, it*) and plural (*we, they*).

The second-person pronoun *you* is both singular and plural.

The pronouns of the third person *he, she, it* distinguish gender. Male beings (*man, father, uncle, boy* etc.) are referred to as *he*; female beings (*woman, mother, aunt, girl* etc.) are referred to as *she*; inanimate things (*house, tree, cap* etc.) are referred to as *it*.

Her **husband** asked a few questions and sat down to read the evening paper. He was a silent man... (*Dreiser*)

And then he turned and saw the **girl**... She was a pale, ethereal creature, with wide, spiritual eyes and a wealth of golden hair. (*London*)

He did not know what to do with his **cap**, and was stuffing it into his coat pocket... (*London*.)

As some nouns denote animate beings of either sex, masculine or feminine (*friend, teacher, servant, cousin* etc.), personal pronouns are often used to specify them:

"Tell your **servant** that **he** must not use such words to Hendrike, Mr. Allan," Stella said to me. (*Haggard*)

2. Personal pronouns may have different functions in the sentence, those of subject, object, and predicative:

I am not free to resume the interrupted chain of my reflections till bedtime... (*Ch. Bronte*) (SUBJECT)

He arranged to meet **her** at the 96th Street station... (*Wilson*) (OBJECT)

"Who's there?" "It's **me**." "Who's me?" "George Jackson, sir." (*Twain*) (PREDICATIVE)

But I think that was **him** I spoke to. (*Cronin*) (PREDICATIVE)

Possessive pronouns.

1. Possessive pronouns have the same distinctions of **person, number** and **gender** as personal pronouns.

2. Possessive pronouns have two forms, namely the **dependent (or conjoint)** form and the **independent (or absolute)** form.

Conjoint forms of possessive pronouns

	1st person	2nd person	3rd person
SINGULAR	my		his, her, its,
		your	
PLURAL	our		their

Absolute forms of possessive pronouns

SINGULAR	mine	his, hers
		yours
PLURAL	ours	theirs

The **conjoint** form is used when the possessive pronoun comes before the noun it modifies. The conjoint form of the possessive pronoun is used as an attribute.

In his turn old Jolyon looked back at **his** son. (*Galsworthy*)

The **absolute** form is used when the possessive pronoun does not modify any noun.

The absolute form of the possessive pronoun may be used as subject, predicative or object. The group “preposition + absolute form” may be used as an attribute.

"**Yours** (sum of money) won't come short of a hundred thousand, my boy," said old Jolyon. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

When he turned round again he saw Fleur standing near the door holding a handkerchief, which the boy had evidently just handed to her. "F.F.", he heard her say. "Fleur Forsyte—it's **mine** all right. Thank you ever so." (*Galsworthy*) (PREDICATIVE)

... he realized that she was making an effort to talk his talk, and he resolved to get away from it and talk **hers**. (*London*) (OBJECT)

... and while she rattled on, he strove to follow her, marveling at all the knowledge that was stowed away in that pretty head of **hers** ... (*London*) (ATTRIBUTE)

3. Possessive pronouns are often used before the names of the parts of the body, clothing, things belonging to a person, etc. In that case they are not translated into Russian.

Young Jolyon rose and held out **his** hand to help **his** father up.

Молодой Джолион поднялся и протянул руку, чтобы помочь отцу встать.

The girl dropped **her** handkerchief and he picked it up. (*Galsworthy*)

Девушка уронила платок, а он поднял его.

Reflexive pronouns.

1. Reflexive pronouns have the categories of **person**, **number**, and **gender** in the third person singular.

	1st person	2nd person	3rd person
SINGULAR:	myself	yourself	himself, herself, itself
PLURAL:	ourselves	yourselves	themselves

2. Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence in which they are used, indicating that the action performed by the doer passes back to him or is associated with him. In the sentence they are usually used as direct objects.

In that moment of emotion he betrayed the Forsyte in him—forgot **himself**, his interests, his property—was capable of almost anything... (*Galsworthy*) (OBJECT)

Reflexive pronouns may be used as predicatives.

When she came back she was **herself** again. (*Hardy*) (PREDICATIVE)

Reflexive pronouns preceded by a preposition may be used as indirect prepositional objects, as attributes and as adverbial modifiers.

He could not see that it would be better to make her feel that she was competing **with herself**... (*Dreiser*) (PREPOSITIONAL INDIRECT OBJECT)

"I fancied you looked a little downcast when you came in," she ventured to observe, anxious to keep away from the subject **of herself**. (*Hardy*) (ATTRIBUTE)

If June did not like this, she could have an allowance and live **by herself**. (*Galsworthy*) (ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF MANNER)

Reflexive pronouns may be used to form the reflexive voice (in this case reflexive pronouns are structural words):

Undressing again, she washed **herself** intensively... (*Galsworthy*)

And then I dressed **myself** and came away to find you. (*Hardy*)

Sometimes reflexive pronouns are used emphatically:

Moreover, Soames **himself** disliked the thought of that. (*Galsworthy*)

She was never idle it seemed to him, and he envied her now that he **himself** was idle nearly all his time. (*Galsworthy*)

Reciprocal pronouns.

1. Reciprocal pronouns are the group-pronouns *each other* and *one another*. They express mutual action or relation. The subject to which they refer must always be in the plural.

"I didn't really know him," he thought, "and he didn't know me; but we loved **each other**." (*Galsworthy*)

We haven't set eyes on **one another** for years. (*Priestly*)

Each other generally implies only two, *one another* two or more than two persons:

He had never heard his father or his mother speak in an angry voice, either to **each other**, himself, or

anybody else. (*Galsworthy*)

Seated in a row close to **one another** were three ladies—Aunts Ann, Hester (the two Forsyte maids) and Julie (short for Julia)... (*Galsworthy*)

It must be mentioned that this distinction, is not always strictly observed:

I should have been surprised if those two could have thought very highly of **one another**. (*Dickens*)

2. Reciprocal pronouns have two case forms.

Girls banged into **each other** and stamped on **each other's** feet. (*Mansfield*)

The **common case** of reciprocal pronouns is used as an object.

The men were not grave and dignified. They lost their tempers easily and called **one another** names... (*London*)

Elizabeth and George talked and found **each other** delightful. (*Aldington*)

The **genitive case** of reciprocal pronouns may be used as an attribute.

At first it struck me that I might live by selling my works to the ten per cent who were like myself; but a moment's reflection showed me that these must all be as penniless as I, and that we could not live by, so to speak, taking in **one another's** washing. (*Shaw*)

Not until moon and stars faded away and streaks of daylight began to appear, did Meitje Brinker and Hans look hopelessly into **each other's** face. (*Dodge*)

Reciprocal pronouns preceded by a preposition are used as a prepositional indirect object:

They look **at one another** for a moment. (*Dickens*)

...in silence they stared **at each other**. (*Saxton*)

Demonstrative pronouns.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are *this, that, such, (the) same*.

The demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that** have two numbers *this—these; that—those*.

This is used to point at what is nearer in time or space; **that** points at what is farther away in time or space.

He looked him over critically. "Yes, **this** boy might do," he thought. (*Dreiser*)

"I like **that** fellow," Henry Waterman confided to his brother the moment Frank had gone with instructions to report the following morning. (*Dreiser*)

This and **that** may be applied both to persons and things.

And **this** girl was French, not likely to lose her head, or accept any unlegalized position. (*Galsworthy*)

Other people were anxious to get **this** soap at **this** price. (*Dreiser*)

What do you think of **that** Belgian fellow, Profond? (*Galsworthy*)

To Forsyte imagination **that** house was now a sort of Chinese pillbox... (*Galsworthy*)

The pronoun **such**.

She wore a red ribbon in her hair, and was the only one of the white company who could boast of **such** a pronounced adornment. (*Hardy*)

The pronoun **same** is always used with the definite article.

The driver was a young man... wearing a dandy cap, drab jacket, breeches of **the same** hue. (*Hardy*)

2. The demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that** are used as subjects, predicatives, objects and attributes.

