**Міністерство освіти і науки України**

**МИКОЛАЇВСЬКИЙ Національний університет**

**імені В.О. Сухомлинського**

Кафедра германської філології та перекладу

навчально-методичнИЙ комплекс

НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

***ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ ПЕРШОЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ***

Ступінь бакалавра

Галузь знань: 03 Гуманітарні науки

Спеціальність: 035 Філологія

Спеціалізація 035.10 Прикладна лінгвістика

Освітня програма: прикладна лінгвістика

Факультет іноземної філології

(2 курс)

Автор:

Солодка А.К.

д.п.н., професор

Миколаїв 2018

**Зміст НМК**

1. Витяги з ОКХ, ОПП спеціальності.
2. Навчальна програма дисципліни.
3. Робоча навчальна програма дисципліни.
4. Засоби діагностики навчальних досягнень студентів.

5. Наочні та інші навчально-методичні посібники, методичні матеріали до технічних засобів навчання

1. Комплекс завдань для змістовно-модульних контрольних робіт.
2. Інструктивно-методичні матеріали до практичних занять.
3. Контрольні завдання до практичних занять.
4. Питання до заліку/екзамену.
5. Методичні рекомендації та розробки викладача.
6. Методичні матеріали, що забезпечують самостійну роботу студентів.
7. Глосарій
	* + 1. **Витяги з ОКХ, ОПП спеціальності.**

**Витяг із ОПП**

**Метою** викладання навчальної дисципліни є формування професійно-орієнтованої комунікативної мовленнєвої компетенції (лінгвістичної, соціолінгвістичної та прагматичної) cneltynsd для забезпечення їхнього ефективного спілкування в академічному та професійному середовищі.

Основними завданнями вивчення дисципліни є:

сформувати загальні та професійно-орієнтовані комунікативні мовленнєві компетенції (лінгвістичну, соціолінгвістичну і прагматичну) для забезпечення їхнього ефективного спілкування в академічному та професійному середовищі;

сформувати загальні компетенції; сприяти розвитку здібностей до самооцінки та здатності до самостійного навчання, що дозволятиме магістрам продовжувати навчання в академічному і професійному середовищі як під час навчання у ВНЗ, так і після отримання диплома про вищу освіту;

залучити до таких академічних видів діяльності, які активізують і далі розвивають увесь спектр їхніх пізнавальних здібностей;

допомогти у формуванні загальних компетенцій з метою розвитку їх особистої мотивації; зміцнювати впевненість студентів як користувачів мови, а також їх позитивне ставлення до вивчення мови;

сприяти становленню критичного самоусвідомлення та вмінь спілкуватися і робити вагомий внесок у міжнародне середовище, що постійно змінюється;

досягти широкого розуміння важливих і різнопланових міжнародних соціокультурних проблем, для того щоб діяти належним чином у культурному розмаїтті професійних та академічних ситуацій.

**Витяг із ОКХ**

Згідно з вимогами освітньо-професійної програми cneltyn оволодіває такими компетентностями:

 **І. Загальнопредметні:** Застосовує досягнення національної та світової культури у вирішенні власних професійних та життєвих завдань; володіє розвиненою культурою мислення, умінням ясно й логічно висловлювати свої думки; володіє навичками наукової організації праці; розвиває навички самостійного опанування нових знань; уміє працювати з довідковою літературою, різнотипними словниками, електронними базами даних, системами інформаційного пошуку.

**ІІ. Фахові:** *Лінгвістична компетенція:*знання граматичних структур, що є необхідними для гнучкого вираження відповідних функцій та понять, а також для розуміння і продукування широкого кола текстів в академічній та професійній сферах; розуміння правил англійського синтаксису, щоб дати можливість розпізнавати і продукувати широке коло текстів в академічній та професійній сферах; використання мовних форм, властивих для офіційних та розмовних регістрів академічного і професійного мовлення; володіння широким діапазоном словникового запасу (у тому числі термінології), що є необхідним в академічній та професійній сферах. *Соціолінгвістична та прагматична компетенці:* розуміння, що ключові цінності, переконаннята поведінка в академічному і професійномусередовищі України відрізняються припорівнянні однієї культури з іншими; розуміння різних корпоративних культур вконкретних професійних контекстах та їх співвідношення одна зодною; застосовування міжкультурного розуміння упроцесі безпосереднього усного і писемногоспілкування в академічному тапрофесійному середовищі;відповідна поведінка і реагуванняу типових академічних, професійних,світських і повсякденного ситуаціях, а такожзнати правил взаємодії між людьми у різнихситуаціях.

**ПРОГРАМА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ**

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ**

**МИКОЛАЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ**

**ІМЕНІ В. О. СУХОМЛИНСЬКОГО**

Кафедра германської філології та перекладу

**ЗАТВЕРДЖУЮ**

Проректор із науково-педагогічної роботи \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Н. І. Василькова

«5» вересня 2018 р.

**Програма навчальної дисципліни**

***ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ ПЕРШОЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ***

Ступінь бакалавра

Галузь знань: 03 Гуманітарні науки

Спеціальність: 035 Філологія

Спеціалізація 035.10 Прикладна лінгвістика

Освітня програма: прикладна лінгвістика

Факультет іноземної філології

(2 курс)

2018-2019 навчальний рік

**Програму розроблено та внесено:** Миколаївський національний університет імені В. О. Сухомлинського

**РОЗРОБНИКИ ПРОГРАМИ:** ***Солодка Анжеліка Костянтинівна, д.п.н., професор***

Програму схвалено на засіданні кафедри

Протокол від «4» вересня 2018 року № 1

Завідувач кафедри германської філології та перекладу \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (Майстренко М.І.)

Програму погоджено навчально-методичною комісією факультету іноземної філології

Протокол від «4» вересня 2018 року № 1

Голова навчально-методичної комісії \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (Волченко О.М.)

Програму погоджено навчально-методичною комісією університету

Протокол від «5» вересня 2018 року № 2

Голова навчально-методичної комісії університету\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (Василькова Н. І.)

Вступ

Програма вивчення нормативної навчальної дисципліни *“Лексикологія першої іноземної мови”* складена відповідно до освітньо-професійної програми підготовки ступеня бакалавра спеціальності:*Філологія (Прикладна лінгвістика)*

**Предметом** вивчення навчальної дисципліни є практичні навички оволодіння сексичною системою іноземної мови (англійської) та їх застосування у майбутній професійній діяльності.

**Міждисциплінарні зв’язки**: практична фонетика, практична граматика, країнознавство, зарубіжна література, історія англійської мови, література Великобританії, методика викладання англійської мови.

### Мета та завдання навчальної дисципліни

1.1. **Метою** викладання навчальної дисципліни *“Лексикологія першої іноземної мови”* є сформувати в студентів теоретичні основи розуміння мови як інтегрованої сигніфікативної одиниці, що розвивається, зокрема принципів організації та функціонування лексичних систем англійської та української мов у зіставленні.

2.2. **Завдання курсу:**

• ознайомити студентів з категоріальним апаратом та ввести в курс основних понять дисципліни;

• розширити знання студентів про основні напрями досліджень в галузі лексикологічних студій;

• навчити студентів розпізнавати аломорфні та ізоморфні риси у лексичних системах англійської та української мов;

• домогтися від студентів вміння виявляти спільні та відмінні явища лексичних систем англійської та української мов у зіставленні на семасіологічному зрізі;

• сприяти розвитку у студентів вмінь та навичок користування різними видами словників;

• засобами феномена негомогенності і неконгруентності семантичного обсягу лексичних одиниць у зіставлюваних мовах виявляти можливі труднощі при перекладі та вчити студентів пошуку адекватних засобів перекладу.

2.3. Згідно з вимогами освітньо-професійної програми студент оволодіває такими **компетентностями:**

**I. Загальнопредметні:**

* **Соціальна компетентність**. Продуктивно співпрацювати з різними партнерами в групі та команді, виконувати різні ролі й функції в колективі, проявляти ініціативу, підтримувати та керувати власними взаєминами з іншими.
* **Загальнокультурна компетентність**. Аналізувати й оцінювати найважливіші досягнення національної, європейської та світової науки й культури, орієнтуватися в культурному та духовному контекстах сучасного українського та світового суспільства.
* **Компетентності з інформаційних і комунікаційних технологій**. Раціонально використовувати комп’ютер і комп’ютерні засоби при розв’язуванні задач, пов’язаних з опрацюванням інформації, її пошуком, систематизацією, зберіганням, поданням та передаванням.
* **Здатність навчатися упродовж життя як база професійного та життєвого самовизначення** (long life learning competence). Усвідомлює свою діяльність і прагне її вдосконалити.

**II. Фахові:**

* **Лінгвістична компетентність**. Знання системи мови, правил її функціонування в іншомовній комунікації, що дозволяють оперувати мовними засобами для цілей спілкування.
* **Мовленнєва компетентність**. Володіння видами мовленнєвої діяльності, які задіяні у перекладі (говоріння, аудіювання, читання, письмо).
* **Соціолінгвістична компетентність**. Знання та вміння, необхідні для здійснення соціального аспекту використання іноземної мови (лінгвістичні маркери мовлення).
* **Перекладацька компетентність**. Знання загальних принципів перекладу, навички та уміння його здійснення.
* **Екстралінгвістична компетентність**. Знання, що виходять за межі лінгвістичних та перекладознавчих (фонові і предметні знання).

Опанувавши курс «Порівняльна лексикологія іноземної та української мов», студенти повинні

**знати:**

• галузі лексикологічних досліджень, провідних вітчизняних і зарубіжних вчених у них;

• етимологічний склад англійської та української мов, поняття, що складають спільнослов’янський та спільногерманський лексичні пласти;

• сучасні джерела поповнення словникового складу української та англійської мов;

• спільні та відмінні риси морфемної будови англійського та українського слова;

• продуктивні та непродуктивні способи словотворення в англійській та українській мовах;

• сучасні словотворчі процеси та тенденції у зіставлюваних мовах;

• основні концепції щодо визначення поняття слова, значення

слова, типів значень, характеру сполучуваності лексичних одиниць;

• принципи будови семантично-функціональних полів та групування слів у семантичні, тематичні класи; характер відношень між елементами/ конституентами;

**уміти:**

• застосовувати методи семного, трансформаційного, субституційного, конституентного аналізів до досліджуваних лексичних явищ;

• визначити походження слова;

• зробити морфемний аналіз слова, віднайти вільні чи зв’язані морфеми;

• проаналізувати характер деривації, визначити тип словотвору лексеми і її перекладного еквівалента;

• розпізнавати частиномовну приналежність афіксів;

• визначати семантичні процеси у слові;

• визначати характер мотивації значення;

• розпізнавати денотативні / конотативні значення слова;

• визначати характер сполучуваності, виявляти вільні словосполучення та сталі вирази;

• визначати класи фразеологічних одиниць;

• добирати ідеографічні та стилістичні синоніми; семантичні, дериваційні антоніми; доповнювати системи гіпонімами, гіперонімами;

• застосовувати метод семного аналізу для виявлення рівня семантичного обсягу лексичної одиниці у мові оригіналу та у мові перекладу;

• визначати, до якого функціонального пласту належить лексична одиниця;

• розпізнавати архаїзми, історизми, неологізми у порівнюваних мовах;

• відрізняти полісемне слово від омоніма, пароніма; робити правильний переклад паронімів з англійської мови на українську та навпаки;

• визначати характер перенесення значень у лексичних одиницях: метафора, метонімія;

• доречно застосовувати образний ресурс мови при перекладі.

На вивчення навчальної дисципліни відводиться **120 годин/ 4 кредити ECTS**.

**2. Інформаційний обсяг** **навчальної дисципліни**

**Кредит 1.** Лексикологія як галузь лінгвістики. Фундаментальні засади лексикології. Слово як базова лінгвістична одиниця.

**Кредит 2.** Особливості словотвору в англійській та українських мовах.

Способи словотвору в англійській та українських мовах.

**Кредит 3.** Семасеологія. Фразеологічні одиниці англійської та української мов. Семантичні класи слів в англійській та українській мовах. Фразеологізми: види, характеристика значень.

**Кредит 4.** Етимологія. Етимологічна характеристика словникового складу сучасної англійської мови.

**Рекомендована література**

**Базова**

1. Верба Л. Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. Посібник для перекладацьких відділень вузів. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2008. – 160 с.

2. Korunets I. V. Contrastive Typology of the English and Ukrainian languages /

I. V. Korunets. – Вінниця: Nova Knyha publishers, 2003. – 464 c.

3. Кочерган М. П. Основи зіставного мовознавства: підручник / М. П. Кочерган. – К.: Видавничий центр Академія, 2006. – 424 с.

4. Kveselevich D.I.,Sasina V.P. Modern English Lexicology in Practice. – Вінница. – Nova Kniha, 2003. – 156р.

**Допоміжна**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word.-M.: Вища школа, 1977.
2. Rayevskaya N.N. English Lexicology.- Київ.: Вища школа,1979.
3. Ginsburg R.S. and others/ A course in Modern English Lexicology.- M: Вища школа,1979.

**13. Інформаційні ресурси**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. <http://nbuv.gov.ua/>2. <http://www.nplu.org/>3. <http://www.lsl.lviv.ua/>4. <http://www.ukrbook.net/>5. <http://www.odnb.odessa.ua/>6. <http://korolenko.kharkov.com/>7. <http://www.library.vn.ua/>8. <http://ounb.lutsk.ua/>9. <http://www.libr.dp.ua/>10. <http://www.lib.zt.ua/> | 11. <http://www.reglibrary.mk.ua/>12. <http://www.library.pl.ua/>13. <http://libr.rv.ua/>14. <http://www.ounb.sumy.ua/>15. <http://www.library.kharkov.ua/>16. <http://www.lib.kherson.ua/>17. <http://www.ounb.km.ua/>18. <http://www.library.ck.ua/>19. <http://libkor.com.ua/>20. <http://www.gntb.n-t.org/> |

**4. Форма підсумкового контролю успішності навчання**:

4 семестр-залік.

### Засоби діагностики успішності навчання: модульна контрольна робота (МКР), залік.

**РОБОЧА ПРОГРАМА НАЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ**

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ**

**МИКОЛАЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ**

**ІМЕНІ В. О. СУХОМЛИНСЬКОГО**

Кафедра германської філології та перекладу

**ЗАТВЕРДЖУЮ**

Проректор із науково-педагогічної роботи\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Н. І. Василькова

5 вересня 2018 р.