It's all right, but I'd rather try my hand at brokerage, I think **that** appeals to me. (*Dreiser*) (SUBJECT)

The only honest people — if they existed — were **those** who said: "This is foul brutality..." (*Aldington*) (PREDICATIVE)

Tell me just how you did **this**. (*Dreiser*) (OBJECT)

"If **that** young fellow wanted a place, I'd give it to him," he thought. (*Dreiser*) (ATTRIBUTE)

The demonstrative pronoun **that (those)** may be used as a word-substitute:

But in thinking of his remaining guest, an expression like **that** of a cat who is just going to purr stole over his (Swithin's) old face.. (*Galsworthy*)

The features (of young Jolyon) were certainly **those** of a Forsyte, but the expression was more the introspective look of a student or philosopher. (*Galsworthy*)

The pronoun **such** is used as subject, predicative, object, and attribute:

If any living man can manage this horse I can: —I won't say any living man can do it— but if **such** has the power, I am here. (*Hardy*) (SUBJECT)

Her idolatry of this man was **such** that she herself almost feared it to be ill omened. (*Hardy*) (PREDICATIVE)

But **such** thoughts and visions did not prevent him from following Professor Caldwell closely. (*London*) (ATTRIBUTE)

The pronoun **(the) same** usually performs the function of an attribute, but it may be used as subject,

predicative, object:

We were in **the same** classes. (*London*) (ATTRIBUTE)

It is to be feared **the same** could not be said of you, were you to be called hence. (*Ch. Bronte*) (SUBJECT)

Martin's Sunday was **the same** as before. (*London*) (PREDICATIVE)

May this young man do **the same!**" said Angel fervently. (*Hardy*) (OBJECT)

Interrogative pronouns.

1. Interrogative pronouns are used in inquiry, to form special questions. They are: *who, whose, what, which*.

The interrogative pronoun **who** has the category of **case**; the nominative case is *who*, the objective case *whom*.

Who refers to human beings?

Slipping her hand under his arm, she said: "**Who** was that?" "He picked up my handkerchief. We talked about pictures." (*Galsworthy*)

What when not attributive usually refers to things but it may be applied to persons when one inquires about their occupation.

"**What** are you looking for, Tess?" the doctor called. "Hairpins," she replied. (*London*) "**What** was he?" "A painter." (*Galsworthy*)

Which has a selective meaning: it corresponds to the Russian "который из" (an individual of the group). It may refer to persons and things.

The boys clasped each other suddenly in an agony of fright. "**Which** of us does he mean?" gasped Huckleberry. (*Twain*)

Which side of the bed do you like, Mum? (*Galsworthy*)

The questions *Who is he? What is he? Which is he?* differ in their meaning. The first question inquires about the name or parentage of some person. The second question inquires about the occupation of the person spoken about. The third question inquires about some particular person out of a definite group of persons.

2. In the sentence interrogative pronouns may have different functions—those of subject, predicative, object and attribute:

Who, do you think, has been to see you, Dad? She couldn't wait! Guess. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

"**What's** been happening, then?" he said sharply. (*Eliot*) (SUBJECT)

"No, **who's** he?" "Oh, he's a Polish Jew." (*Aldington*) (PREDICATIVE)

"**What** are you, Mr. Mont, if I may ask?" "I, sir? I was **going** to be a painter." (*Galsworthy*) (PREDICATIVE)

"**What** was her father?" "Heron was his name, a Professor, so they tell me." (*Galsworthy*) (PREDICATIVE)

"He says he's married," said Winifred. "**Whom to**, for goodness' sake?" (*Galsworthy*) (OBJECT)

"**Who** do you mean?" I said. (*Du Maurier*) (OBJECT)

"**What** did you see in Clensofantrim?" "Nothing but beauty, darling." (*Galsworthy*) (OBJECT)

"**What** sort of a quarrel?" he heard Fleur say. (*Galsworthy*) (ATTRIBUTE)

Whose pain can have been like mine? **Whose** injury is like mine? (*Eliot*) (ATTRIBUTE) **Which** day is it that Dorloote Mill is to be sold? (*Eliot*) (ATTRIBUTE)

Relative pronouns.

1. Relative pronouns (*who, whose, which, that, as*) not only point back to a noun or a pronoun mentioned before but also have conjunctive power. They introduce attributive clauses. The word they refer to is called their antecedent. It may be a noun or a pronoun.

Who is used in reference to human beings or animals.

Jolyon bit his lips; he **who** had always hated rows almost welcomed the thought of one now. (*Galsworthy*)

...in his voice was a strange note of fear that frightened the animal, **who** had never known the man speak in such way before. (*London*)

Whose is mainly used in reference to human beings or animals but it may be applied to things.

Then there was the proud Rychie Korbes, **whose** father, Mynheer van Korbes, was one of the leading men of Amsterdam. (*Dodge*)

Again he (Soames) looked at her (Irene) huddled like a bird that is shot and dying, **whose** poor breast you see panting as the air is taken from it, **whose** poor eyes look at you who have shot it, with a slow, soft, unseeing look... (*Galsworthy*)

... he (superintendent), wore a stiff standing-collar **whose** upper edge almost reached his ears, and **whose** sharp points curved forward abreast the corners of his mouth... (*Twain*)

Which is used in reference to things and animals.

Here was her own style—a bed, **which** did not look like one and many mirrors. (*Galsworthy*).

They strove to steal a dog—the fattest, which was very thin—but I showed my pistol in their faces and told them be gone. (*London*)

That is mainly used in reference to animals and things. It may also be used in reference to human beings.

This... gave him much the same feeling a man has when a dog **that** he owns wriggles and looks at him. (*Galsworthy*)

On one side was a low wall **that** separated it from the street. (*London*)

In the factory quarter, doors were opening everywhere, and he was soon one of a multitude **that** pressed onward through the dark. (*London*)

As usually introduces attributive clauses when the demonstrative pronoun *such* is used in the principal clause (it is a rare case when **as** is used without **such** in the principal clause).

As may refer to living beings and things.

...perhaps the books were right and there were many such **as** she (Ruth) in the upper walks of life. (*London*)

His mother was a poor peasant woman; too poor even to think of such a thing **as** buying skates for her little ones. (*Dodge*)

For nobody's ever heard me say, as it wasn't lucky for my children to have aunts and uncles **as** can live independent. (*Eliot*)

... I went into Snow Park. It wasn't **as** one expects a municipal park to be... (*Braine*)

2. Relative pronouns can also refer to a clause. Relative pronouns always perform some syntactical function in the clause they introduce.

Gemma, there's a man downstairs **who** wants to see you. (*Voynich*)(SUBJECT).

She flashed a look at him **that** was more anger than appeal. (*London*) (SUBJECT)

...then discussion assumed that random volubility **which** softens a decision already forced on one. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

I think I have taken nothing **that** you or your people have given me. (*Galsworthy*) (OBJECT)

Families often think it due to themselves to turn their back on newcomers, **whom** they may not think quite enough for them. (*Shaw*) (OBJECT)

It pleased Denny to exert, the full force of his irony upon the work, **which** they were doing. (*Cronin*) (OBJECT)

Conjunctive pronouns.

1. Conjunctive pronouns (*who, what, whose, which*) not only point back to some person or thing mentioned before but also have conjunctive power, introducing subordinate clauses (subject clauses, object clauses, predicative clauses).

What June had taken for personal interest was only the impersonal excitement of every Forsyte... (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT CLAUSE)

What you want, in fact, is a first-rate man for a fourth-rate fee, and that's exactly **what** you've got! (*Galsworthy*) (PREDICATIVE CLAUSE)

I don't want to hear **what** you've come for. (*Galsworthy*) (OBJECT CLAUSE)

2. In the clause they introduce they perform different functions, those of subject, predicative, attribute and object.

What had made her yield he could never make out; and from Mrs. Heron, a woman of some diplomatic talent, he learnt nothing. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

Erik realized with a sinking sensation that Haviland didn't know **who** he was. (*Wilson*) (PREDICATIVE)

I've spent a lot of time in the chart-room now, and I'm on the edge of knowing my way about, **what** charts I want to refer to, **what** coasts I want to explore. (*London*) (ATTRIBUTE)

What Savina could no longer do for him, he did himself, and brutally brushed aside all other interests except her. (*Wilson*) (OBJECT)

Defining pronouns.

The defining pronouns are: *all, each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, either, both, other, another*.

1. **All** is a generalizing pronoun; it takes a group of things or persons as a whole. **All** may be used as subject, predicative, object, and attribute.

... when **all** is said and done... (*London*) (SUBJECT)

He just loved me, that is **all**. (*London*) (PREDICATIVE)

And Martin forgot **all** about it. (*London*) (OBJECT)

... **if all** the doors are closed... (*London*) (ATTRIBUTE)

2. **Both** points out two persons, things or notions mentioned before.

"But there is more to be said," he continued, after a pause painful to **both**. (*London*)

You can study French, or you can study German, or cut them **both** out and study Esperanto... (*London*)

The pronoun **both** may be used as subject, object and attribute.

Both seemed to implore something to shelter them from reality. (*Hardy*) (SUBJECT)

The light, admitted by windows at **both** ends, was unfortunately not Chinese. (*Galsworthy*) (ATTRIBUTE)

When preceded by a preposition **both** may be used as a prepositional indirect object.

He invariably paid the way for **both**, and it was through him that Martin learned the refinement of food. (*London*)

3. **Each, every, everybody, everyone, everything.**

Each and **every** refer to all the members of the group of persons, things, or notions mentioned before and taken one by one. When used as subject, **each etc.** require a verb in the singular.

Each may be used as subject, object, and attribute.

The train coming in a minute later, the two brothers parted and entered their respective compartments.

Each felt aggrieved that the other had not modified his habits to secure his society a little longer. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

He paid a dollar **each**. (*London*) (OBJECT)

It (a blackbird) started singing as I looked out of the window ending **each** phrase abruptly as if out of breath, a curiously amateur effect. (*Braine*) (ATTRIBUTE)

When preceded by a preposition **each** may be used as a prepositional indirect object:

They began to deal swiftly with the cocoa tins, slipping a stick of dynamite in **each**. (*Cronin*)

Every is used only as an attribute:

This is something more than genius. It is true, **every** line of it. (*London*)

Everybody, everyone refer to all the members of the group of persons mentioned before or taken one by one.

The pronouns **everybody, everyone** have **two cases**: the **common** case and the **genitive** case.

The common case may be used as subject and object.

You walked into the waiting room, into a great buzz of conversation, and there was everybody; you knew almost **everybody**. (*Mansfield*) (SUBJECT, OBJECT)

The genitive case of the pronouns **everyone** and **everybody** is used as an attribute.

... he almost forgot the nearly intolerable discomfort of his new clothes in the entirely intolerable discomfort of being set up as a target for **everybody's** gaze and **everybody's** laudations. (*Twain*)

When preceded by a preposition **everyone** and **everybody** may be used as a prepositional indirect object.

How know? And without knowing how give such pain to **everyone**? (*Galsworthy*)

Everything may be applied to things, animals and abstract notions. In the sentence it is used as subject, predicative, and object.

No one will see us. Pull down that veil and **everything** will be all right. (*London*) (SUBJECT)

Of course, class is **everything** really. (*Galsworthy*) (PREDICATIVE)

He was not long in assuming that Brissenden knew **everything**. (*London*) (OBJECT)

4. **Either** has two meanings:

(a) each of the two;

(b) one or the other.

The trail wasn't three feet wide on the crest, and on **either** side the ridge fell away in precipices hundreds, of feet deep. (*London*)

Then he remembered the underwriters and the owners, the two masters a captain must serve, **either** of which could and would break him and whose interests were diametrically opposed. (*London*)

In the sentence **either** is usually used as attribute or part of the subject (see the above examples).

5. **Other, another.**

Other denotes some object different from the one mentioned before.

Other has **two numbers**: singular—*other*, plural—*others*. It has **two cases**: the common case and the

genitive case (*other's, others'*).

He walked at the **other's** heels with a swing to his shoulders and his legs spread unwittingly... (*London*)

In the sentence it is used as subject, object and attribute.

After tea the **others** went off to bathe... (*Mansfield*) (SUBJECT)

When he brought his suitcase down into the hall, Isabel left the **others** and went over to him. (*Mansfield*) (OBJECT)

But the circumstance was sufficient to lead him to select Tess in preference to the **other** pretty milkmaids. (*Hardy*) (ATTRIBUTE)

When preceded by a preposition it may be used as a prepositional indirect object:

You are not fair to the **others**. (*Voynich*)

Another has two meanings:

(1) "a different one",

(2) "an additional one".

He has learnt sheep farming at **another** place, and he's now mastering dairy work. (*Hardy*)

Yes, thought Soames, **another** year of London and that sort of life, and she'll be spoiled. (*Galsworthy*)

Another may be used as subject, object, and attribute.

The lantern hanging at her wagon had gone out but **another** was shining in her face much brighter than her own had been. (*Hardy*) (SUBJECT)

Often among the women he met, he would see now one, now **another**, looking at him, appraising him, selecting him. (*London*) (OBJECT)

Now I won't say **another** word. I am overwhelmed, crushed. (*London*) (ATTRIBUTE)

Indefinite pronouns.

Indefinite pronouns point out some person or thing indefinitely. The indefinite pronouns are *some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, something, anything, and one*.

The pronouns *somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, one* have **two cases**: the **common** case and the **genitive** case.

1. **Some** is chiefly used in affirmative sentences while *any* is used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses.

We spread down **some** wide blankets. (*O. Henry*)

But his chief trouble was that he did not know **any** editors or writers. (*London*)

Do you see **any** sign of his appreciating beauty? (*Galsworthy*)

If you have **any** new books, show them to me, please.

When used with nouns of material **some** and **any** have the meaning of indefinite quantity.

Now run along and get **some** candy, and don't forget to give **some** to your brothers and sisters. (*London*)

Some, not **any**, is used in special and general questions expressing some request or proposal.

"Do you want **some** water?" "No, I don't want any water." (*Maltz*)

Some may have the meaning of "certain" (некоторые) before a noun in the plural.

You have **some** queer customers. Do you like this life? (*Galsworthy*)

Any may be used in affirmative sentences with the meaning of "every" (любой).

Above a square-domed forehead he saw a mop of brown hair ... nut-brown, with a wave to it and hints of curls that were a delight to **any** woman ... (*London*)

Somebody, someone, something are chiefly used in affirmative sentences.

He wanted **someone** young; you know a dark Spanish type... (*Mansfield*)

I want to say **something**. (*Galsworthy*)

Anybody, anyone, anything are used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses.

I don't want **anything**. (*Voynich*)

Is there **anything** between him and Annette? (*Galsworthy*)

If **anyone** had asked him if he wanted to own her soul, the question would have seemed to him both ridiculous and sentimental. (*Galsworthy*)

If Erik were ever to do **anything** of importance he would have to find a third way. (*Wilson*)

Somebody, someone, something are used in special and general questions if they express some request or proposal.

Will **someone** help me?

Anyone, anybody, anything may be used in affirmative sentences. **Anyone, anybody** are used with the meaning of “everyone” (любой); **anything** is used with the meaning of “everything” (что угодно).

"You've no business to say such a thing!" she exclaimed. "Why not? **Anybody** can see it." (Galsworthy)

There is a limit to what **anyone** can bear. (Voynich)

... she sank in spirit inwardly and fluttered feebly at the heart as she thought of entering **anyone** of these mighty concerns and asking for something to do — something that she could do — **anything**. (Dreiser)

2. The indefinite pronouns **some** and **any** may be used as subject, object and attribute.

Some say the world will end in fire,

Some say in ice (Frost) (SUBJECT)

"I watch the fire—and the boiling and the roasting—" "When there is **any**," says Mr. George, with great expression. (Dickens) (SUBJECT)

... and his attention slid at once from such finality to the dust motes in the bluish sunlight coming in. Thrusting his hand up he tried to catch **some**. (Galsworthy) (OBJECT)

Where is his home? He didn't have **any** (Maltz) (OBJECT)

Are there **any** real Indians in the woods? (O. Henry) (ATTRIBUTE)

Someone, anyone, somebody, anybody, something, anything may be used as subject, predicative or object. When used as a subject they require a verb in the singular.