## РОБОЧА ПРОГРАМА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

**ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ ПЕРШОЇ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ**

Ступінь бакалавра

Галузь знань: 03 Гуманітарні науки

Спеціальність: 035 Філологія

Спеціалізація 035.10 Прикладна лінгвістика

Освітня програма: прикладна лінгвістика

Факультет іноземної філології

(2 курс)

2018-2019 навчальний рік

Робоча програма навчальної дисципліни «Лексикологія першої іноземної мови» для студентів бакалаврів спеціальності 035 Філологія, спеціалізація 035.10 Прикладна лінгвістика

**Розробник:** Солодка Анжеліка Костянтинівна, д.п.н., професор \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_(Солодка А.К.)

Робоча програма затверджена на засіданні кафедри ***германської філології та перекладу***

Протокол ***№ 1*** від «***4***» ***вересня*** 20***18*** р.

Завідувач кафедри \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (Майстренко М.І.)

«***4***» ***вересня*** 20***18*** р.

#  Опис навчальної дисципліни

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Найменування показників  | Галузь знань, напрям підготовки, освітньо-кваліфікаційний рівень | Характеристика навчальної дисципліни |
| **денна форма навчання** |
| Кількість кредитів – 4 | Галузь знань03 “Гуманітарні науки” |  |
| Напрям підготовки 035 ФілологіяСпеціалізація 035.10 Прикладна лінгвістика  | **Рік підготовки:** |
| 2-й |
| Індивідуальне науково-дослідне завдання: реферат, доповідь | **Семестр** |
| Загальна кількість годин - 120 |  | 2-й |
|  |
| Тижневих годин для денної форми навчання:аудиторних – 2самостійної роботи студента – 8 | Ступінь: бакалавр | **Лекції** |
|  | 10 |
| **Практичні** |
|  | 30 год. |
| **Самостійна робота** |
|  | 80 год. |
| Вид контролю:залік – 2 семестр |

**Примітка**.

Співвідношення кількості годин аудиторних занять до самостійної та індивідуальної роботи становить: (23%/77%).

1. **Мета та завдання навчальної дисципліни**

2.1. **Мета кусу** – сформувати в студентів теоретичні основи розуміння мови як інтегрованої сигніфікативної одиниці, що розвивається, зокрема принципів організації та функціонування лексичних систем англійської та української мов у зіставленні.

2.2. **Завдання курсу:**

• ознайомити студентів з категоріальним апаратом та ввести в курс основних понять дисципліни;

• розширити знання студентів про основні напрями досліджень в галузі лексикологічних студій;

• навчити студентів розпізнавати аломорфні та ізоморфні риси у лексичних системах англійської та української мов;

• домогтися від студентів вміння виявляти спільні та відмінні явища лексичних систем англійської та української мов у зіставленні на семасіологічному зрізі;

• сприяти розвитку у студентів вмінь та навичок користування різними видами словників;

• засобами феномена негомогенності і неконгруентності семантичного обсягу лексичних одиниць у зіставлюваних мовах виявляти можливі труднощі при перекладі та вчити студентів пошуку адекватних засобів перекладу.

2.3. Згідно з вимогами освітньо-професійної програми студент оволодіває такими **компетентностями:**

**I. Загальнопредметні:**

* **Соціальна компетентність**. Продуктивно співпрацювати з різними партнерами в групі та команді, виконувати різні ролі й функції в колективі, проявляти ініціативу, підтримувати та керувати власними взаєминами з іншими.
* **Загальнокультурна компетентність**. Аналізувати й оцінювати найважливіші досягнення національної, європейської та світової науки й культури, орієнтуватися в культурному та духовному контекстах сучасного українського та світового суспільства.
* **Компетентності з інформаційних і комунікаційних технологій**. Раціонально використовувати комп’ютер і комп’ютерні засоби при розв’язуванні задач, пов’язаних з опрацюванням інформації, її пошуком, систематизацією, зберіганням, поданням та передаванням.
* **Здатність навчатися упродовж життя як база професійного та життєвого самовизначення** (long life learning competence). Усвідомлює свою діяльність і прагне її вдосконалити.

**II. Фахові:**

* **Лінгвістична компетентність**. Знання системи мови, правил її функціонування в іншомовній комунікації, що дозволяють оперувати мовними засобами для цілей спілкування.
* **Мовленнєва компетентність**. Володіння видами мовленнєвої діяльності, які задіяні у перекладі (говоріння, аудіювання, читання, письмо).
* **Соціолінгвістична компетентність**. Знання та вміння, необхідні для здійснення соціального аспекту використання іноземної мови (лінгвістичні маркери мовлення).
* **Перекладацька компетентність**. Знання загальних принципів перекладу, навички та уміння його здійснення.
* **Екстралінгвістична компетентність**. Знання, що виходять за межі лінгвістичних та перекладознавчих (фонові і предметні знання).

Опанувавши курс «Порівняльна лексикологія іноземної та української мов», студенти повинні

**знати:**

• галузі лексикологічних досліджень, провідних вітчизняних і зарубіжних вчених у них;

• етимологічний склад англійської та української мов, поняття, що складають спільнослов’янський та спільногерманський лексичні пласти;

• сучасні джерела поповнення словникового складу української та англійської мов;

• спільні та відмінні риси морфемної будови англійського та українського слова;

• продуктивні та непродуктивні способи словотворення в англійській та українській мовах;

• сучасні словотворчі процеси та тенденції у зіставлюваних мовах;

• основні концепції щодо визначення поняття слова, значення

слова, типів значень, характеру сполучуваності лексичних одиниць;

• принципи будови семантично-функціональних полів та групування слів у семантичні, тематичні класи; характер відношень між елементами/ конституентами;

**уміти:**

• застосовувати методи семного, трансформаційного, субституційного, конституентного аналізів до досліджуваних лексичних явищ;

• визначити походження слова;

• зробити морфемний аналіз слова, віднайти вільні чи зв’язані морфеми;

• проаналізувати характер деривації, визначити тип словотвору лексеми і її перекладного еквівалента;

• розпізнавати частиномовну приналежність афіксів;

• визначати семантичні процеси у слові;

• визначати характер мотивації значення;

• розпізнавати денотативні / конотативні значення слова;

• визначати характер сполучуваності, виявляти вільні словосполучення та сталі вирази;

• визначати класи фразеологічних одиниць;

• добирати ідеографічні та стилістичні синоніми; семантичні, дериваційні антоніми; доповнювати системи гіпонімами, гіперонімами;

• застосовувати метод семного аналізу для виявлення рівня семантичного обсягу лексичної одиниці у мові оригіналу та у мові перекладу;

• визначати, до якого функціонального пласту належить лексична одиниця;

• розпізнавати архаїзми, історизми, неологізми у порівнюваних мовах;

• відрізняти полісемне слово від омоніма, пароніма; робити правильний переклад паронімів з англійської мови на українську та навпаки;

• визначати характер перенесення значень у лексичних одиницях: метафора, метонімія;

• доречно застосовувати образний ресурс мови при перекладі.

**3. Програма навчальної дисципліни**

**Кредит 1.** Лексикологія як галузь лінгвістики. Фундаментальні засади лексикології. Слово як базова лінгвістична одиниця.

**Кредит 2.** Особливості словотвору в англійській та українських мовах.

Способи словотвору в англійській та українських мовах.

**Кредит 3.** Семасеологія. Фразеологічні одиниці англійської та української мов. Семантичні класи слів в англійській та українській мовах. Фразеологізми: види, характеристика значень.

**Кредит 4.** Етимологія. Етимологічна характеристика словникового складу сучасної англійської мови.

**4. Структура навчальної дисципліни**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Назви кредитів і тем | Кількість годин |
| усього | у тому числі |
| л | П | лаб | інд | ср |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| **Кредит 1**. **Лексикологія як галузь лінгвістики** |
| **Тема 1**. **Фундаментальні засади лексикології.**Галузі лексикологічних досліджень. Зв’язок лексикології з іншими галузями лінгвістики. Методи дослідження словникового складу мови. Загальна, порівняльна, контрастивна лексикології: завдання, об’єкт та предмет дослідження. | 22 | 2 | 4 |  |  | 16 |
| **Тема 2.** **Слово як базова лінгвістична одиниця.**Поняття слова у лексикологічних студіях. Слово у семіотичному розрізі. Функції та характеристика слова як сигніфікативного знака. Семіотичний трикутник.КР №1 | 22 | 2 | 4 |  |  | 16 |
| **Кредит 2. Особливості словотвору в англійській мові** |
| **Тема 3. Способи словотвору в англійській мові.**Морфемна будова англійських слів. Поняття морфу, морфеми та аломорфу. Вільні та зв’язані морфеми. Класифікація морфем.Афіксальна деривація іменників, прикметників, дієслів, числівників англійської мови.Словоскладання і скорочення в англійській мові. Конверсія на морфологічному, синтаксичному та семантичному рівнях.Другорядні способи словотвору: чергування голосного, наголосу; зворотний словотвір, реконверсія, звукоімітація. | 24 | 2 | 6 |  |  | 16 |
| **Кредит 3. Семасеологія. Фразеологічні одиниці англійської мови** |
| **Тема 4.** **Семантичні класи слів в англійській мові**Моносемія та полісемія. Пряме й переносне значення слова, характер денотації. Радіальність та ланцюжковість як способи зв’язку при полісемії.Омонімія та класи: омофони, омографи, омоформи та омофрази. Омонімія у власних назвах (антропоніми, фітоніми, топоніми тощо). Абсолютні, ідеографічні, стилістичні, фразеологічні, контекстуальні синоніми. Зіставний аналіз питомої ваги кожного класу в англійській мові. Кореневі, афіксальні антоніми. | 24 | 2 | 6 |  |  | 16 |
| **Фразеологізми: види, характеристика значень.**Вільні словосполучення та усталені вирази. Диференційні риси. Вітчизняні та зарубіжні підходи до проблеми виокремлення та класифікації фразеологізмів. Джерела походження фразеологізмів в українській та англійській мовах, стильова ознака їх вживання.КР № 3. | 6 | 2 | 4 |  |  |  |
| **Кредит 4. Етимологія**  |
| **Тема 5. Етимологічна характеристика словникового складу сучасної англійської мови.**Етимологічний склад української мови: лексика індоєвропейського оходження, праслов’янського пласту, власне українська, запозичена (тюркського походження, з класичних мов, французької,італійської, німецької, англійської). Періоди запозичення; фонетичні, морфологічні диференційні риси запозичень, позначувані поняття та класи слів, сфери функціонування запозиченої лексики.Етимологічний склад англійської мови: лексика індоєвропейського походження, германського походження, власне англійська лексика; ранні та пізні запозичення до словникового складу зі Скандинавії, класичних мов, іспанської, французької, італійської, східних мов.Періодизація запозичень, сфери денотації, фонетичні та морфологічні форманти запозичень.КР № 4. | 24 | 2 | 6 |  |  | 16 |
| **Усього годин:** | **120** | **10** | **30** |  |  | **80** |

**5. Теми лекційний занять**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| №з/п | Назва теми | Кількістьгодин |
| **Кредит 1**. **Лексикологія як галузь лінгвістики** |
| 1. | Фундаментальні засади лексикології. Зв’язок лексикології з іншими галузями лінгвістики.  | 2 |
| 2. | Слово як базова лінгвістична одиниця. Лексичне та граматичне значення слова. Внутрішня структура слова.Морфемна будова англійських слів. | 2 |
| **Кредит 2. Особливості словотвору в англійській мові** |
| 3. | Способи словотвору в англійській мові. | 2 |
| **Кредит 3. Семасеологія. Фразеологічні одиниці англійської мови** |
| 4. | Семантичні класи слів в англійській та українській мовах. Моносемія та полісемія. Пряме й переносне значення слова, характер денотації. Омонімія та класи. | 2 |
| **Кредит 4. Етимологія** |
| 5. | Етимологічна характеристика словникового складу сучасної англійської мови. | 2 |
|  | **Усього** | 10 |

**6.Теми семінарських занять**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| №з/п | Назва теми | Кількістьгодин |
| **Кредит 1**. **Порівняльна лексикологія як галузь лінгвістики** |
| 1. | Фундаментальні засади порівняльної лексикології. Галузі лексикологічних досліджень: етимологія, неологія, дериватологія, ономастика, семасіологія, фразеологія, фоносемантика, діалектологія, лексикографія.Зв’язок лексикології з іншими галузями лінгвістики. Методи дослідження словникового складу мови. Загальна, порівняльна, контрастивна лексикології: завдання, об’єкт та предмет дослідження. | 2 |
| 2. | Слово як базова лінгвістична одиниця. Функції та характеристика слова як сигніфікативного знака. Семіотичний трикутник. Денотативне (пряме/ логічне) і конотативне (непряме/ переносне/ образне) значення слова. Лексичне та граматичне значення слова. Внутрішня структура слова.Морфемна будова українських та англійських слів.Поняття морфу, морфеми та аломорфу. Вільні та зв’язані морфеми. | 4 |
| **Кредит 2. Особливості словотвору в англійській та українській мовах** |
| 3. | Способи словотвору в англійській та українських мовах. Афіксальна деривація іменників, прикметників, дієслів, числівників англійської та української мов.Зіставний аналіз афіксів за частотним критерієм (продуктивні,непродуктивні), за семантичним критерієм (формант виконавця дії, статі, пестливості, згрубілості, зменшення ознаки, неповноти ознаки, приблизності, перебільшення ознаки, семантичної ознаки збірності, разовості, неподільності, нескінченності тощо), за функціональним критерієм (афікси частиномовної належності, категоріальні афікси, граматична транспозиція дієслівних префіксів в українській мові).Словоскладання і скорочення в українській та англійській мовах.Конверсія на морфологічному, синтаксичному та семантичномурівнях.Другорядні способи словотвору: чергування голосного, наголосу; зворотний словотвір, реконверсія, звукоімітація, римокомбінація та їх вага у нейтральному, розмовному та офіційному регістрах мовлення у мовах, що порівнюються. | 6 |
| **Кредит 3. Семасеологія. Фразеологічні одиниці англійської та української мов** |
| 4. | Семантичні класи слів в англійській та українській мовах. Моносемія та полісемія. Пряме й переносне значення слова, характер денотації. Радіальність та ланцюжковість як способи зв’язку при полісемії.Омонімія та класи: омофони, омографи, омоформи та омофрази. Омонімія у власних назвах (антропоніми, фітоніми, топоніми тощо). Абсолютні, ідеографічні, стилістичні, фразеологічні, контекстуальні синоніми. Зіставний аналіз питомої ваги кожного класу в англійській та українській мовах. Кореневі, афіксальні антоніми. | 2 |
| 5. | Фразеологізми: види, характеристика значень. | 4 |
| **Кредит 4. Етимологія** |
| 6. | Етимологічна характеристика словникового складу сучасної англійської та української мов.Етимологічний склад української мови: лексика індоєвропейського оходження, праслов’янського пласту, власне українська, запозичена (тюркського походження, з класичних мов, французької,італійської, німецької, англійської). Періоди запозичення; фонетичні, морфологічні диференційні риси запозичень, позначувані поняття та класи слів, сфери функціонування запозиченої лексики.Етимологічний склад англійської мови: лексика індоєвропейського походження, германського походження, власне англійська лексика; ранні та пізні запозичення до словникового складу зі Скандинавії, класичних мов, іспанської, французької, італійської, східних мов.Періодизація запозичень, сфери денотації, фонетичні та морфологічні форманти запозичень. | 6 |
| 7. | Соціальні, стилістичні та функціональні класи слів у порівнюваних мовах.Територіальна диференціація лексики в англійській та українській мовах. Діалекти української та англійської мов. Функціональна диференціація лексики в порівнюваних мовах: а) стилістично нейтральна лексика; б) книжна лексика. Сленг, жаргон, арго в англійській та українській мовах. Терміни, термінологічна і професійна лексика у порівнюваних мовах. | 6 |
|  | **Усього** | 30 |

**6. Самостійна робота**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| №з/п | Назва теми | Кількістьгодин |
| **Кредит 1**. **Порівняльна лексикологія як галузь лінгвістики** |
| 1 | Фундаментальні засади порівняльної лексикології (конспект першоджерел) | 10 |
| 2 | Слово як базова лінгвістична одиниця (конспект першоджерел) | 10 |
| **Кредит 2. Особливості словотвору в англійській та українській мовах** |
| 3 | Способи словотвору в англійській та українських мовах (виконання вправ) | 20 |
| **Кредит 3. Семасеологія. Фразеологічні одиниці англійської та української мов** |
| 4 | Семантичні класи слів в англійській та українській мовах (виконання вправ) | 10 |
| 5 | Фразеологізми: види, характеристика значень (конспект першоджерел) | 10 |
| **Кредит 4. Етимологія** |
| 6 | Етимологічна характеристика словникового складу сучасної англійської та української мов (виконання вправ) | 10 |
| 7 | Соціальні, стилістичні та функціональні класи слів у порівнюваних мовах (виконання вправ) | 10 |
|  | **Усього** | 80 |

**7. Індивідуальне навчально - дослідне завдання**

**Теми науково-дослідницьких робіт:**

1. Course of Comparative Lexicology: its aims and significance.
2. Definition of the term ”Lexicology”. Aims and significance. Links with other branches of linguistics.
3. Fundamental issues of general linguistics.
4. Two approaches to the study of language: synchronic and diachronic.
5. Two approaches to the definition of meaning of a word: functional and referential.
6. Definition of meaning of a word.
7. Borrowing, origin of borrowings, source of borrowings. Translation loans. Semantic loans.
8. Definition of morpheme. Meaning in morpheme.
9. Types of morphemes. Morphemic analysis (IC, UC analysis).
10. Polysemy. Semantic structure of a word. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to polysemy.
11. Derivational and morphemic analysis (IC, UC). Stems. Its definition and types.
12. Context. Grammatical and lexical context.
13. Word-composition. Types of compound words. Different criteria for classification.
14. Shortening. Types of shortening.
15. Morphological structure of words. Classification of words according to the and types of morpheme.
16. Types of borrowed elements in the English vocabulary. Popular folk etymology.
17. Assimilation and types of assimilation of borrowings. Degree of assimilation.
18. Affixation.
19. Latin borrowings. Periods of borrowings from Latin.
20. Words of native origin. Semantic and stylistic characteristics of native words.
21. Productive ways of word formation. Principle ways of word derivation.
22. Celtic elements in the English vocabulary.
23. Scandinavian loan-words in Modern English.
24. Change of word meaning.
25. Greek borrowings. Criteria of Greek borrowings.
26. The Norman-French elements in English vocabulary. Periods of borrowings from French.
27. Conversion. Different views on conversion.
28. Graphical and lexical shortening. Types of lexical shortening.
29. Ways of borrowings and criteria of borrowings.
30. Types of borrowings. Hybrids.
31. Non-productive ways of word-formation.

**8. Методи навчання**

Під час вивчення курсу застосовуються такі методи навчання, як лекція (лекція-діалог, проблемна лекція), розв’язування перекладацьких задач або творчих завдань під час самостійної роботи або у процесі підготовки до практичних завдань, складання графічних схем для узагальнення теоретичного матеріалу.

**9. Методи контролю**

1. *Метод усного контролю*. Етапи усного опитування: постановка викладачем питань (завдань) з урахуванням специфіки предмета і вимог програми; підготовка студентів до відповіді і викладення своїх знань: корекція і самоконтроль викладених знань під час відповіді; аналіз і оцінка відповіді.
2. *Метод письмового контролю* (письмові контрольні роботи, диктанти, письмові заліки тощо).
3. *Тестова перевірка знань* (тести на доповнення; тести на використання аналогії; тести на зміну елементів відповіді тощо).
4. *Співбесіда під час іспиту.*

**10. Розподіл балів, які отримують студенти**

У 4 семестрі усі види навчальної роботи з курсу «Лексикологія першої іноземної мови» підпорядковані кредитно-трансферній системі організації навчального процесу та контролю студентів.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Поточне тестування та самостійна робота |  | Накопичувальні бали/Сума 400 |
| К1 | К2 | К3 | К4 |
| 100(60/40) | 100(60/40) | 100(60/40) | 100(60/40) |

**Критерії оцінювання поточної роботи**

Поточна робота за заняттях передбачає опитування вивченого теоретичного матеріалу і виконання практичних завдань. За національною шкалою проводиться наступне оцінювання:

«Відмінно» – студент вичерпно і повністю засвоїв теоретичний матеріал та вільно ілюструє вивчені лексичні явища та закономірності практичними прикладами;

«Добре» – студент добре володіє теоретичними знаннями та без суттєвих труднощів ілюструє засвоєні лексичні явища та закономірності практичними прикладами, але допускає 2-3 незначних помилок в аналізі;

«Задовільно» – студент має певні прогалини у теоретичних знаннях та недостатньо ілюструє вивчені лексичні явища та закономірності практичними прикладами;

«Незадовільно» – студент не оволодів теоретичними знаннями.

Критерії оцінювання самостійної роботи

Самостійна робота студентів перевіряється викладачем та оцінюється за наступною шкалою:

«Відмінно» – студент виконує всі вправи, відведені на самостійне виконання; виконання вправ не викликає труднощів, студент може самостійно виконувати творчі завдання;

«Добре» – студент виконує всі вправи, відведені на самостійне виконання, але виконання вправ викликає деякі труднощі;

«Задовільно» – студент виконує неповну кількість вправ, відведених на самостійне виконання; виконання вправ викликає значні труднощі, але в разі пояснення та корегування викладачем студент може виконати подібні завдання самостійно;

«Незадовільно» – студент не володіє матеріалом, не може самостійно виконати вправи після того, як вони були пояснені викладачем, робить велику кількість грубих помилок.

**Шкала оцінювання: національна та ECTS**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| ОЦІНКАЄКТС | СУМА БАЛІВ | ОЦІНКА ЗА НАЦІОНАЛЬНОЮ ШКАЛОЮ  |
| екзамен  | залік |
| A | 90-100 | 5 (відмінно) | 5/відм./зараховано |
| B | 80-89 | 4 (добре) | 4/добре/ зараховано |
| C | 65-79 |
| D | 55-64 | 3 (задовільно)  | 3/задов./ зараховано  |
| E | 50-54 |
| FX | 35-49 | 2 (незадовільно)  | Не зараховано |

**11. Методичне забезпечення**

1. Волченко О.М. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов: Навчально-методичний посібник. – Миколаїв, 2017. – 137с.

2. Навчально-методичний комплекс.

**12. Рекомендована література**

**Базова**

1. Верба Л. Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов. Посібник для перекладацьких відділень вузів. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2008. – 160 с.

2. Korunets I. V. Contrastive Typology of the English and Ukrainian languages /

I. V. Korunets. – Вінниця: Nova Knyha publishers, 2003. – 464 c.

3. Кочерган М. П. Основи зіставного мовознавства: підручник / М. П. Кочерган. – К.: Видавничий центр Академія, 2006. – 424 с.

4. Kveselevich D.I.,Sasina V.P. Modern English Lexicology in Practice. – Вінница. – Nova Kniha, 2003. – 156р.

**Допоміжна**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word.-M.: Вища школа, 1977.
2. Rayevskaya N.N. English Lexicology.- Київ.: Вища школа,1979.
3. Ginsburg R.S. and others/ A course in Modern English Lexicology.- M: Вища школа,1979.

**13. Інформаційні ресурси**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1. <http://nbuv.gov.ua/>2. <http://www.nplu.org/>3. <http://www.lsl.lviv.ua/>4. <http://www.ukrbook.net/>5. <http://www.odnb.odessa.ua/>6. <http://korolenko.kharkov.com/>7. <http://www.library.vn.ua/>8. <http://ounb.lutsk.ua/>9. <http://www.libr.dp.ua/>10. <http://www.lib.zt.ua/> | 11. <http://www.reglibrary.mk.ua/>12. <http://www.library.pl.ua/>13. <http://libr.rv.ua/>14. <http://www.ounb.sumy.ua/>15. <http://www.library.kharkov.ua/>16. <http://www.lib.kherson.ua/>17. <http://www.ounb.km.ua/>18. <http://www.library.ck.ua/>19. <http://libkor.com.ua/>20. <http://www.gntb.n-t.org/> |

***Технічні засоби навчання***

- добір до теми, що вивчається, аудіовізуальних на­вчальних засобів, які відповідають освітньо-виховним за­вданням заняття;

-  попередній   перегляд   або   прослуховування   ма­теріалу з метою аналізу його змісту;

-  визначення доцільності використання дібраного ма­теріалу;

-  визначення форми навчального заняття (практичне заняття);

- визначення функції технічних засобів навчання в структурі заняття (повідомлення нової інформації, ілюст­рація, узагальнення, систематизація, закріплення, кон­троль);

-  вибір провідного методу у використанні технічних засобів навчання (наочно-ілюстративний, активно-еврис­тичний) і методичних прийомів показу (цілком, частина­ми, окремими кадрами);

-  визначення засобів активізації пізнавальної діяльнос­ті студентів на етапах використання технічних засобів на­вчання (повідомлення мети перегляду, постановка завдання, в т. ч. проблемного, контрольні запитання, складання пла­ну, виконання вправ, розв'язування задач, обговорення).

Рівні використання ТЗН: 1) епізодичний (використовуються викладачем від випадку до випадку), 2) си­стематичний (постійне застосування, що дає змогу розши­рювати і урізноманітнювати обсяг інформації); 3) синхронний (передбачає практично безперервне супроводжування ви­кладу матеріалу застосуванням ТЗН протягом всього занят­тя).

6. **Комплекс завдань для змістовно-модульних контрольних робіт.**

**МКР № 1**

**Варіант 1**

1. Add the missing words to the following idioms .

1. George always wants to hold centre \_\_\_\_\_. 2. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ speak louder than words. 3. She’s the life of the \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. 4. I’ll have a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ word with her. 5. I want to get \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ to the point.

1. Use the words from the box below to complete the passage.

|  |
| --- |
| sense contact charisma listener vocabularyrambler pace body conversation appearance |

There are many ways to communicate and not all of them need you to master the words, the (1)… of a language. Often it is your (2)….., the way you look, that is the first form of communication. The second could be your (3)….. language. For example, are you sitting up straight or sitting with your feet up? Remember, even unspoken communication sends messages to the (4) ….. . If you are a friendly person or someone with (5)… then communication will always be easier for you. However, even the most comfortable speaker needs to be careful when speaking. A friend of mine loves speaking but he is a (6) …. and can never stay on the topic for very long. Another friend of mine does not maintain eye (7)…. when speaking and so the person listening quickly loses interest. If you speak too fast, it can be very annoying, so also think about the (8) …... of your speech. Finally, even in the most serious (9) ….., try to show a good (10) ….. of humour. Everyone likes to laugh.

3. Fill in the blanks with the word in the brackets in the simple or continuous aspect (present or past) .

1) What …..(you do)? It looks dangerous. 2) Can you turn the sound down? I ….(talk) on the phone. 3) The government …..(vote) on the law next Saturday. 4) She always …..(listen) to music when she’s studying. 5) Until the car is fixed, David …..(drive) me to work.

4. Put the verbs into the correct tense**:** *Present Indefinite, Present Continuous, Present Perfect, Present Perfect Continuous* .

1. I (to live) in St. Petersburg. 2. I (to live) in St. Petersburg since 1990. 3. She already (to do) her homework for two hours, but she (not yet to do) half of it. 4. I (to wait) for you since 2 o'clock. 5. What you (to do)? - I (to read). I (to read) for already two hours. 6. This man is a writer. He (to write) books. He already (to write) eight books. 7. What you (to do) here since morning? 8. 9. 10. Lena is a very good girl. She always (to help) her mother about the house. Today she (to help) her mother since morning. They already (to wash) the floor and (to dust) the furniture.

5. Complete the sentences with the Present Perfect or Present Perfect Continuous.

1. They \_*\_\_\_* (work) in this office for six weeks.

2. I \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (know) the result since last week’s meeting.

3. How many cartons \_\_\_\_\_\_ (arrive) from Thailand?

4. Exam week \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (not be) as frightening this year.

5. We \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (see) more serious illnesses since last month.

6. \_\_\_\_you \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (look) for the Satchell report? I’ve got it here.

7. The department \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (investigate) the site for more than three years.