In the next house **someone** was playing over and over again “La Donna e mobile” on an untuned piano. (Galsworthy) (SUBJECT)

... What he likes is **anything** except art. (Aldington) (PREDICATIVE)

And not merely did he not know any writers, but he did not know **anybody** who had ever attempted to write. (London) (OBJECT)

The genitive case of the pronouns **somebody, someone, anybody, anyone** is used as an attribute:

... lie could pull his cap down over his eyes and screen himself behind **someone's** shoulder. (London)

"It's **anybody's** right," Martin heard somebody saying. (London)

...Hooked up: I was in **somebody's** arms. (Shaw)

When preceded by a preposition the pronouns **somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, anything** may be used as prepositional indirect objects.

The girl doesn't belong **to anybody** — is no use **to anybody** but me. (Shaw)

Such a purse had never been carried **by anyone** attentive to her. (Dreiser)

So, though he wasn't very successful **at anything**, he got along all right. (Aldington)

3. The indefinite-personal pronoun **one** is often used in the sense of any person or every person.

New York presents so **many** temptations for **one** to run into extravagance (O. Henry)

The indefinite pronoun **one** is often used in a general sense.

...Only **one** with constitution of iron could have held himself down, as Martin did. (London)

The pronoun **one** may be used in the genitive case:

I know exactly what it feels like to be held down on **one's** back. (Galsworthy)

One may be used as a word-substitute:

I was looking at them, and also at intervals examining the teachers—none of whom precisely pleased me; for the stout **one** was a little coarse, the dark **one** not a little fierce. (Ch. Bronte)

As a word-substitute **one** may be used in the plural:

Some of the gentlemen were gone to the stables; the younger **ones**, together with the younger ladies, were playing billiards in the billiard room. (Ch. Bronte)

Negative pronouns.

Most of the indefinite pronouns correspond to negative pronouns: *some* — *no, none*; *something* — *nothing, none*; *somebody, someone*—*nobody, no one, none*.

Some defining pronouns also correspond to negative pronouns: *everything*—*nothing*; *all, everybody, every, each*—*no, none, nobody*; *both, either*—*neither*.

1. The negative pronoun **no** is used only before a noun as its attribute.

No dreams were possible in *Dufton*, where the snow seemed to turn black almost before it hit the ground. (Braine)

No Forsyte can stand it for a minute. (Galsworthy)

The negative pronoun **none** may be applied both to human beings and things.

None of us—**none** of us can hold on forever! (Galsworthy)

... he took the letters from the gilt wire cage into which they had been thrust through the slit in the

door. **None** from Irene. (*Galsworthy*)

It can be used as subject or object.

In this he would make little fires, and cook the birds he had not shot with his gun, hunting in the coppice and fields, or the fish he did not catch in the pond because there were **none**. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

. ... besides, it required woods and animals, of which he had **none** in his nursery except his two cats... (*Galsworthy*) (OBJECT)

2. The negative pronouns **nobody**, **no one** refer to human beings. They correspond to the indefinite pronouns *somebody*, *someone* and to the defining pronouns *all*, *every*, *each*, *everybody*.

The negative pronoun **nobody** may be used in the genitive case: *nobody's*.

The negative pronouns **nobody** and **no one** are mostly used as subjects and objects.

Nobody seemed, to know him well. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

He remembered the days of his desperate starvation when **no one** invited him to dinner. (*London*) (SUBJECT)

I told you once that I have **no one** in the world but you. (*Voynich*) (OBJECT)

We'd have **nobody** to fight the war. (*Heym*) (OBJECT)

The pronoun *nobody* in the genitive case is used as an attribute.

Now Mr. Pullet never rode anything taller than a low pony, and was the least predatory of men, considering firearms dangerous, as apt to go off themselves by **nobody's** particular desire. (*Eliot*)

The pronouns **nobody**, **no one** preceded by a preposition are used as prepositional indirect objects.

Among all the crowd who came and went here, there and everywhere, she cared for **nobody**. (*Galsworthy*)

3. The negative pronoun **nothing** refers to things. It is opposite to the indefinite pronoun *something* and to the defining pronoun *everything*.

And **nothing** of vital importance had happened after that till the year turned. (*Galsworthy*)

Nothing may be used as subject, predicative or object.

There is **nothing** to worry about. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

Now, look here, Marian, this is **nothing** but nonsense," Martin began. (*London*) (PREDICATIVE)

... she brought **nothing** with her but the feeling of adventure. (*Galsworthy*) (OBJECT)

When preceded by a preposition **nothing** may be used as a prepositional indirect object:

On that train he thought **of nothing** but Lilly. (*Wilson*)

The negative pronoun **neither** is opposite to the defining pronouns *either*, *both*.

Neither of them answered; but their faces seemed to him as if contemptuous. (*Galsworthy*)

In the sentence it may be used as subject, object and attribute.

Neither was wise enough to be sure of the working of the mind of the other. (*Dreiser*) (SUBJECT)

I like **neither** of them. (OBJECT)

We approved **neither** plan. (ATTRIBUTE)

The negative pronouns **nobody**, **no one**, **nothing** are singular in meaning and when they are used as the subject of the sentence they require a verb in the singular (see the above examples).

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the realization of the plan

2. Prepare the slide presentation for this theme

Семінар 15.

FUNCTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про функціональні частини англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Two ways of classification of the parts of speech
2. The boundaries between different parts of speech are not clear
3. Possible ways of the grammatical classification of the vocabulary.
4. Notional and functional parts of speech.
5. The function of linking and specifying words

Key words: parts of speech, general meaning of nouns, grammatical categories, modal words, statives, pronouns, verbs, determiners or quantifiers, distributional analysis.

Recommended Reading

Соловійова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. – Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. – 232 с.

Довідник словотвірних елементів англійської мови / уклад. О. В. Вознюк. – Житомир: ЖВІРЕ, 2003. – 96 с.

Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. – 499 p.

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Huddleston, Rodney. 1984. Introduction to the grammar of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Questions for self-control

1. Name two ways of classification of the parts of speech
2. Why there are the boundaries between different parts of speech?
3. What are the possible ways of the grammatical classification of the vocabulary.
4. Outline the notional and functional parts of speech.
5. What are the functions of linking and specifying words?

Realization of the plan

According to their meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactical functions, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech.

Parts of speech are grammatical classes of words which are distinguished on the basis of four criteria: semantic; morphological; syntactic; that of valency (combinability)

The part of speech indicates how the word functions in meaning as well as grammatically within the sentence.

There are two ways of classification of the parts of speech

Parts of speech may be divided into notional (fully lexical, self-dependent functions in the sentence): Noun, Adjective,	Grammatists distinguish between notional and structural parts of speech. The notional parts of speech perform certain functions in the sen-
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Numeral, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb; and functional (incomplete nominative meaning, non-self-dependent functions in the sentence): Article, Preposition, Conjunction, Particle, Modal Word, Interjection. Notional parts of speech are open classes – new items can be added to them, they are indefinitely extendable. Functional parts of speech are closed systems, including a limited number of members. They cannot be extended by creating new items. Functional parts of speech are prepositions, conjunctions, articles, particles. The distinctive features of functional parts of speech are: 1) very general and weak lexical meaning; 2) obligatory combinability; 3) the function of linking and specifying words.	tence: the functions of subject, predicate, attribute, object, or adverbial modifier. The notional parts of speech are: (1) The Noun; (2) The Adjective; (3) The Pronoun; (4) The Numeral; (5) The Verb; (6) The Adverb; (7) The Words of the Category of State; (8) The Modal Words; (9) The Interjection. The structural parts of speech either express relations between words or sentences or emphasize the meaning of words or sentences. They never perform any independent function in the sentence. Here belong: (1) The Preposition; (2) The Conjunction; (3) The Particle; (4) The Article.
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The boundaries between different parts of speech are not clear out:
notional – I have a ticket to the theatre, have
auxiliary – I have quitted my studies.