8. I’m sure he \_\_\_\_\_\_ (not finish) the project yet.

9. The company \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (lose) money every day since he resigned.

10. How long \_\_\_\_\_\_ your dog \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (not eat) his food?

6. Turn the following direct questions into indirect using the introductory clauses given.

1. Have you ever been to London? ( I wonder …)

2.   Who scored Fenerbae’s first goal last night? (Do you know…)

3.   When is she going to move to Ankara? (I have no idea…)

4.   Who brought this computer to the office? (I want to know..)

5.   Does your new girlfriend smoke? ( I wonder…)

6.  How many times has Mel been to New York? ( Could you tell me ….)

7.  Can she play the guitar? ( I wonder …)

8.  What were you doing when the earthquake happened? (I don’t remember…)

9. Has your family moved to a new flat? ( I don’t know...)

10.  What time did he leave the office? (I don’t remember….)

 **Варіант 2**

1. Add the missing words to the following idioms.

1. I \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ it on the grapevine. 2. He \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ into laughter. 3. She couldn’t get a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ in edgeways. 4. You never \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ out of things to say, do you? 5. She never \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ before she \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ .

2. Read the text and decide which answer (A, B, C or D) best fits .

 I hate living in towns. People who talk about towns being lovely because they have a cosmopolitan atmosphere are unfortunately giving a 1\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ impression of what it is like to live in a city. They never talk about the high 2\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ rates and the 3\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ vandalism that you can see on every street. They do not talk about 4\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ congestion and the horrors of 5\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ hour. Instead they talk about the great 6\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ connections from one part of town to another. Cities are also so ugly. I hate those identical grey concrete 7\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ blocks. Give me the country anytime, where there are wide 8\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ spaces and 9\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ views. What’s more, at a time when there is real fear of 10\_\_\_\_\_\_ warming and extreme climate change, we should take advantage of the countryside while it is still there.

1 a significant b stunning c false d global

2 a traffic b noise c transport d crime

3 a mindless b rush c false d abandoned

4 a crime b traffic c apartment d climate

5 a rush b scientific c mindless d stunning

6 a global b transport c noise d satellite

7 a false b detached c apartment d scientific

8 a abandoned b false c open d significant

9 a detached b stunning c global d mindless

10 a significant b detached c climate d global

3. Fill in the blanks with the word in the brackets in the simple or continuous aspect (present or past)

1) During the meeting, I ….(hear) a lot of people complaining. 2) These days, I ….(do) a four-mile run in the mornings. 3) Journalists report that more and more famous couples …. (separate). 4)The minister ….. (just leave) the building when the protesters started throwing stones. 5) More people … (take) communication courses these days.

4. Put the verbs into the correct tense**:** *Present Indefinite, Present Continuous, Present Perfect, Present Perfect Continuous*.

1. 2. This is the factory where my father (to work). He (to work) here for fifteen years. 3. 4. 5. You (to find) your notebook? - No! I still (to look) for it. I already (to look) for it for two hours, but (not yet to find) it. 6. You (to play) with a ball for already three hours. Go home and do your homework. 7. Wake up! You (to sleep) for ten hours already. 8. I (to wait) for a letter from my cousin for a month already, but (not yet to receive) it. 9 - 10. Mary is a very good girl. She always (to help) her mother about the house. Now she (to cook) dinner.

5. Put the correct present form ( Present perfect continuous or Present perfect simple) of the verb in the brackets in the blanks.

1) She \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (write) six novels since 1999.

2) \_\_\_\_(you attend) the extra lessons that Dr Smith is giving?

3) I know the film is showing at the cinema because I \_\_\_\_\_(see) it.

4) \_\_\_\_\_\_\_(you think) of resigning recently?

5) I \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (not see) him for years.

6) ‘How long \_\_\_\_ (you wait)?’ ‘For ages!’

7) This is the third time that they \_\_\_\_ (win) the election.

8) ‘Can I collect my car?’ ‘Yes, we \_\_\_\_ (check) it and it seems to be fine’.

9) They \_\_\_\_\_\_(investigate) all week but haven’t found a single clue.

10) Over the last six months, companies \_\_\_\_(make) huge profits.

6. Complete the second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first sentence.

1 Who saw it happen? (I wonder\_\_).

2 What’s the answer? (I’d like to\_\_\_\_\_\_\_).

3 Did the representative sign the documents? (Could you tell\_\_\_?)

4 Why was the battle fought? (Does anyone know\_\_\_?)

5 Which car is the newest? (Can you tell\_\_\_\_\_?)

6 How many applicants were there? (I wonder\_\_\_\_\_).

7 Did he understand the instructions? (Do you know\_\_?)

8 How much time has passed? (I’d like to ).

9 What’s the time? ( Do you\_.....?)

10 Do you live in London? (He wanted to know…..)

**МКР № 2**

**Варіант 1**

1. Add the correct prepositions to the sentences, if necessary. If a preposition is not needed, add a zero (*0*).

1) Your explanation does not relate \_\_*\_\_\_\_\_* the subject

2) It’ll take me some time to adjust \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ the new conditions.

 3) You have to be over the age of 18 to participate \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

 4) It took a while for him to decide \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ if he wanted to go.

 5) My father doesn’t approve \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ my choice of job.

 6 ) She gave her consent \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ the operation.

 7) Competitors will participate \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ three challenges.

 8) She said nothing but nodded her head to show consent \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

 9) I finally succeeded \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ getting through to him.

10) Are you usually successful \_\_\_\_\_\_ convincing people?

2. Fill in the blanks with the correct form (either future continuous, *going to* or present continuous) of the verb in brackets.

1) I have always wanted to be soldier so I \_\_\_\_\_\_ (join) the army when I finish school. 2) Unlike most weekends, I \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_(spend) the whole of next weekend in the office. 3)\_\_\_\_\_(you attend) the conference in Exeter? It would be great if you could come. 4) They are afraid they can’t take on the project. They\_\_\_\_ (still complete) two other contracts throughout March. 5) He knows he failed the course but he \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_(not repeat) it as he doesn’t like the lecturer. 6) DHL \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_(deliver) the package tonight so could you take it for me? 7) They \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (publish) the book on 4th August. 8) To deal with the many complaints, the office \_\_\_\_\_\_\_(open) their doors to people two hours earlier for just one day. 9) We ….to Venice in June. (to fly) 10) Look at the clouds! It….soon. (to rain).

3. Choose the correct future form to complete the sentences below.

1. I'm hungry - Oh, I ….(make) you a sandwich.
2. He …(study) Law at Sheffield University next year.
3. Oh darling! I love you so much, …. (you/marry) me?
4. The flight …. (leave) at 8 p.m.
5. Look at those clouds! It … (rain) any minute.
6. Jack …. (meet) Kim tomorrow afternoon.
7. I think he …. (be) very successful.
8. When ….you… (visit) me next year?
9. Class … (begin) at 9, it … (begin) at 10.
10. We … ( have) a staff meeting next Monday.
11. Look at those clouds on the horizon! It is … (rain) soon.
12. Who do you think … (win) the next national elections?
13. We … (fly) to Warsaw next week for a meeting with the advisory board.
14. I promise you: I … (finish) my homework on time next week.
15. I'll take this letter to the post office when I …(go) into town this afternoon.

4. Add the missing words to complete the following idioms (5 б.).:

1. Don’t ever take your \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ off the ball.
2. They’re trying to move the \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.
3. I think he \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ a bit of an own goal.
4. I tell you, it’s a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ new ball game.
5. You need to be \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ the ball at all times.

5. Complete the text with "the" or nothing (15 б.).

 I study at 1)…. Helsinki University. I' ve been at 2)… university for three years. I've been playing in 3)… hockey team for two of those years. 4)…team is not very strong and we really only play for 5)… fun. 6)… matches we play, which are usually played on 7)…. Saturdays, often mean we have to travel long distances. Last Saturday, to go to Dresden, we had to be at 8).. . university by 7 a.m. They have 9).. .strongest team in their country and we lost. 10)… journey home was not happy.

11) He lives somewhere in …. southern Germany.

12) Holistic medicine is practised by … Chinese.

13) I'm nervous because I've got to go to …. dentist.

14) I'm having …. dinner at Begonya's tonight.

15) Have you seen …. cheese in the new delicatessen?

6. Fill in the blanks with appropriate quantifiers: any, a little, little, a few, some, many (10 б.):

1. Are there ….computers in the library? 2. Are there……. ripe cherries on the tree? 3. Oh! These chips are horrible. There isn’t …. salt on them. 4. 'Would you like milk in your coffee?' 'Yes, please ….. .’ 5. This is a very boring place to live. There's ……to do. 6. 'Do you ever go to Atlantic City?' 'Yes, I go there ….. times every year.' 7. There is …..milk in the bottle. 8. I don't think Jill would be a good teacher. She's got …… patience. 9. Do you mind if I ask you …… questions? 10. There isn’t …… furniture at home.

**Варіант 2**

1. Match the first half of the sentences to the second to form correct future perfect or *will* sentences.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| 1 I’m sure he | a inform you when we have some information. |
| 2 By the time the train arrives | b we’ll buy the tickets. |
| 3 I will certainly | c given birth in time for summer. |
| 4 When Steve gets here | d give birth in the spring. |
| 5 They will | e have been completed by then. |
| 6 She will probably  | f will be here for the meeting. |
| 7 They assure me that they will | g they will have bought their tickets. |
| 8 She will have | h have informed you by Tuesday. |

2. Put the words in the box in the correct columns.

|  |
| --- |
| injection surgeon diabetes transplantmidwife arthritis anaesthetist psychiatristinfection painkiller fever vaccine |
| **Illnesses/Diseases** | **People** | **Treatments** |

3. Put in the verbs in brackets into the gap. Use future forms.

1. Philipp …….15 next Wednesday. *(to be)*

2) They ……a new computer. *(to get)*

3) I think, my mother ……this CD. *(to like)*

4) Paul's sister ……a baby. *(to have)*

5) They ……at about 4 in the afternoon. *(to arrive)*

6) Just a moment. I ……you with the bags. *(to help*

7) In 2020 people …….more hybrid cars. *(to buy)*

8) Marvin …..a party next week. *(to throw)*

9) We …….to Venice in June. *(to fly)*

10) Look at the clouds! It ……soon. *(to rain)*

11) I …. Jim at the airport (*to meet*).=-5trf

12) I …. tomorrow (*to leave*).

13) We ….. with friends when we get to Boston (*to stay*).

14) As soon as she arrives in Manchester she … ( to give) you a call.

15) We … a staff meeting next Monday (*to have*).

4. Add the missing words to complete the following idioms (5 б.).:

1. I’d like to start the ball \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ by making a suggestion.
2. You must always try to ensure a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ playing field.
3. I think he \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ a bit of an own goal.
4. I tell you, it’s a \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ new ball game.
5. You need to be \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ the ball at all times.

5. Fill the gaps with the correct answer in brackets (10 б.)..

1. I'm tired. I'm going to \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. ( the bed / bed )
2. Blast! I forgot to go to \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. ( the bank / bank )
3. I hate going to \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_, don't you? ( the church / church )
4. I'm nervous because I've got to go to \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. ( the dentist / dentist )
5. I loved being at \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. ( the university / university )
6. We need to be at \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ in an hour. ( the airport / airport )
7. All politicians should be sent to \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. ( the prison / prison )
8. Her husband got home early from \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_. ( the work / work )
9. I'm having \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ at Begonya's tonight. ( the dinner / dinner )
10. Why didn't someone tell me he was in \_\_\_\_\_\_\_? ( the hospital / hospital )

6. Fill in the blanks with appropriate quantifiers: a few, any, a little, much, some, many, a lot, a lot of (15 б.):

1. How ….children do you and Tony have?

2. I don't have ….patience and I find jigsaw puzzles boring.

3. We only have ….carrots. We should go and buy some more.

4. "Do we need any mushrooms?" "No, we have ….. Look, three bags!"

5. There was an explosion at the factory and …..people were injured. We don't know how many yet.

6. When you make the pie, put ….wine in too. But not too much! It makes it really tasty.

7. When you go out, buy me ….apples and a bottle of Coke.

8. I don't need ….advice from you. You don't understand the problem!

9. "Do you like this programme?" "Not ….. You can change the channel if you want."

10. ….. people in Spain like to take a siesta during the hottest part of the day.

11. I have been to America ….times. Twice in 1996 and again last year.

12. Can you give me ….information about the buses in the city centre please?

13. ….people think he is stupid, but he's actually quite intelligent.

14. We must be quick. We have … time.

15. Listen carefully. I'm going to give you …..advice.

1. **Інструктивно-методичні матеріали до лекційних занять.**

# LECTURE 1.LEXICOLOGY (Лексикологія.Мовні одиниці)

The term «lexicology» is of Greek origin / from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science»/ . Lexicology is the part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups.

The term «vocabulary» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.

The term «word» denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest unit of a language which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

The term «word-group» denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function, e.g. the word-group «as loose as a goose» means «clumsy» and is used in a sentence as a predicative / He is as loose as a goose/.

Lexicology can study the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations and the development of their sound form and meaning. In this case it is called historical lexicology.

Another branch of lexicology is called descriptive and studies the vocabulary at a definite stage of its development.

# LANGUAGE UNITS

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. please, pleasant, pleasure.

Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical morphemes and grammatical (functional) morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound. Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words. Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions ( the, with, and).

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g. Fri-day, cran-berry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), e.g. -s for the Plural of nouns, -ed for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, -ing for the Present Participle, -er for the Comparative degree of adjectives.

In the second half of the twentieth century the English wordbuilding system was enriched by creating so called splinters which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English wordbuilding system. Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. For example, there are many words formed with the help of the splinter mini- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «miniature»), such as «miniplane», «minijet», «minicycle», «minicar», «miniradio» and many others. All of these words denote obects of smaller than normal dimensions.

On the analogy with «mini-» there appeared the splinter «maxi»- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «maximum»), such words as «maxi-series», «maxi-sculpture», «maxi-taxi» and many others appeared in the language.

When European economic community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter Euro- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «European») were coined, such as: «Euratom» «Eurocard», «Euromarket», «Europlug», «Eurotunnel» and many others. These splinters are treated sometimes as prefixes in Modern English.

There are also splinters which are formed by means of apheresis, that is clipping the beginning of a word. The origin of such splinters can be variable, e.g. the splinter «burger» appeared in English as the result of clipping the German borrowing «Hamburger» where the morphological structure was the stem «Hamburg» and the suffix -er. However in English the beginning of the word «Hamburger» was associated with the English word «ham», and the end of the word «burger» got the meaning «a bun cut into two parts». On the analogy with the word «hamburger» quite a number of new words were coined, such as: «baconburger», «beefburger», «cheeseburger», «fishburger» etc.

The splinter «cade» developed by clipping the beginning of the word «cavalcade» which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning «to ride a horse» is «cabalicare» and by means of the inflexion -ata the corresponding Participle is formed. So the element «cade» is a combination of the final letter of the stem and the inflexion. The splinter «cade» serves to form nouns with the meaning «connected with the procession of vehicles denoted by the first component», e.g. «aircade» - «a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP» , «autocade» - «a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP», «musicade» - «an orchestra participating in a procession».

In the seventieths of the twentieth century there was a political scandal in the hotel «Watergate» where the Democratic Party of the USA had its pre-election headquarters. Republicans managed to install bugs there and when they were discovered there was a scandal and the ruling American government had to resign. The name «Watergate» acquired the meaning «a political scandal», «corruption». On the analogy with this word quite a number of other words were formed by using the splinter «gate» (apheresis of the word «Watergate»), such as: «Irangate», »Westlandgate», »shuttlegate», »milliongate» etc. The splinter «gate» is added mainly to Proper names: names of people with whom the scandal is connected or a geographical name denoting the place where the scandal occurred.

The splinter «mobile» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «automobile» and is used to denote special types of automobiles, such as: «artmobile», «bookmobile», «snowmobile», «tourmobile» etc.

The splinter «napper» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «kidnapper» and is used to denote different types of crimesters, such as : «busnapper», «babynapper», «dognapper» etc. From such nouns the corresponding verbs are formed by means of backformation, e.g. «to busnap», «to babynap», «to dognap».

The splinter «omat» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «automat» (a cafe in which meals are provided in slot-machines). The meaning «self-service» is used in such words as «laundromat», «cashomat» etc.

Another splinter «eteria» with the meaning «self-service» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «cafeteria». By means of the splinter «eteria» the following words were formed: «groceteria», «booketeria», «booteteria» and many others.

The splinter «quake» is used to form new words with the meaning of «shaking», «agitation». This splinter was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «earthquake». Ther following words were formed with the help of this splinter: «Marsquake», «Moonquake», «youthquake» etc.

The splinter «rama(ama)» is a clipping of the word «panorama» of Greek origin where «pan» means «all» and «horama» means «view». In Modern English the meaning «view» was lost and the splinter «rama» is used in advertisements to denote objects of supreme quality, e.g. «autorama» means «exhibition-sale of expensive cars», «trouserama» means «sale of trousers of supreme quality» etc.

The splinter «scape» is a clipping of the word «landscape» and it is used to form words denoting different types of landscapes, such as: «moonscape», «streetscape», «townscape», «seascape» etc.

Another case of splinters is «tel» which is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «hotel». It serves to form words denoting different types of hotels, such as: «motel» (motor-car hotel), «boatel» (boat hotel), «floatel» (a hotel on water, floating), «airtel» (airport hotel) etc.

The splinter «theque» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «apotheque» of Greek origin which means in Greek «a store house». In Russian words: «библиотека», «картотека», «фильмотека» the element «тека» corresponding to the English «theque» preserves the meaning of storing something which is expressed by the first component of the word. In English the splinter «theque» is used to denote a place for dancing, such as: «discotheque», «jazzotheque».

The splinter «thon» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «marathon». «Marathon» primarily was the name of a battle-field in Greece, forty miles from Athens, where there was a battle between the Greek and the Persian. When the Greek won a victory a Greek runner was sent to Athens to tell people about the victory. Later on the word «Marathon» was used to denote long-distance competitions in running. The splinter «thon(athon)» denotes «something continuing for a long time», «competition in endurance» e.g. «dancathon», «telethon», «speakathon», «readathon», «walkathon», «moviethon», «swimathon», «talkathon», «swearthon» etc.

Splinters can be the result of clipping adjectives or substantivized adjectives. The splinter «aholic» (holic) was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «alcoholic» of Arabian origin where «al» denoted «the», «koh’l» - «powder for staining lids». The splinter «(a)holic» means «infatuated by the object expressed by the stem of the word» , e.g. «bookaholic», «computerholic», «coffeeholic», «cheesaholic», «workaholic» and many others.

The splinter «genic» formed by clipping the beginning of the word «photogenic» denotes the notion «suitable for something denoted by the stem», e.g. «allergenic», «cardiogenic», «mediagenic», «telegenic» etc.

As far as verbs are concerned it is not typical of them to be clipped that is why there is only one splinter to be used for forming new verbs in this way. It is the splinter «cast» formed by clipping the beginning of the verb «broadcast». This splinter was used to form the verbs «telecast» and «abroadcast».

Splinters can be called pseudomorphemes because they are neither roots nor affixes, they are more or less artificial. In English there are words which consist of two splinters, e.g. «telethon», therefore it is more logical to call words with splinters in their structure «*compound-shortened words consisting of two clippings of words*».

Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can also change the part-of-speech meaning , e.g. the prefix «en-» and its allomorph «em» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («embody», «enable», «endanger»), «be-» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («becloud», «benumb»), «post-» and «pre-» can form adjectives from noun stems («pre-election campaign», «post-war events»). The main function of suffixes is to form one part of speech from another part of speech, e.g. «-er», «-ing», «-ment» form nouns from verbal stems («teacher», «dancing», «movement»), «-ness», «-ity» are used to form nouns from adjective stems («clannishnes», «marginality»).

According to the nature and the number of morphemes constituting a word there are different structural types of words in English: simple, derived, compound, compound-derived.

*Simple words* consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. «seldom», «chairs», «longer», «asked».

*Derived words* consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inlexion, e.g. «deristricted», «unemployed».

*Compound words* consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. «baby-moons», «wait-and-see (policy)».

*Compound-derived words* consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «middle-of-the-roaders», «job-hopper».

When speaking about the structure of words stems also should be mentioned. The stem is the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word, e.g. the stem «hop» can be found in the words: «hop», «hops», «hopped», «hopping». The stem «hippie» can be found in the words: «hippie», «hippies», «hippie’s», «hippies’». The stem «job-hop» can be found in the words : «job-hop», «job-hops», «job-hopped», «job-hopping».

So stems, the same as words, can be simple, derived, compound and compound-derived. Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, they can be noun stems («girl» in the adjective «girlish»), adjective stems («girlish» in the noun «girlishness»), verb stems («expell» in the noun «expellee») etc. They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure, they can be used only in the structure of words.

Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, e.g. «perestroika», «cranberry», «absence» etc.

As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between derived words and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called derived , e.g.-, «telescreen», «maxi-taxi» , «shuttlegate», «cheeseburger». But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems , the word can be called compound-shortened word formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened, e.g. «busnapper» was formed from « bus kidnapper», «minijet» from «miniature jet».

In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called block compounds, that is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as «chat show», «pinguin suit» etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type «stone wall», so called nominative binomials. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning, e.g. «vid kid» is «a kid who is a video fan» while «kid vid» means «a video-film for kids» or else «lamp oil» means «oil for lamps» and «oil lamp» means «a lamp which uses oil for burning».

Among language units we can also point out word combinations of different structural types of idiomatic and non-idiomatic character, such as «the first fiddle», «old salt» and «round table», «high road». There are also sentences which are studied by grammarians.

Thus, we can draw the conclusion that in Modern English the following language units can be mentioned: morphemes, splinters, words, nominative binomials, non-idiomatic and idiomatic word-combinations, sentences.

# LECTURE 2. WORDBUILDING(Основні види словотворення)

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four main ways of word-building in modern English: affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation. There are also secondary ways of word-building: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation.

# AFFIXATION

Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

**Suffixation.**

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. ( e.g. «educate» is a verb, «educatee» is a noun, and « music» is a noun, «musicdom» is also a noun) .

There are different classifications of suffixes :

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here :

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as : -er (criticizer), -dom (officialdom), -ism (ageism),

b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as : -able (breathable), less (symptomless), -ous (prestigious),

c) verb-forming suffixes, such as -ize (computerize) , -ify (micrify),

d) adverb-forming suffixes , such as : -ly (singly), -ward (tableward),

e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as -teen (sixteen), -ty (seventy).

2. Semantic classification . Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (experimenter), -ist (taxist), -ent (student),

b) nationality, e.g. -ian (Russian), -ese (Japanese), -ish (English),

c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (moviedom), -ry (peasantry, -ship (readership), -ati ( literati),

d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie (horsie), -let (booklet), -ling (gooseling), -ette (kitchenette),

e) quality, e.g. -ness (copelessness), -ity (answerability).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:

a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as : -er (commuter), -ing (suffering), - able (flyable), -ment (involvement), -ation (computerization),

b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as : -less (smogless), ful (roomful), -ism (adventurism), -ster (pollster), -nik (filmnik), -ish (childish),

c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as : -en (weaken), -ly (pinkly), -ish (longish), -ness (clannishness).

4. Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) native (Germanic), such as -er,-ful, -less, -ly.

b) Romanic, such as : -tion, -ment, -able, -eer.

c) Greek, such as : -ist, -ism, -ize.

d) Russian, such as -nik.

5. Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) productive, such as : -er, -ize, --ly, -ness.

b) semi-productive, such as : -eer, -ette, -ward.

c) non-productive , such as : -ard (drunkard), -th (length).

Suffixes can be polysemantic, such as : -er can form nouns with the following meanings : agent,doer of the action expressed by the stem (speaker), profession, occupation (teacher), a device, a tool (transmitter). While speaking about suffixes we should also mention compound suffixes which are added to the stem at the same time, such as -ably, -ibly, (terribly, reasonably), -ation (adaptation from adapt).

There are also disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes semi-suffixes, and words with such suffixes can be classified either as derived words or as compound words, e.g. -gate (Irangate), -burger (cheeseburger), -aholic (workaholic) etc.

# Prefixation

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used : prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. un- (unhappy). Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. over- (overhead) ( cf over the table ).

The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. But the recent research showed that about twenty-five prefixes in Modern English form one part of speech from another (bebutton, interfamily, postcollege etc).

 Prefixes can be classified according to different principles :

1. Semantic classification :

a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as : in- (invaluable), non- (nonformals), un- (unfree) etc,

b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: de- (decolonize), re- (revegetation), dis- (disconnect),

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : inter- (interplanetary) , hyper- (hypertension), ex- (ex-student), pre- (pre-election), over- (overdrugging) etc.

2. Origin of prefixes:

a) native (Germanic), such as: un-, over-, under- etc.

b) Romanic, such as : in-, de-, ex-, re- etc.

c) Greek, such as : sym-, hyper- etc.

When we analyze such words as : adverb, accompany where we can find the root of the word (verb, company) we may treat ad-, ac- as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words. Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as : contain, retain, detain and conceive, receive, deceive where we can see that re-, de-, con- act as prefixes and -tain, -ceive can be understood as roots. But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called pseudo-morphemes. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones.

There are some prefixes which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. after- in the word afternoon. American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as compound words. British lexicographers treat such words as derived ones.

# COMPOSITION

Composition is the way of wordbuilding when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. The structural unity of a compound word depends upon : a) the unity of stress, b) solid or hyphonated spelling, c) semantic unity, d) unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. These are charachteristic features of compound words in all languages. For English compounds some of these factors are not very reliable. As a rule English compounds have one uniting stress (usually on the first component), e.g. hard-cover, best-seller. We can also have a double stress in an English compound, with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. blood-vessel. The third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. snow-white,sky-blue. The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphonated spelling.

Spelling in English compounds is not very reliable as well because they can have different spelling even in the same text, e.g. war-ship, blood-vessel can be spelt through a hyphen and also with a break, iinsofar, underfoot can be spelt solidly and with a break. All the more so that there has appeared in Modern English a special type of compound words which are called block compounds, they have one uniting stress but are spelt with a break, e.g. air piracy, cargo module, coin change, pinguin suit etc.

The semantic unity of a compound word is often very strong. In such cases we have idiomatic compounds where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. to ghostwrite, skinhead, brain-drain etc. In nonidiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e. g., airbus, to bloodtransfuse, astrodynamics etc.

English compounds have the unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. They are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically, e.g. These girls are chatter-boxes. «Chatter-boxes» is a predicative in the sentence and only the second component changes grammatically.

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

a) Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. «a green-house» and «a green house». Whereas for example in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule.

b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. middle-of-the-road, off-the-record, up-and-doing etc. The two-stem pattern distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

**WAYS OF FORMING COMPOUND WORDS.**

Compound words in English can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of :

a) reduplication, e.g. too-too, and also by means of reduplicatin combined with sound interchange , e.g. rope-ripe,

b) conversion from word-groups, e.g. to micky-mouse, can-do, makeup etc,

c) back formation from compound nouns or word-groups, e.g. to bloodtransfuse, to fingerprint etc ,

d) analogy, e.g. lie-in ( on the analogy with sit-in) and also phone-in, brawn-drain (on the analogy with brain-drain) etc.

# CLASSIFICATIONS OF ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into:

a) nouns, such as : baby-moon, globe-trotter,

b) adjectives, such as : free-for-all, power-happy,

c) verbs, such as : to honey-moon, to baby-sit, to henpeck,

d) adverbs, such as: downdeep, headfirst,

e) prepositions, such as: into, within,

f) numerals, such as : fifty-five.

2. According to the way components are joined together compounds are divided into:

a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. ball-point, to windowshop,

b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element : vowels «o» or «i» or the consonant «s», e.g. {«astrospace», «handicraft», «sportsman»),

c) syntactical where the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. here-and-now, free-for-all., do-or-die .

3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:

a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e.g. to job-hunt, train-sick, go-go, tip-top ,

b) derivational compounds, where besides the stems we have affixes, e.g. ear-minded, hydro-skimmer,

c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter,

d) compound-shortened words, e.g. boatel, tourmobile, VJ-day, motocross, intervision, Eurodollar, Camford.