1) Meaning. Each part of speech is characterized by the general meaning which is an abstraction from the lexical meaning of the constituent word. Thus, the general meaning of nouns is thingness (substance), the general meaning of verbs is action, state, process; the general meaning of adjectives — quality, quantity.

The general meaning is understood as categorial meaning of the class of words.

Semantic properties of every part of speech find their expression in their grammatical properties. If we take "to sleep, a night sleep, sleepy, asleep" they all refer to the same phenomena of the objective reality but belong to different parts of speech as they have different grammatical properties.

Meaning is supportive criterion in the English language which only helps to check purely grammatical criteria – those of form and function.

Such examples though being artificial help us to understand that - grammatical meaning is an objective thing by itself though in real speech it never exists without lexical meaning.

2) Form, (morphological properties) The formal criterion concerns the inflectional and derivational features of words belonging to a given class. That is the grammatical categories they possess, the paradigms they form and derivational and functional morphemes they have.

With the English language this criterion is not always reliable as many words in English are invariable, many words have no derivational affixes and besides the same derivational affixes may be used to build different parts of speech.(e.g. "*~ly*": *quickly, daily, weakly(n.)*).

Because of the limitation of meaning and form as criterion we should rely mainly on words' syntactic functions (e.g. "round" can be adjective, noun, verb, preposition).

3) Function. Syntactic properties of any class of words are: combinability (distributional criterion), typical syntactic functions in a sentence. The three criteria of defining grammatical classes of words in English may be placed in the following order: syntactic, distribution, form, meaning (Russian: *form, meaning, syntactic distribution*).

Parts of speech are heterogeneous classes and the boundaries between them are not clearly cut especially in the area of meaning. Within a part of speech there are subclasses which have all the properties of a given class and subclasses which have only some of these properties and may even have features of another class.

So a part of speech may be described as a field which includes both central (most typical) members and marginal (less typical) members. Marginal areas of different parts of speech may overlap and there may be intermediary elements with contradicting features (modal words, statives, pronouns and even verbs).

Words belonging to different parts of speech may be united by common feature and they may constitute a class cutting across other classes (e.g. determiners or quantifiers).

Possible Ways of the Grammatical Classification of the Vocabulary.

The parts of speech and their classification usually involves all the four criteria mentioned and scholars single out from 8 to 13 parts of speech in modern English. The founder of English scientific grammar Henry Sweet finds the following classes of words: noun-words (here he includes some pronouns and numerals), adjective-words, verbs 4 particles (by this term he denotes words of different classes which have no grammatical categories).

The opposite criterion – **structural or distributional** – was used by an American scholar Charles Freeze. Each class of words is characterized by a set of positions in a sentence which are defined by substitution test. As a result of distributional analysis Freeze singles out 4 main classes of words roughly corresponding to verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs and 15 classes of function-words.

Notional and Functional Parts of Speech.

Both the traditional and distributional classification divide parts of speech into notional and functional. Notional parts of speech are open classes, new items can be added to them, we extend them indefinitely. Functional parts of speech are closed systems including a limited number of members. As a rule they cannot be extended by creating new items.

Main notional parts of speech are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. Members of these four classes are often connected derivationally. Functional parts of speech are prepositions, conjunctions, articles, interjections & particles. Their distinctive features are:

- very general & weak lexical meaning;
- obligatory combinability;

The function of linking and specifying words.

Pronouns constitute a class of words which takes an intermediary position between notional and functional words: on the one hand they can substitute nouns and adjectives; on the other hand they can be used as connectives and specifiers. There may be also groups of closed-system items within an open class (notional, functional and auxiliary verbs).

A word in English is very often not marked morphologically. It makes it easy for words to pass from one class to another. Such words are treated as either **lexico-semantic phonemes** or as words belonging to one class. The problem which is closely connected with the selection of parts of speech is the problem of conversion.

There are usually **the cases of absolute**, phonetic identity of words belonging to different parts of speech. About 45% of nouns can be converted into verbs and about 50% of verbs - into nouns. There are different viewpoints on conversion: some scholars think that it is a syntactic word-building means. If they say so they do admit that the word may function as parts of speech at the same time.

Russian linguist Galperin defines conversion as a non-affix way of forming words. There is another theory by French linguist Morshaw who states that conversion is a creation of new words with zero-affix. In linguistics this problem is called "stone-wall-construction problem".

Another factor which makes difficult to select parts of speech, in English is abundance of homonyms in English. They are words and forms identical in form, sounding, spelling, but different in meaning. Usually the great number of homonyms in English is explained by monosyllabic structure of words but it's not all the explanation.

The words are monosyllabic in English because there are few endings in it, because English is predominantly analytical. We differentiate between full and partial homonymity, we usually observe full homonymity within one part of speech and partial – within different parts of speech. If we have two homonyms within one part of speech their paradigms should fully coincide.

Homonyms can be classified into **lexical, lexico-grammatical and purely grammatical**. We should differentiate between homonymity and polysemantic words.

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme

2. Prepare the multimedia presentation on the basis of our lectures, the material given above and Iriskulov's book "Theoretical grammar of English"

Семінар 16. PHRASE SYNTAX

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про фразовий синтакс англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. The phrase is one or more words that form a meaningful grammatical unit
2. Noun phrase
3. Verb phrase
4. Adjective phrase
5. Prepositional phrase

Key words: dialects, lexical differences, British and American variants, the British Isles, dialectal words, the national literary language.

Recommended Reading

Соловйова Л. Ф. Сніховська, І. Е. Теорія сучасної англійської мови. Навчально-методичний посібник. – Житомир: Вид-во ЖДУ ім. Івана Франка, 2014. – 232 с.

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Questions for self-control

1. What does the prepositional phrase consist of?
2. What is the a verb group?
3. Name the auxiliary verbs
4. What is the verb group?

Realization of the plan

Phrases

a red box	noun phrase
will go	verb phrase
quite big	adjective phrase
very slowly	adverb phrase
in the car	prepositional phrase

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A phrase is **one or more words that form a meaningful grammatical unit** within a clause. There are five main types of phrase in English, as below.

Noun Phrase

A noun phrase (NP) can be a single noun or a group of words built around a single noun, for example:

- *Animals* need water.
- Who ate **the last sandwich**?
- **All passengers with tickets** can board now.

Verb Phrase

A verb phrase (VP, also called a "verb group") consists of a main verb and its auxiliary verbs (including modals), for example:

- We **have been working** since 9am.
- I **will be going** to France next week.
- It **may have been being repaired**.

Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase can be a single adjective or a group of words built around a single adjective, for example:

- He has **clever** ideas.
- It was a **very big** meal.
- The students were **really bored with the film**.

Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase can be a single adverb or a group of words built around a single adverb, for example:

- Please do it **now**.
- He spoke **very softly**.
- They did it **as fast as possible**.

Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by its object (usually a noun phrase), for example:

- They were arguing **about money**.
- The window was **behind a large brown sofa**.
- They resumed **after an unusually large meal**.

The table below shows all five phrase types used in a single clause:

<i>he</i>	<i>is jumping</i>	<i>over</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>very lazy</i>	<i>dog</i>	<i>as fast as possible</i>
NP	VP	PrepP			AdvP	
			NP			
				AdjP		

Note that the word "phrase" can also mean any short group of words such as EnglishClub's "*because people speak English*" and other company mottos, as well as expressions typical of [idioms](#) such as [a piece of cake](#), [back to square one](#) and [caught red-handed](#).

Tasks to be done

1. *Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme*
2. *Prepare the multimedia presentation on the basis of our lectures, the material given above and Iriskulov's book "Theoretical grammar of English"*

Семінар 17.
SIMPLE SENTENCE SYNTAX.
COMPOSITE SENTENCE SYNTAX

Мета: надати студентам теоретично обґрунтоване уявлення про синтаксис простих і синтаксис складних речень англійської мови.

Професійна спрямованість: ознайомити студентів із значущістю володіння дисципліною для майбутньої професійно-викладацької діяльності.

Plan

1. Definitions of the sentence
2. The sentence's form and meaning.
3. Definitions a simple sentence.
4. Functions of a simple sentence
5. Simple sentences vs. other sentence structures
6. Simple sentences vs. compound sentences
7. Simple sentences vs. complex sentences
8. Simple sentences vs. compound-complex sentences
7. The composite sentences

Key words: sentence structures, independent clauses, compound sentences, composite sentences, subordinating clause.

Recommended Reading

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Questions for self-control

1. What is a simple sentence?
2. What is an independent clause?
3. What elements can a simple sentence contain?
4. Can any of the elements of a simple sentence be compound?
5. How many sentence structure types are there?
6. What types of composite sentences are there in Modern English

Realization of the plan

There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others – from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.

The sentence is a minimum syntactic construction used in acts of speech communication, which is characterized by predication and is built according to a certain structural pattern (prof. Pocheptsov).

So, a sentence is a unit of speech and a unit of language. It is a unit of speech because it is created during a speech process. It is a unit of language because it is built according to a certain scheme, which belongs to language. The specific characteristics of the sentence are: predication and intonation of utterance.

Predication is the relation of the content of the sentence to reality, to the situation of speech communication. Predication is revealed in the categories of modality, tense and person.

Modality is the assessment of the content of the sentence from the point of view of reality, which is grammatically expressed by mood forms and intonation (objective reality) and lexically – by modal words (subjective modality).

The sentence has form and meaning.

We may speak of material and grammatical meaning of the sentence. Material meaning of the sentence is its individual content. It is formed by lexical meaning of words it consists of. Grammatical meaning of the sentence is its generalized content peculiar not to one sentence only but to the whole class of sentences of the same structure. Examples:

The boy is reading a book.

The girl is cutting bread.

She is washing the floor.

All the sentences are built according to the same pattern and have the same grammatical meaning: they denote an active influence of the subject upon another one.

A simple sentence, also known as an independent clause, contains one subject and one verb, expressing a single complete thought. It can also include objects and modifiers, but only consists of one clause.

Key elements:

Subject:

The noun or pronoun that performs the action (e.g., "I", "the dog", "the students").

Verb:

The action word (e.g., "run", "sleeps", "are studying").

Object (Optional):

The noun or pronoun that receives the action of the verb (e.g., "the ball" in "He kicked the ball").

Modifiers (Optional):

Words or phrases that add detail to the sentence (e.g., adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrases). Examples:

Subject + Verb: "The cat sleeps."

Subject + Verb + Object: "The dog chased the ball."

Subject + Verb + Object + Modifier: "The little girl happily skipped down the street."

Compound Subject + Verb + Object: "John and Mary ate pizza."

Subject + Compound Verb + Object: "The dog barked and wagged its tail."

In essence, a simple sentence is a complete thought conveyed in its most basic form, using a subject and a verb.

WHAT IS A SIMPLE SENTENCE?

A simple sentence consists of just one **independent clause**—a group of words that contains at least one subject and at least one verb and can stand alone as a complete sentence—with no **dependent clauses**. Here are some examples of simple sentences, with the simple subjects and verbs in bold:

- *My **partner** loves to hike.*
- *The news **report included** various accounts from bystanders.*
- *Veterinary **technicians work** alongside veterinarians.*

Although these examples include direct objects and prepositional phrases, they are simple in structure because they each have just one independent clause.

What is the function of a simple sentence?

The simple sentence is the most basic building block of the English language, and it is useful in many ways. When you want to be particularly clear and informative, a simple sentence is often the way to go:

The exits are at the front and rear of the plane.

Simple sentences also come in handy when you want to be forceful and definitive in your writing:

This will not stand.

You may already naturally use simple sentences in these circumstances. However, learning to identify sentences by their structure can allow you to be intentional about choosing the structure that's best for what you want to communicate. And varying the structures of your sentences will keep your writing fresh and interesting.

How to compose a simple sentence?

Like all sentences, a simple sentence is built with, at minimum, a subject and a verb. It may also include a direct and/or an indirect object, along with any modifiers. What defines a simple sentence is the fact that it consists of a single independent clause, with no dependent clauses attached to it. Any of the individual elements within a simple sentence can be compound without changing its status as a simple sentence. For example, a simple sentence can have a compound subject, a compound predicate, multipart objects, compound modifiers, or any or all of those things. Here's an example of a simple sentence with a compound subject:

Bijal and Obsetee have been working for the same company for many years.

Here's one with a compound predicate:

We ate outside and swam in the lake all week.

The following sentence has both a compound indirect object (*me and my family*) and a compound direct object (*airline miles and hotel points*):

My friend Jason gave me and my family airline miles and hotel points for our trip.

Finally, here's an example of a longer, more involved sentence that is nevertheless simple, as it consists of a single independent clause.

Before that day, neither the dog nor its owner had ever walked through the town or even been to its outskirts.

Here's a tip: Need help rewording your sentences? Grammarly's AI sentence rewriter makes it easy to rewrite sentences for research papers, emails, and more in just a few clicks.

Simple sentences vs. other sentence structures

Let's go over what sets the simple sentence apart from the three other basic sentence structures.

Simple sentences vs. compound sentences

Whereas a simple sentence consists of one independent clause, a compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses without any dependent clauses. The first example below shows two simple sentences. The second example combines them into a single compound sentence using the coordinating conjunction *and*:

- *We went to the concert. Afterward, we went to dinner.*
- *We went to the concert, and afterward we went to dinner.*

Simple sentences vs. complex sentences

A complex sentence consists of a single main independent clause with one or more dependent clauses connected to it using a subordinating conjunction. Below, the first example is a simple sentence, while the second example shows how the same independent clause can become a complex sentence with the addition of a dependent clause and the subordinating conjunction *because*:

- *Xan couldn't make it to the party.*
- *Because they were feeling ill, Xan couldn't make it to the party.*

Simple sentences vs. compound-complex sentences

As the name suggests, **compound-complex sentences** are a combination of compound sentences and complex sentences. They consist of at least two independent clauses and at least one subordinating clause. Below is an example of a simple sentence, followed by the same independent clause built out into a compound-complex sentence using both coordinating and subordinating conjunctions:

- *Tomorrow is Monday.*
- *Whether you feel ready for it or not, tomorrow is Monday, and we have to go to work and school.*

More examples of simple sentences

- ***She browsed*** online forums about tutoring.
- The ***voice*** of the orator ***rose and fell***.
- The ***freshly laundered shirt*** ***smells*** so good.
- ***They posted*** flyers with a picture of the lost dog all over the neighborhood.
- My ***classmate grew up*** in Lagos, Nigeria.
- ***Melly recognized*** Vigo in the crowd right away.

Simple sentence FAQs

What is a simple sentence?

A simple sentence is a sentence consisting of a single independent clause with no dependent clauses.

What is an independent clause?

An independent clause is a group of words that contains at least one subject and at least one verb and can stand alone as a complete sentence.

What elements can a simple sentence contain?

A simple sentence must contain a subject and a verb. It can also contain an indirect object, a direct object, and modifying words and phrases.

Can any of the elements of a simple sentence be compound?

Yes, a simple sentence can have a compound subject, a compound predicate, multipart objects, compound modifiers, or any or all of those things. As long as it consists of just one independent clause, it remains a simple sentence.

How many sentence structure types are there?

There are four basic sentence structures. Besides simple sentences, they also include compound sentences, which consist of two or more independent clauses without any dependent clauses; complex sentences, which consist of a single main independent clause with one or more dependent clauses connected to it using a subordinating conjunction; and compound-complex sentences, which consist of at least two independent clauses and at least one subordinating clause.

WHAT IS A COMPOSITE SENTENCE?

Problems to be discussed:

- the difference between simple and composite sentences
- the types of composite sentences:
 - a) compound
 - d) complex
 - c) mixed (compound-complex) sentences

The word "composite" is used by H. Poutsma as a common term for both the compound and complex sentences.

There are three types of composite sentences in Modern English:

1. The compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses with no dependent one.

2. The complex sentence contains one dependent clause and one or more independent clauses. The latter usually tells something about the main clause and is used as a part of speech or as a part of sentence.