4. According to the relations between the components compound words are subdivided into :

a) subordinative compounds where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate; these subordinative relations can be different:

with comparative relations, e.g. honey-sweet, eggshell-thin, with limiting relations, e.g. breast-high, knee-deep, with emphatic relations, e.g. dog-cheap, with objective relations, e.g. gold-rich, with cause relations, e.g. love-sick, with space relations, e.g. top-heavy, with time relations, e.g. spring-fresh, with subjective relations, e.g. foot-sore etc

b) coordinative compounds where both components are semantically independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two functions, e.g. secretary-stenographer, woman-doctor, Oxbridge etc. Such compounds are called additive. This group includes also compounds formed by means of reduplication, e.g. fifty-fifty, no-no, and also compounds formed with the help of rhythmic stems (reduplication combined with sound interchange) e.g. criss-cross, walkie-talkie.

5. According to the order of the components compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e.g. kill-joy, and compounds with indirect order, e.g. nuclear-free, rope-ripe .

# CONVERSION

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists, e.g. prof. A.I. Smirntitsky treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to form the verb «to dial» from the noun «dial» we change the paradigm of the noun (a dial,dials) for the paradigm of a regular verb (I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing). A. Marchand in his book «The Categories and Types of Present-day English» treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. I need some good paper for my room. (The noun «paper» is an object in the sentence). I paper my room every year. (The verb «paper» is the predicate in the sentence).

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, e.g.

a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body e.g. to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail,

b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to crowd, to wolf, to ape,

c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper,

d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket,

e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted e.g. to winter, to week-end .

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, e.g. to tame (to become or make tame) , to clean, to slim etc.

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

a) instant of an action e.g. a jump, a move,

b) process or state e.g. sleep, walk,

c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a help, a flirt, a scold ,

d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a burn, a find, a purchase,

e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a drive, a stop, a walk.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the Singular form and denote momentaneous actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as : to have, to get, to take etc., e.g. to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim .

# 1.3 LECTURE 3. WORDBUILDING

# CRITERIA OF SEMANTIC DERIVATION

In cases of conversion the problem of criteria of semantic derivation arises : which of the converted pair is primary and which is converted from it. The problem was first analized by prof. A.I. Smirnitsky. Later on P.A. Soboleva developed his idea and worked out the following criteria:

1. If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide the word is primary, e.g. in cases pen - to pen, father - to father the nouns are names of an object and a living being. Therefore in the nouns «pen» and «father» the lexical meaning of the root and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide. The verbs «to pen» and « to father» denote an action, a process therefore the lexico-grammatical meanings of the stems do not coincide with the lexical meanings of the roots. The verbs have a complex semantic structure and they were converted from nouns.

2. If we compare a converted pair with a synonymic word pair which was formed by means of suffixation we can find out which of the pair is primary. This criterion can be applied only to nouns converted from verbs, e.g. «chat» n. and «chat» v. can be compared with «conversation» - «converse».

3. The criterion based on derivational relations is of more universal character. In this case we must take a word-cluster of relative words to which the converted pair belongs. If the root stem of the word-cluster has suffixes added to a noun stem the noun is primary in the converted pair and vica versa, e.g. in the word-cluster : hand n., hand v., handy, handful the derived words have suffixes added to a noun stem, that is why the noun is primary and the verb is converted from it. In the word-cluster: dance n., dance v., dancer, dancing we see that the primary word is a verb and the noun is converted from it.

# SUBSTANTIVIZATION OF ADJECTIVES

Some scientists (Yespersen, Kruisinga ) refer substantivization of adjectives to conversion. But most scientists disagree with them because in cases of substantivization of adjectives we have quite different changes in the language. Substantivization is the result of ellipsis (syntactical shortening ) when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun (man, person etc), e.g. «a grown-up person» is shortened to «a grown-up». In cases of perfect substantivization the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun , e.g. a criminal, criminals, a criminal’s (mistake) , criminals’ (mistakes). Such words are used in a sentence in the same function as nouns, e.g. I am fond of musicals. (musical comedies).

There are also two types of partly substantivized adjectives:

those which have only the plural form and have the meaning of collective nouns, such as: sweets, news, empties, finals, greens,

 those which have only the singular form and are used with the definite article. They also have the meaning of collective nouns and denote a class, a nationality, a group of people, e.g. the rich, the English, the dead .

**«STONE WALL» COMBINATIONS.**

The problem whether adjectives can be formed by means of conversion from nouns is the subject of many discussions. In Modern English there are a lot of word combinations of the type , e.g. price rise, wage freeze, steel helmet, sand castle etc.

If the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English (adjective + noun). This point of view is proved by O. Yespersen by the following facts:

1. «Stone» denotes some quality of the noun «wall».

2. «Stone» stands before the word it modifies, as adjectives in the function of an attribute do in English.

3. «Stone» is used in the Singular though its meaning in most cases is plural,and adjectives in English have no plural form.

4. There are some cases when the first component is used in the Comparative or the Superlative degree, e.g. the bottomest end of the scale.

5. The first component can have an adverb which characterizes it, and adjectives are characterized by adverbs, e.g. a purely family gathering.

6. The first component can be used in the same syntactical function with a proper adjective to characterize the same noun, e.g. lonely bare stone houses.

7. After the first component the pronoun «one» can be used instead of a noun, e.g. I shall not put on a silk dress, I shall put on a cotton one.

However Henry Sweet and some other scientists say that these criteria are not characterisitc of the majority of such units.

 They consider the first component of such units to be a noun in the function of an attribute because in Modern English almost all parts of speech and even word-groups and sentences can be used in the function of an attribute, e.g. the then president (an adverb), out-of-the-way vilages (a word-group), a devil-may-care speed (a sentence).

There are different semantic relations between the components of «stone wall» combinations. E.I. Chapnik classified them into the following groups:

1. time relations, e.g. evening paper,

2. space relations, e.g. top floor,

3. relations between the object and the material of which it is made, e.g. steel helmet,

4. cause relations, e.g. war orphan,

5. relations between a part and the whole, e.g. a crew member,

6. relations between the object and an action, e.g. arms production,

7. relations between the agent and an action e.g. government threat, price rise,

8. relations between the object and its designation, e.g. reception hall,

9. the first component denotes the head, organizer of the characterized object, e.g. Clinton government, Forsyte family,

10. the first component denotes the field of activity of the second component, e.g. language teacher, psychiatry doctor,

11. comparative relations, e.g. moon face,

12. qualitative relations, e.g. winter apples.

# ABBREVIATION

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms , initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here we have modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing «fanaticus» is shortened to «fan» on the analogy with native words: man, pan, tan etc.

There are two main types of shortenings : graphical and lexical.

# Graphical abbreviations

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form,e.g. for example (Latin exampli gratia), a.m. - in the morning (ante meridiem), No - number (numero), p.a. - a year (per annum), d - penny (dinarius), lb - pound (libra), i. e. - that is (id est) etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. p.m. can be pronounced «in the afternoon» (post meridiem) and «after death» (post mortem).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them :

a) days of the week, e.g. Mon - Monday, Tue - Tuesday etc

b) names of months, e.g. Apr - April, Aug - August etc.

c) names of counties in UK, e.g. Yorks - Yorkshire, Berks -Berkshire etc

d) names of states in USA, e.g. Ala - Alabama, Alas - Alaska etc.

e) names of address, e.g. Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr. etc.

f) military ranks, e.g. capt. -captain, col. - colonel, sgt - sergeant etc.

g) scientific degrees, e.g. B.A. - Bachelor of Arts, D.M. - Doctor of Medicine . ( Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g., M.B. - Medicinae Baccalaurus).

h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. f. / ft -foot/feet, sec. - second, in. -inch, mg. - milligram etc.

The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g. «m» can be read as: male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, «l.p.» can be read as long-playing, low pressure.

**Initial abbreviations**

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. J.V. - joint venture. When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. BBC is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, United States) is given in Russian as АНЗУС, SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) was for a long time used in Russian as СОЛТ, now a translation variant is used (ОСВ -Договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений). This type of initialisms borrowed into other languages is preferable, e.g. UFO - НЛО, CП - JV etc.

 There are three types of initialisms in English:

a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK, BUP, CND etc

b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. UNESCO, UNO, NATO etc.

c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. CLASS (Computor-based Laboratory for Automated School System).

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of wordbuilding:

a) affixation, e.g. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia etc.

b) conversion, e.g. to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),

c) composition, e.g. STOLport, USAFman etc.

d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V -day etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. Three -Ds (Three dimensions) - стереофильм.

 **Abbreviations of words**

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different form the full form of the word. In such cases as »fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defence» we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as «laboratory» and «lab», we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. prof is a noun and professor is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as to rev from to revolve, to tab from to tabulate etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. to taxi, to vac etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections. conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one’s teens (apheresis from numerals from 13 to 19).

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as disco (dicotheque), expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where «o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. combo (combination) - небольшой эстрадный ансамбль, Afro (African) -прическа под африканца etc. In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis , e.g. chute (parachute), varsity (university), copter (helicopter) , thuse (enthuse) etc. Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g. mart (market), fanzine (fan magazine) maths (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with apheresis,when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. tec (detective), van (avanguard) etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. «c» can be substituted by «k» before «e» to preserve pronunciation, e.g. mike (microphone), Coke (coca-cola) etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: fax( facsimile), teck (technical college), trank (tranquilizer) etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituded by letters characteristic of native English words.

**Лекція 3.** Wordbuilding.(Вторинні види словотворення)

**SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDBUILDING**

 **SOUND INTERCHANGE**

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English, it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists., e.g. to strike - stroke, to sing - song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root ( regressive assimilation), e.g. hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian) etc.

In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position, e.g. bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe etc.

 **STRESS INTERCHANGE**

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin : nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. `accent - to ac`cent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end) . Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as : to af`fix -`affix, to con`flict- `conflict, to ex`port -`export, to ex`tract - `extract etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

 **SOUND IMITATION**

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as : to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc.

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as : to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc.

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as : to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle etc.

The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, e.g. clang (of a bell), chatter (of children) etc.

 **BLENDS**

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined : abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis) . As a result we have a compound- shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms : smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them.

Blends formed from two synonyms are: slanguange, to hustle, gasohol etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as : acromania (acronym mania), cinemadict (cinema adict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (drama comedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), informecial (information commercial) , Medicare ( medical care) , magalog ( magazine catalogue) slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), sociolite (social elite), slanguist ( slang linguist) etc.

 **BACK FORMATION**

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the languauge as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word . Prof. Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem (speak- speaker). So when the French word «beggar» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English -er and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are : to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocate (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce ( from reminiscence) , to televise (from television) etc.

 As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.

**Лекція 4**. PHRASEOLOGY. (Фразеологія)

 The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

 Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways they are formed, according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

 **WAYS OF FORMING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS**

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

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

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «стартовая площадка» , in its transferred meaning - «отправной пункт», «to link up» - «cтыковаться, стыковать космические корабли» in its tranformed meaning it means -«знакомиться»;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. «granny farm» - «пансионат для престарелых», «Troyan horse» - «компьюторная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера»;

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration , e.g. «a sad sack» - «несчастный случай», «culture vulture» - «человек, интересующийся искусством», «fudge and nudge» - «уклончивость».

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g. «My aunt!», « Hear, hear !» etc

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»,

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. «in brown study» means «in gloomy meditation» where both components preserve their archaic meanings,

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. «that cock won’t fight» can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting ), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. «to have butterflies in the stomach» - «испытывать волнение», «to have green fingers» - »преуспевать как садовод-любитель» etc.

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or polititions in everyday life, e.g. «corridors of power» (Snow), «American dream» (Alby) «locust years» (Churchil) , «the winds of change» (Mc Millan).

 Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit; they are:

a) conversion, e.g. «to vote with one’s feet» was converted into «vote with one’s f eet»;

b) changing the grammar form, e.g. «Make hay while the sun shines» is transferred into a verbal phrase - «to make hay while the sun shines»;

c) analogy, e.g. «Curiosity killed the cat» was transferred into «Care killed the cat»;

d) contrast, e.g. «cold surgery» - «a planned before operation» was formed by contrasting it with «acute surgery», «thin cat» - «a poor person» was formed by contrasting it with «fat cat»;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e.g. from the proverb «You can’t make a silk purse out of a sow’s ear» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «to make a sow’s ear» was formed with the meaning «ошибаться».

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

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

 **SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS**

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

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

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

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

 **STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS**

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

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

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

b) units of the type «to be tired» . Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositons with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions «by» or «with», e.g. to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at etc. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type «to be young», e.g. to be akin to, to be aware of etc. The difference between them is that the adjective «young» can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

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

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

a) attributive-nominal such as: a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one’s neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e.g. high road, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e.g. first night. In many cases both components are idiomatic, e.g. red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others.

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

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type to have a glance, to have a smoke. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect.

c) phraseological repetitions, such as : now or never, part and parcel , country and western etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, e.g. ups and downs , back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g cakes and ale, as busy as a bee. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, e.g. cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly).

Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), e.g. to take a back seat, a peg to hang a thing on, lock, stock and barrel, to be a shaddow of one’s own self, at one’s own sweet will.

 **SYNTACTICAL CLASSIFICATION**

 **OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS**

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

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets,

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. to break the log-jam, to get on somebody’s coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out , to make headlines,

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g. loose as a goose, dull as lead ,

d) adverb phraseological units, such as : with a bump, in the soup, like a dream , like a dog with two tails,

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

f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. «Catch me!», «Well, I never!» etc.

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

Лекція 1. SEMASIOLOGY.(Семантика).

# LECTURE 6.

 **SEMASIOLOGY**

The branch of lexicology which deals with the meaning is called semasiology.

 **WORD - MEANING**

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner aspect (its meaning) . Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. E.g. the word «temple» may denote «a part of a human head» and «a large church» In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb «treat» in sentences:

a) He treated my words as a joke.

b) The book treats of poetry.

c) They treated me to sweets.

d) He treats his son cruelly.

In all these sentences the verb «treat» has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy.

On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms, e.g. «pilot» , and «airman», «horror» and «terror». In such cases we have synonyms.

Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. E.g. the Old English /luvian/ is pronounced /l^v / in Modern English. On the other hand, «board» primariliy means « a piece of wood sawn thin» It has developed the meanings: a table, a board of a ship, a stage, a council etc.