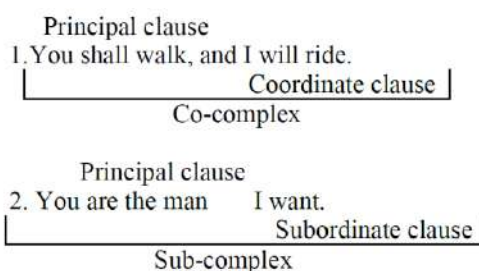
3. The compound-complex sentence combines the two previous types. The compound-complex sentences are those which have at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause in its structure: Blair found herself smiling at him and she took the letter he held out to her.

That there are three types of composite sentences in languages is contemporary approach to this issue.

Historically not all the grammarians were unanimous in this respect. According to it H. Sweet there are structurally two types of sentences: simple and complex.

"Two or more sentences may be joined together to form a single complex sentence ... In every complex there is one independent clause, called the principal clause together with at least one dependent clause, which stands in the relation of adjunct to the principal clause. The dependent clause may be either coordinate or subordinate".

Examples:



As one can see in H. Sweets conception there's no place for compound sentences since even so-called "cocomplex" there's subordination.

Here we shall classify the composite sentences into three types as has been mentioned above.

Compound Sentences

The compound sentence was not felt to be a sentence proper. There were at least three methods, as L. Iophic and Chahoyan state, employed by the grammarians to find a way out of this difficulty:

(1) to explain it away by the complete independence and the possibility of isolating each member of a compound sentence without any change of its meaning or intonation;

(2) by employing new terms to express more exactly the grammatical peculiarity of this combination of sentences. The terms "double", "triple" and "multiple" sentences were used by E. Kruisinga in "A Handbook of Present day English" and H.R. Stokoe.

(3) by excluding this concept from the structural classification of sentences.

The analysis of compound sentences show that clauses of a compound sentence are usually connected more closely than independent sentences. According to M. Blokh "in these sentences the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i.e. equipotent". But more close examination of these type of sentences shows that:

1. The order of clauses is fixed.

1.1. He came at six and we had dinner together.

1.2. The two women understood one another very well, but Paul seemed to be left outside this conversation.

1.3. Every drawer in every room had been taken out, the contents spilled, the bed had been ripped apart, pictures were off their hooks and (they) were lying on the floor.

One cannot change order of the clauses in these sentences.

2. Between clauses of compound sentences there exist certain semantic relations. And these relations are defined by conjunctions and connectives:

2.1. Harmony or agreement (copulative relation):

Her lips trembled and she put up her hand as if to steady them with her fingers.

2.2. Contrast or opposition. This relation is usually expressed by adversative conjunctions but, yet:

The conjunctions are not numerous but they are of very frequent occurrence.

2.3. The choice or alternation (disjunctive conjunction- or): Is that historically true or is it not?

2.4. Reason or consequence (or conclusion) for, so... E.g.

He had apparently been working, for the table was littered with papers.

There's no car available, so I shall go on foot.

Complex Sentences

Linguists explain the complex sentences as units of unequal rank, one being categorically dominated by the other. In terms of the positional structure of the sentence it means that by subordination one of the clauses (subordinate) is placed in a dependent position of the other (principal). This latter characteristic has an essential semantic implication clarifying the difference between the two types, of polypredication in question. As a matter of fact, a subordinate clause, however important the information rendered by it might be for the whole communication, presents it as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause, i.e. as something completely premeditated and prepared even before its explicit expression in the utterance.

The Types of Complex Sentences

The subordinate clauses are classified according to the two criteria: meaning and combinability. The clauses of a complex sentence form the unity, a simple sentence in which some part is replaced by a clause.

The subject clauses are used in the function of a primary part of the sentence. The peculiarity of the subject clause is its inseparability from the principal clause. It is synsemantic; it can't be cut off from the rest of the sentence.

What he says is true.

The predicative clause fulfills the function of the notional predicate (the function of the predicative).

e.g. The thing is what we should do the next.

The Adverbial clauses serve to express a variety of adverbial relations: action quality. Mike acted as though nothing had happened. =manner. Everybody should love her as he did.

Some more complex sentences:

What the newspapers say may be false (subject clause).

I don't remember what his name is. (object)

He thought that it might well be. (object)

The lot that is on the corner needs moving. (attributive)

He is a man whom I have always admired. (attributive)

When Bill decided to leave, everyone expressed regret. (adverbial clause of time)

The Structural Approach to Composite Sentences

One of the representatives of structural linguists Ch. Fries considers two kinds of composite sentences: sequence sentences and included sentences. The sequence sentences consist of situation sentence and sequence sentence. Example:

1. The government has set up an agency called Future builders.

2. It has a certain amount of fund to make loans to social enterprises.

These two sentences are connected with each-other. The first sentence is a situation sentence and the second one is a sequence sentence since it develops the idea of the situation sentence.

In the following example "*The biggest loan has gone to M. Trust, which runs a school for handicapped children.*" There are also two sentences included into one but they are not separated by a period (full stop).

Thus, in both cases there are certain signals that serve to connect the constituents, they are "if" in the sequence sentence and "which" - in the included one.

The most significant difference between these function words as signals of "inclusion" and the forms given above as signals of sequence lies in the fact that these function words of inclusion at the beginning of a sentence look forward to a coming sentence unit, while the signals of sequence look backward to the preceding sentence unit.

When sentence units are included in larger units they can fulfill a variety of structural functions. In the structure of the larger sentence unit in which they are included they often operate as a single unit substitutable for one of the single part of the speech. C.H. Fries, as we see, makes an attempt to reject the traditional classification and terms. He substitutes for the traditional doctrine his theory of included sentences and sequences of sentences. His attitude towards the traditional concept of the compound sentence is primarily a matter of the punctuation of written texts.

Tasks to be done

1. Read and analyze the fundamentals of the theme

2. Optional task: prepare the slide presentation for this theme

МАТЕРІАЛ ДЛЯ ЗДІЙСНЕННЯ КОНТРОЛЮ ЩОДО ЗАСВОЄННЯ МАТЕРІАЛУ ПРАКТИЧНИХ ЗАНЯТЬ

SOME PROBLEMS CONCERNING THE THEORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The task is to read the text and answer the questions

Існують певні системні закони мови.

1. Закон ліквідації «ділянок напруги» (наприклад, спрощення груп приголосних та ін.).
2. Закон позиційного варіювання звуків (звуки можуть змінюватися в залежності від їхньої позиції серед інших звуків).
3. Закон аналогії (коли має місце уподібнення одних структурних елементів мови іншим).
4. Закон компенсаційного розвитку (відповідно до якого втрата одних форм чи взаємин у мові компенсується розвитком інших).
5. Закон абстрагування елементів мовної структури (згідно з яким розвиток абстрактних елементів мови відбувається з урахуванням конкретних: у лексиці, наприклад, конкретне лексичне значення слова найчастіше стає основою для розвитку абстрактного).
6. Закон економії мовних засобів (відповідно до якого в мові діє тенденція до реалізації оптимальної достатності, коли має місце згортання описових конструкцій в одну мотивовану мовну одиницю).
7. Закон диференціації та відокремлення елементів мовної структури (згідно з яким розвиток мови йде шляхом виділення та спеціалізації його елементів для вираження власне мовних значень).

Зазначимо, що закони абстрагування та диференціації елементів системи мови за своєю суттю протилежні один одному: один веде до зменшення мовних елементів, інший – до збільшення. Однак це внутрішнє протиріччя створює динамічну рівновагу у мові та є джерелом його розвитку. У цьому зв'язку можна навести два процеси, що пов'язані із тенденціями до мовної стабільності (традиції) та мовної нестабільності. З одного боку, система мови прагне до збереження стабільної структури, а з іншого, потенції мови настільки ж об'єктивно діють у напрямку розхитування цієї стабільності, і прорив у слабкій ланці системи виявляється цілком природним.

Предмет *«Теорія англійської мови»* передбачає не стільки вивчення всіх головних аспектів англійської мови (її фонетичного, лексичного, граматичного, прагматичного, етимологічного та ін. аспектів), скільки розгляд англійської під кутом певного теоретичного базису, коли аналізуються **проблемні питання** англійської мови як системи знаків та мовленнєвої діяльності.

Таким чином, у рамках предмету «Теорія англійської мови» важливим є запитання: чому саме англійська мова є такою, якою вона є, тобто, як можлива англійська мова?

Подібно до цього, філософи ставлять таке запитання стосовно нашої реальності: як можлива реальність, чому наш Всесвіт є таким, яким він є?

У цьому контексті нам важливо з'ясувати природні, соціальні, космічні чинники формування та функціонування англійської мови.

У зв'язку з цим виникають такі проблемні питання:

- 1) ***Чому в англійській мові у середньому довжина слова коротша, ніж в українській мові?***
- 2) ***Чому в англійській мові багато омонімів?***

Oar – ore – awe – or – o'er (over)

To – too – two (Did you help yourself to these two dishes as I did? Yes, I helped myself **to two too**)

Sight (eye-sight) – **cite** (to cite – citation) – **site** (web-site, construction-site)
 Root – route (You are to take root – You are to take route)
 The sons raise meat – The sun's rays meet
 It's bean soup (It is bean soup) – It's been soup (It has been soup)

3) Чому в англійській мові існує доволі фіксований порядок слів у реченні?

4) Чому в англійській мові існує на декілька порядків більше багатозначних слів, ніж в українській?

Так, Run: 645 значень Set: 430 значень Go: 368 значень Take: 343 значень Stand: 334 значень
 Get: 289 значень Turn: 288 значень Put: 268 значень

Run

Бігати
 Керувати (*to run the museum*)

Lie

лежати
 брехати

Match

сірники
 матч
 підходити один одному

Date

Дата, тобто день, місяць та рік.
 Побачення (романтичне). дзвонити на побачення — *to call for a date*.
 Фініки

Draw

Тягнути, тяга, черпати, вдихати (*Drawer* – шухлядка)
 Малювати
 Нічя
 Тираж

Bust

Бюст (скульптура, жіночий бюст)
 Арешт, облава
 Кутеж, п'янка
 Зламати, крах

Fast

Швидкий
 Твердий
 Міцний
 Напружений – *fasten the belt*
 Вірний
 Піст => порушити піст = *to break fast* => a breakfast

Fair

Світлий
 Ясний
 Гарний
 Справедливий
 Ярмарок

Contentious – спірний, безглуздий, прискіпливий, сварливий

Насправді це слово походить з **content** – зміст. Тобто contentious у своїй основі виражає властивість, пов'язану зі змістом, тобто зі властивістю детально, змістовно розбиратися у питанні, у всі аспекти змісту будь-якого предмета. Таким чином, перше значення слова contentious – прискіпливий. Інші значення визначаються контекстом.

Anecdotes with lie – lie, bean – bean, hear – here, order – order

Хибні слова для перекладача: affair – spectacle – complexion

5) Чому в англійській мові існують доволі складні правила читання, що можна проілюструвати англійською поговоркою: «пишеться Манчестер – читай Ліверпуль» (daughter – [ˈdɒtə] : 8 літер, але 4 звуки).

6) Чому в англійській мові особливості вимови звуків впливають на значення слів?

The East End is the part of London where poor people, **workers** **live** (**walkers**) (**leave**) – to **work** – to **walk** – to be **weak** – only one **week**

These **men** consist of this **man** and that man.

Ця низка слів відрізняється тільки одним звуком:

Bat – bate – bet – beet – beat – bit – bitt – but – boot – bought – boat – bait – bite.

Red – 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.

A warm worm

A word from a ward

They work when they walk

He is still like cold steel

He is thick and he is sick

I can think when I am in a sink

The chips are very cheap

This bad is bed

This man is not like these men

Take your seat and sit.

There is shit on a sheet

This beater is very bitter

This batter is not better

I will beat a bit

We are all in order –

Our rooms and odour

*This flexible worm
Is lithe and quite warm*

Petrel [ˈpetrəl] – petrol [ˈpe, trol] – patrol [pəˈtroʊl]

*This petrel's like ocean **patrol**,
It **soars** very high and below,
Look at this **tireless petrel**,
It's soaring as if on the **petrol***

7) Чому інтонаційні особливості англійської мови не збігаються з такими в українській мові?

8) Чому особливості роботи артикуляційного апарату у носіїв англійської мови відрізняються від таких в українців?

9) Чому граматика англійського дієслова в англійській мові (наприклад система часових форм англійського дієслова) є складнішою, ніж в українській?

10) Чому англійська мова є менш наближеною до санскриту (джерела індоєвропейських мов), ніж українська?

Рух (укр.) – rush (анг.) – ruh (санскр.)

11) Чому в англійській мові багато слів відрізняються від української за мотивацією значення слів, наприклад, слова «happiness» і «щастя» відрізняються, коли слово «happiness» пов'язане зі словом «harpen», а слово «щастя» зі словами «частина», «час»? Тобто чому мотиваційний базис мов світу різний?

12) Чому існує різниця щодо категорії роду в англійській та українській мовах?

13) Чому англійська та китайська мови (які уявляються докорінно різними мовами, коли китайська мова оперує ієрогліфами, а англійська – літерами) відносяться, відповідно до однієї з класифікацій мов, до ізолюючого типу мов (коли звуковий лад цих мов виявляється доволі подібним)?

14) Як пояснити деякі «етимологічні дива» англійської мови?

Faggot вязанка дров, зв'язка, людина нетрадиційної сексуальної орієнтації, – укр. **багаття**

Whole – goal – hole – heal – health

Breeze – to breathe – breath – **breast**

Holder – holster

Sweltering – swell – sweat – sweater – wet

Bleed	кровотеча
Blow	удар
bloom	цвітіння
blossom	цвітіння
Blast	вибух
bluster	бахвальство
blush	рум'янець
Blind	сліпий
Bless	благословлять
Bliss	блаженство
Blister	пухир
Blizzard	завірюха
Stupid	дурний (тупий)
Stupor	ступор
Stupidity	дурість
Stupendous	величезний /приголомшливий
Stoop	сутулитися

Спільне значення цієї низки слів – «**закривати**»:

Cloud – close – cloth – clothes – clot – clod – clench – cling – lock – clock

15) Чому англійська мова виявляє доволі розвинений феномен наслідування звукової оболонки слів природним звукам?

Squeak – squeal – shrill – screech – shriek – squall – scream – squawk – creak – cry – crush – crash

Hiss – sizzle – fizz – frizz

Drop – drip – droop – drab – dribbling – dribble

16) Чому слова в англійській мові можуть виконувати роль багатьох частин мови?

a table game – a table – to table => table these table games on this table

some water – a water world/Waterworld (the name of a famous film) – to water plants – a watery atmosphere

17) Розробіть додаткові проблемні аспекти/питання щодо сутності англійської мови.

7 most difficult sounds in English

Th [θ]

think, mouth, theater, thing, though

Th [ð]

this that those

N [ŋ]

Morning

R [r]

[a:]

mask, ask, class

after, bath, plant

mark – dark – lark

W [w]

wet but vet (veterinary) – wake, whale

H [h]

Home house

- hit [hit] «вдаряти» — heat [hi:t] «жара»
- fit [fit] «налагоджувати» — feet [fi:t] «ноги»
- ship [ʃip] «пароплав» — sheep [ʃi:p] «вівця»
- slip [slip] «ковзати» — sleep [sli:p] «спати»
- duck [dʌk] «качка» — dark [da:k] «темний»
- spot [spɒt] «пляма» — sport [spɔ:t] «спорт»

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**МЕТОДИЧНІ РЕКОМЕНДАЦІЇ ДО ПРАКТИЧНИХ ЗАНЯТЬ
З ВИБІРКОВОЇ ОСВІТНЬОЇ КОМПОНЕНТИ**

«Теорія сучасної англійської мови»

для студентів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти

Надруковано з оригінал-макета авторів