 **LEXICAL MEANING - NOTION**

The lexical meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exict without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which do not express any notion but have a lexical meaning. Interjections express emotions but not notions, but they have lexical meanings, e.g. Alas! /disappointment/, Oh,my buttons! /surprise/ etc. There are also words which express both, notions and emotions, e.g. girlie, a pig /when used metaphorically/.

The term «notion» was introduced into lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level. While meanings can be nationally limited. Grouping of meanings in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language. E.g. the English verb «go» and its Russian equivalent «идти» have some meanings which coincide: to move from place to place, to extend /the road goes to London/, to work /Is your watch going?/. On the other hand, they have different meanings: in Russian we say :»Вот он идет» , in English we use the verb «come» in this case. In English we use the verb «go» in the combinations: «to go by bus», «to go by train» etc. In Russian in these cases we use the verb «ехать».

The number of meanings does not correspond to the number of words, neither does the number of notions. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Russian has two words for the English «man»: « мужчина» and «человек». In English, however, «man» cannot be applied to a female person. We say in Russian: «Она хороший человек». In English we use the word «person»/ She is a good person»/

Development of lexical meanings in any language is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between words and other aspects of the language.

  **POLYSEMY**

The word «polysemy» means «plurality of meanings» it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word «blanket» has the following meanings: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind /a blanket of snow/, covering all or most cases /used attributively/, e.g. we can say «a blanket insurance policy».

There are some words in the language which are monosemantic, such as most terms, /synonym, molecule, bronchites/, some pronouns /this, my, both/, numerals.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatination. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primmary meaning. E.g. in the word «face» the primary meaning denotes «the front part of the human head» Connected with the front position the meanings: the front part of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card were formed. Connected with the word «face» itself the meanings : expression of the face, outward appearance are formed.

In cases of concatination secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. E.g. in the word «crust» the primary meaning «hard outer part of bread» developed a secondary meaning «hard part of anything /a pie, a cake/», then the meaning »harder layer over soft snow» was developed, then «a sullen gloomy person», then «impudence» were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called the split of polysemy.

In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined.

 **HOMONYMS**

Homonyms are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling.

Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. «care» from «caru» and «care» from «carian». They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. «to slim» from «slim», «to water» from «water». They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. «reader»/ a person who reads and a book for reading/.

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: «to bear» from «beran»/to carry/ and «bear» from «bera»/an animal/. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. «fair» from Latin «feria» and «fair « from native «fager» /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide e.g. «base» from the French «base» /Latin basis/ and «base» /low/ from the Latin «bas» /Italian «basso»/.

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. «cab» from «cabriolet», «cabbage», «cabin».

 **Classifications of homonyms.**

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as : «school» - «косяк рыбы» and «школа» ; homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently, e.g. «bow» -/bau/ - «поклон» and /bou/ - «лук»; homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. «night» - «ночь» and «knight» - «рыцарь».

Another classification was suggested by A.I Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat’s classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat’s classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as :»spring» in the meanings: the season of the year, a leap, a source, and homoforms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning, e.g. «reading» - Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun., to lobby - lobby .

A more detailed classification was given by I.V. Arnold. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. «board» in the meanings «a council» and « a piece of wood sawn thin»; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. to lie - lied - lied, and to lie - lay - lain; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. «light» / «lights»/, «light» / «lighter», «lightest»/; d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. «a bit» and «bit» (from « to bite»).

In I. V. Arnold’s classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «warm» - «to warm». Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, e.g. «before» an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic foms, e.g. « for» - «для» and «for» - «ибо».

 **SYNONYMS**

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, e.g. hearty / native/ - cordial/ borrowing/. After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, e.g. to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland etc. In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. «city» /borrowed/, «town» /native/. The French borrowing «city» is specialized. In other cases native words can be specialized in their meanings, e.g. «stool» /native/, «chair» /French/.

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms, e.g. «to begin»/ native/, «to commence» /borrowing/. Here the French word is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized, e.g. «welkin» /bookish/, «sky» /neutral/.

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation. In most cases the abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style, e.g. «examination’, «exam».

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms. These are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g «the late» instead of «dead», «to perspire» instead of «to sweat» etc.

There are also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, e.g. «to be late for a lecture» but «to miss the train», «to visit museums» but «to attend lectures» etc.

In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. «piece» is the synonymic dominant in the group «slice», «lump», «morsel». The verb « to look at» is the synonymic dominant in the group «to stare», «to glance», «to peep». The adjective «red’ is the synonymic dominant in the group «purple», «scarlet», «crimson».

When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, e.g. «to give up» - «to abandon», «to cut down» - «to diminish».

  **ANTONYMS**

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions.

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups : absolute or root antonyms /»late» - «early»/ and derivational antonyms / «to please’ - «to displease»/ . Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms / un-, dis-, non-/. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes -ful and -less.

The number of antonyms with the suffixes ful- and -less is not very large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its antonym is formed not by substituting -ful by less-, e.g. «successful» -»unsuccessful», «selfless» - «selfish». The same is true about antonyms with negative prefixes, e.g. «to man» is not an antonym of the word «to unman», «to disappoint» is not an antonym of the word «to appoint».

The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, e.g. «active»- «inactive». Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms, e.g. «ugly» , «plain», «good-looking», «pretty», «beautiful», the antonyms are «ugly» and «beautiful».

Leonard Lipka in the book «Outline of English Lexicology» describes different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types:

a) complementary, e.g. male -female, married -single,

b) antonyms, e.g. good -bad,

c) converseness, e.g. to buy - to sell.

In his classification he describes complimentarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa. «John is not married» implies that «John is single». The type of oppositeness is based on yes/no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units.

Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from complimentarity by being based on different logical relationships. For pairs of antonyms like good/bad, big/small only the second one of the above mentioned relations of implication holds. The assertion containing one member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. «John is good» implies that «John is not bad», but «John is not good» does not imply that «John is bad». The negation of one term does not necessarily implies the assertion of the other.

An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms are always fully gradable, e.g. hot, warm, tepid, cold.

Converseness is mirror-image relations or functions, e.g. husband/wife, pupil/teacher, preceed/follow, above/below, before/after etc.

«John bought the car from Bill» implies that «Bill sold the car to John». Mirror-image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between active and passive sentences. Also in the comparative form: »Y is smaller than X, then X is larger than Y».

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition up/down, consiquence opposition learn/know, antipodal opposition North/South, East/West, ( it is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions.) The pairs come/go, arrive/depart involve motion in different directions. In the case up/down we have movement from a point P. In the case come/go we have movement from or to the speaker.

L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as scales / hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold/ ; colour words / black, grey, white/ ; ranks /marshal, general, colonel, major, captain etc./ There are gradable examination marks / excellent, good, average, fair, poor/. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time /spring, summer, autumn, winter/ . In this case there are no «outermost» members.

Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives, e.g. beautiful- ugly, to beautify - to uglify, beauty - ugliness. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states, e.g. respect - scorn, to respect - to scorn, respectful - scornful, to live - to die, alive - dead, life - death. It can be also met among words denoting direction in space and time, e.g. here - there, up - down , now - never, before - after, day - night, early - late etc.

If a word is polysemantic it can have several antonyms, e.g. the word «bright» has the antonyms «dim», «dull», «sad».

  **BORROWINGS**

Borrowing words from other languages is characteristic of English throughout its history More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characterisitic of borrowings to be non-motivated semantically.

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Cristianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings are fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words.

English continues to take in foreign words , but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundunt as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a «giving» language, it has become Lingva franca of the twentieth century.

Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria:

a) according to the aspect which is borrowed,

b) according to the degree of assimilation,

c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed.

(In this classification only the main languages from which words were borrowed into English are described, such as Latin, French, Italian. Spanish, German and Russian.)

**CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING TO THE BORROWED ASPECT**

There are the following groups: phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: labour, travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik are phonetic borrowings from Russian; bank, soprano, duet are phonetic borrowings from Italian etc.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme ) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin), «fair sex» ( French), «living space» (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e.g. Sunday (solis dies). There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: «pipe of peace», «pale-faced», from German «masterpiece», «homesickness», «superman».

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e.g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning «to live» for the word «to dwell’ which in Old English had the meaning «to wander». Or else the meaning «дар» , «подарок» for the word «gift» which in Old English had the meaning «выкуп за жену».

Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e.g. «brigade» was borrowed into Russian and formed the meaning «a working collective«,»бригада». This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing. The same is true of the English word «pioneer».

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, e.g. we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words - hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, e.g. «goddess», «beautiful» etc.

**CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF ASSIMILATION**

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors: a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier, b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker, c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated, d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is.

Accordingly borrowings are subdivided into: completely assimilated, partly assimilated and non-assimilated (barbarisms).

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, cf the French word «sport» and the native word «start». Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e.g. correct -corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion, e.g. gate- gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, e.g. the Russian borrowing «sputnik» is used in English only in one of its meanings.

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, e.g. sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass etc.

b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum -data, genius - genii etc.

c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds /v/ and /z/, e.g. voice, zero. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds /f/ and /s/ ( loss - lose, life - live ). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e.g. /sk/ in the words: sky, skate, ski etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph «sh», e.g. shirt); sounds /k/ and /g/ before front vowels are not palatalized e.g. girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle. In native words we have palatalization , e.g. German, child.

Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, e.g. police, cartoon. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, e.g. /a:3/ in the words : camouflage, bourgeois, some of them retain the combination of sounds /wa:/ in the words: memoir, boulevard.

d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greak borrowings «y» can be spelled in the middle of the word (symbol, synonym), «ph» denotes the sound /f/ (phoneme, morpheme), «ch» denotes the sound /k/(chemistry, chaos),«ps» denotes the sound /s/ (psychology).

Latin borrowings retain their polisyllabic structure, have double consonants, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix is assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem, (accompany, affirmative).

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e.g. consonants «p», «t», «s» are not pronounced at the end of the word (buffet, coup, debris), Specifically French combination of letters «eau» /ou/ can be found in the borrowings : beau, chateau, troussaeu. Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: ‘ch’ is pronounced as /sh/, e.g. chic, parachute, ‘qu’ is pronounced as /k/ e.g. bouquet, «ou» is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. rouge; some letters retain their French pronunciation, e.g. «i» is pronounced as /i:/, e,g, chic, machine; «g» is pronounced as /3/, e.g. rouge.

 Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e.g. Autobahn, Lebensraum; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e.g. «a» is pronounced as /a:/ (Dictat), «u» is pronounced as /u:/ (Kuchen), «au» is pronounced as /au/ (Hausfrau), «ei» is pronounced as /ai/ (Reich); some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e.g. «s» before a vowel is pronounced as /z/ (Sitskrieg), «v» is pronounced as /f/ (Volkswagen), «w» is pronounced as /v/ , «ch» is pronounced as /h/ (Kuchen).

 Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. addio (Italian), tete-a-tete (French), dolce vita (Italian), duende (Spanish), an homme a femme (French), gonzo (Italian) etc.

**CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING**

**TO THE LANGUAGE FROM WHICH THEY WERE BORROWED**

 **ROMANIC BORROWINGS**

 **Latin borrowings.**

 Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: street, port, wall etc. Many Latin and Greek words came into English during the Adoption of Christianity in the 6-th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: alter, cross, dean, and Greek words: church, angel, devil, anthem.

 Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, e.g. formula - formulae. Here also belong such words as: memorandum, minimum, maximum, veto etc.

Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (appendicitis, aspirin), in chemistry (acid, valency, alkali), in technique (engine, antenna, biplane, airdrome), in politics (socialism, militarism), names of sciences (zoology, physics) . In philology most of terms are of Greek origin (homonym, archaism, lexicography).

 **French borrowings**

 The influence of French on the English spelling.

The largest group of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, e.g. «v» was introduced for the voiced consonant /v/ instead of «f» in the intervocal position /lufian - love/, the digraph «ch» was introduced to denote the sound /ch/ instead of the letter «c» / chest/ before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph «sh» was introduced instead of the combination «sc» to denote the sound /sh/ /ship/, the digraph «th» was introduced instead of the Runic letters «0» and « » /this, thing/, the letter «y» was introduced instead of the Runic letter «3» to denote the sound /j/ /yet/, the digraph «qu» substituted the combination «cw» to denote the combination of sounds /kw/ /queen/, the digraph «ou» was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ /house/ (The sound /u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter «u» before «v», «m», «n» and the digraph «th» by the letter «o» to escape the combination of many vertical lines /«sunu» - «son», luvu» - «love»/.

 **Borrowing of French words.**

There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings:

a) words relating to government : administer, empire, state, government;

b) words relating to military affairs: army, war, banner, soldier, battle;

c) words relating to jury: advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister;

d) words relating to fashion: luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery;

e) words relating to jewelry: topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl ;

f) words relating to food and cooking: lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew.

Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings:

a) words relating to literature and music: belle-lettres, conservatorie, brochure, nuance, piruette, vaudeville;

b) words relating to military affairs: corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre;

c) words relating to buildings and furniture: entresol, chateau, bureau;

d) words relating to food and cooking: ragout, cuisine.

 **Italian borrowings.**

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word «bank» /from the Italian «banko» - «bench»/. Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called «banco rotta» from which the English word «bankrupt» originated. In the 17-th century some geological terms were borrowed : volcano, granite, bronze, lava. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: manifesto, bulletin.

But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian : alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin.

Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention : gazette, incognitto, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, diletante, grotesque, graffitto etc.

 **Spanish borrowings.**

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:

a) trade terms: cargo, embargo;

b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar;

c) names of vegetables and fruit: tomato, potato, tobbaco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot etc.

 **GERMANIC BORROWINGS**

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages.

 **Scandinavian borrowings.**

By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English.

Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life,their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, e.g.

 ON OE Modern E

 syster sweoster sister

 fiscr fisc fish

 felagi felawe fellow

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English , such nouns as: bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window etc, such adjectives as: flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong, such verbs as : call, die, guess, get, give, scream and many others.

Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as : same, both, till, fro, though, and pronominal forms with «th»: they, them, their.

Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage, e.g. ofniman, beniman. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English /take off, give in etc/.

  **German borrowings.**

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e.g. in some geological terms, such as: cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten etc.

In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Berufsverbot, Volkswagen etc.

 **Holland borrowings.**

Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th century, such as: freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak and many others.

Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages. We shall speak about Russian borrowings, borrowings from the language which belongs to Slavoninc languages.

  **Russian borrowings.**

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: rouble, copeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, and also words relating to nature, such as: taiga, tundra, steppe etc.

There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Rushian literature of the 19-th century, such as : Narodnik, moujik, duma, zemstvo. volost, ukase etc, and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: nihilist, intelligenzia, Decembrist etc.

After the Great October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, such as: collectivization. udarnik, Komsomol etc and also translation loans, such as: shock worker, collective farm, five-year plan etc.

One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as: glasnost, nomenklatura, apparatchik etc.

 **ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS**

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called etymological doublets. In English there are some groups of them:

  **Latino-French doublets.**

Latin English from Latin English from French

uncia inch ounce

moneta mint money

camera camera chamber

 **Franco-French doublets**

**doublets borrowed from different dialects of French.**

 Norman Paris

 canal channel

 captain chieftain

 catch chaise

 **Scandinavian-English doublets**

 Scandinavian English

 skirt shirt

 scabby shabby

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentil - любезный, благородный, etymological doublets are: gentle - мягкий, вежливый and genteel - благородный. From the French word gallant etymological doublets are : ‘gallant - храбрый and ga’llant - галантный, внимательный.

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, e.g. the Comparative degree of Latin «super» was «superior» which was borrowed into English with the meaning «high in some quality or rank». The Superlative degree (Latin «supremus»)in English «supreme» with the meaning «outstanding», «prominent». So «superior» and «supreme» are etymological doublets.

Лекція: 2 **LOCAL VARIETIES OF ENGLISH ON THE BRITISH ISLES (Варіанти англійської мови)**

**LOCAL VARIETIES OF ENGLISH**

**ON THE BRITISH ISLES**

On the British Isles there are some local varieties of English which developed from Old English local dialects. There are six groups of them: Lowland /Scottish/ , Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, Southern. These varieties are used in oral speech by the local population. Only the Scottish dialect has its own literature /R. Berns/.

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London - Cockney. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of «Pigmalion» by B. Shaw, such as : interchange of /v/ and /w/ e.g. wery vell; interchange of /f/ and /0/ , /v/ and / /, e. g/ fing /thing/ and fa:ve / father/; interchange of /h/ and /-/ , e.g. «’eart» for «heart» and «hart» for «art; substituting the diphthong /ai/ by /ei/ e.g. «day» is pronounced /dai/; substituting /au/ by /a:/ , e.g. «house» is pronounced /ha:s/,«now« /na:/ ; substituting /ou/ by /o:/ e.g. «don’t» is pronounced /do:nt/ or substituting it by / / in unstressed positions, e.g. «window» is pronounced /wind /.

Another feature of Cockney is rhyming slang: «hat» is «tit for tat», «wife» is «trouble and strife», «head» is «loaf of bread» etc. There are also such words as «tanner» /sixpence/, «peckish»/hungry/.

Peter Wain in the «Education Guardian» writes about accents spoken by University teachers: «It is a variety of Southern English RP which is different from Daniel Jones’s description. The English, public school leavers speak, is called «marked RP», it has some characteristic features : the vowels are more central than in English taught abroad, e.g. «bleck het»/for «black hat»/, some diphthongs are also different, e.g. «house» is pronounced /hais/. There is less aspiration in /p/, /b/, /t/ /d/.

The American English is practically uniform all over the country, because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other. However, some peculiarities in New York dialect can be pointed out, such as: there is no distinction between / / and /a: / in words: «ask», «dance» «sand» «bad», both phonemes are possible. The combination «ir» in the words: «bird», «girl» «ear» in the word «learn» is pronoinced as /oi/ e.g. /boid/, /goil/, /loin/.In the words «duty’, «tune» /j/ is not pronounced /du:ti/, /tu:n/.

 **BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH**

British and American English are two main variants of English. Besides them there are : Canadian, Australian, Indian, New Zealand and other variants. They have some peculiarities in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, but they are easily used for communication between people living in these countries. As far as the American English is concerned, some scientists /H.N. Menken, for example/ tried to prove that there is a separate American language. In 1919 H.N. Menken published a book called «The American Language». But most scientists, American ones including, criticized his point of view because differences between the two variants are not systematic.

American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17-th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First.

In the earliest period the task of Englishmen was to find names for places, animals, plants, customs which they came across on the American continent. They took some of names from languages spoken by the local population - Indians, such as :»chipmuck»/an American squirrel/, «igloo» /Escimo dome-shaped hut/, «skunk» / a black and white striped animal with a bushy tail/, «squaw» / an Indian woman/, »wigwam» /an American Indian tent made of skins and bark/ etc.

Besides Englishmen, settlers from other countries came to America, and English-speaking settlers mixed with them and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from French the words «bureau»/a writing desk/, «cache» /a hiding place for treasure, provision/, «depot’/ a store-house/, «pumpkin»/a plant bearing large edible fruit/. From Spanish such words as: »adobe» / unburnt sun-dried brick/, »bananza» /prosperity/, «cockroach» /a beetle-like insect/, «lasso» / a noosed rope for catching cattle/ were borrowed.

 Present-day New York stems from the Dutch colony New Amsterdam, and Dutch also influenced English. Such words as: «boss», «dope», «sleigh» were borrowed .

The second period of American English history begins in the 19-th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. When large groups of immigrants from the same country came to America some of their words were borrowed into English. Italians brought with them a style of cooking which became widely spread and such words as: «pizza», «spaghetti» came into English. From the great number of German-speaking settlers the following words were borrowed into English: «delicatessen», «lager», «hamburger», «noodle», «schnitzel» and many others.

During the second period of American English history there appeared quite a number of words and word-groups which were formed in the language due to the new poitical system, liberation of America from the British colonialism, its independence. The following lexical units appeared due to these events: the United States of America , assembly, caucus, congress, Senate, congressman, President, senator, precinct, Vice-President and many others. Besides these political terms many other words were coined in American English in the 19-th century: to antagonize, to demoralize, influential, department store, telegram, telephone and many others.

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week BE requres «on» / I start my holiday on Friday/, in American English there is no preposition / I start my vacation Friday/. In Be we use «by day», «by night»/»at night», in AE the corresponding forms are «days» and «nights». In BE we say «at home» , in AE - «home» is used. In BE we say «a quarter to five», in AE «a quarter of five». In BE we say «in the street», in AE - «on the street». In BE we say «to chat to somebody», in AE «to chat with somebody». In BE we say «different to something», in AE - «different from someting».

There are also units of vocabulary which are different while denoting the same notions, e.g. BE - «trousers», AE -«pants»; in BE «pants» are «трусы» which in AE is «shorts». While in BE «shorts» are outwear. This can lead to misunderstanding. There are some differences in names of places:

 BE AE BE AE

passage hall cross-roads intersection

pillar box mail-box the cinema the movies

studio, bed-sitter one-room appartment

flyover overpass zebra crossing Pxing

pavement sidewalk tube, uderground subway

tram streetcar flat apartment

surgery doctor’s office lift elevator

Some names of useful objects:

BE AE BE AE

biro ballpoint rubber eraser

tap faucet torch flashlight

parcel package elastic rubber band

carrier bag shopping bag reel of cotton spool of thread

Some words connected with food:

BE AE BE AE

tin can sweets candy

sweet biscuit cookie dry biscuit crackers

sweet dessert chips french fries

minced meat ground beef

Some words denoting personal items:

 BE AE BE AE

fringe bangs/of hair/ turn- ups cuffs

tights pantyhose mackintosh raincoat

ladder run/in a stocking/ braces suspenders

poloneck turtleneck waistcoat vest

Some words denoting people:

 BE AE BE AE

barrister, lawyer, staff /university/ faculty

post-graduate graduate chap, fellow guy

caretaker janitor constable patrolman

shopassistant shopperson bobby cop

 If we speak about cars there are also some differences:

 BE AE BE AE

boot trunk bumpers fenders

a car, an auto, to hire a car to rent a car

Differences in the organization of education lead to different terms. BE «public school» is in fact a private school. It is a fee-paying school not controlled by the local education authorities. AE «public school» is a free local authority school. BE «elementary school» is AE «grade school» BE «secondary school» is AE «high school». In BE « a pupil leaves a secondary school», in AE «a student graduates from a high school» In BE you can graduate from a university or college of education, graduating entails getting a degree.

 A British university student takes three years known as the first, the second and the third years. An American student takes four years, known as freshman, sophomore, junior and senior years. While studying a British student takes a main and subsidiary subjects. An American student majors in a subject and also takes electives. A British student specializes in one main subject, with one subsidiary to get his honours degree. An American student earns credits for successfully completing a number of courses in studies, and has to reach the total of 36 credits to receive a degree.

 **Differences of spelling.**

The reform in the English spelling for American English was introduced by the famous American lexicographer Noah Webster who published his first dictionary in 1806. Those of his proposals which were adopted in the English spelling are as follows:

a) the delition of the letter «u» in words ending in «our», e.g. honor, favor;

b) the delition of the second consonant in words with double consonants, e.g. traveler, wagon,

c) the replacement of «re» by «er» in words of French origin, e.g. theater, center,

d) the delition of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin, e.g.

catalog, program,

e) the replacement of «ce» by «se» in words of Romanic origin, e.g. defense, offense,

d) delition of unpronounced endings in native words, e.g. tho, thro.

 **Differences in pronunciation**

In American English we have r-coloured fully articulated vowels, in the combinations: ar, er, ir, or, ur, our etc. In BE the sound / / corresponds to the AE /^/, e.g. «not». In BE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives «a» is pronounced as /a:/, in AE it is pronounced / / e.g. class, dance, answer, fast etc.

There are some differences in the position of the stress:

 BE AE BE AE

 add`ress adress la`boratory `laboratory

 re`cess `recess re`search `research

 in`quiry `inquiry ex`cess `excess

Some words in BE and AE have different pronunciation, e.g.

 BE AE BE AE

/`fju:tail/ /`fju:t l/ /`dousail / /dos l/

/kla:k/ /kl rk/ /`fig / /figyer/

/ `le3 / / li:3 r/ /lef`ten nt/ /lu:tenant/

/ nai / /ni: r/ /shedju:l/ /skedyu:l/

But these differences in pronunciation do not prevent Englishmen and American from communicating with each other easily and cannot serve as a proof that British and American are different languages.

Words can be classified according to the period of their life in the language. The number of new words in a language is always larger than the number of words which come out of active usage. Accordingly we can have archaisms, that is words which have come out of active usage, and neologisms, that is words which have recently appeared in the language.

 **ARCHAISMS**

Archaisms are words which are no longer used in everyday speech, which have been ousted by their synonyms. Archaisms remain in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

Most of these words are lexical archaisms and they are stylistic synonyms of words which ousted them from the neutral style. Some of them are: steed /horse/, slay /kill/, behold /see/, perchance /perhaps/, woe /sorrow/ etc.

 Sometimes a lexical archaism begins a new life, getting a new meaning, then the old meaning becomes a semantic archaism, e.g. «fair» in the meaning «beautiful» is a semantic archaism, but in the meaning «blond» it belongs to the neutral style.

 Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, then the old affix is considered to be a morphemic archaism, e.g. «beautious» /»ous» was substituted by «ful»/, «bepaint» / «be» was dropped/, «darksome» /»some» was dropped/, «oft» / «en» was added/. etc.

  **NEOLOGISMS**

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called «neology blowup». R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization.

New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called «originater». New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media.

Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word «umbrella» developed the meanings: «авиационное прикрытие», »политическое прикрытие». A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word «ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town». A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.

Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analize the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used:

a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/;

b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/;

c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc;

d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computer’s memory/.

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme «tele», e.g. to telework, to telecommute / to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works/. There are also such words as telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping / when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank/, videobank /computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence/.

In the sphere of lingusitics we have such neologisms as: machine translation, interlingual / an artificial language for machine translation into several languages / and many others.

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance : finger-print scanner / finger prints/, biometric eye-scanner / blood-vessel arrangements in eyes/, voice verification /voice patterns/. These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key.

In the sphere of medicine computors are also used and we have the following neologisms: telemonitory unit / a telemonitory system for treating patience at a distance/.

With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. youthquake - волнения среди молодежи, pussy-footer - политик, идущий на компромисы, Euromarket, Eurodollar, Europarliament, Europol etc.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. belonger - представитель среднего класса, приверженец консервативных взглядов. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type yuppie /young urban professional people/, such as: muppie, gruppie, rumpie, bluppie etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called survivers, a little bit more prosperous are called sustainers, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called emulaters. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called achievers. All these layers of socety are called VAL /Value and Lifestyles/ .

The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called «jet plane travellers».

During Margaret Thatcher’s rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means «People like us» by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays /since 1989/ PLU was substituted by «one of us».

There are a lot of immigrants now in UK , in connection with which neologisms partial and non-partial were formed /имеющие право жить в стране и его антоним/.

The word-group «welfare mother» was formed to denote a non-working single mother living on benefit.

In connection with criminalization of towns in UK volantary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called «neighbourhood watch», «home watch». Criminals wear «stocking masks» not to be recognized.

The higher society has neologisms in their speech, such as : dial-a-meal, dial-a-taxi.

In the language of teen-agers there are such words as : Drugs! /OK/, sweat /бег на длинные дистанции/, task /home composition /, brunch etc.

With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in «speak» appeared in English, e.g. artspeak, sportspeak, medspeak, education-speak, video-speak, cable-speak etc.

There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

a) food e.g. «starter»/ instead of «hors d’oevres»/, macrobiotics / raw vegetables, crude rice/ , longlife milk, clingfilm, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers /beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg- /.

b) clothing, e.g. catsuit /one-piece clinging suit/, slimster , string / miniscule bikini/, hipster / trousers or skirt with the belt on hips/, completenik / a long sweater for trousers/, sweatnik /a long jacket/, pants-skirt, bloomers / lady’s sports trousers/.

c) footwear e.g. winklepickers /shoes with long pointed toes/, thongs /open sandals/, backsters /beech sandals with thick soles/.

d) bags, e.g. bumbag /a small bag worn on the waist/, sling bag /a bag with a long belt/, maitre / a small bag for cosmetics/.

There are also such words as : dangledolly / a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen/, boot-sale /selling from the boot of the car/, touch-tone /a telephone with press-button/.

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into : phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological /word-building/ and phraseological /forming word-groups/.

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. rah-rah /a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades/, «yeck» /»yuck» which are interjections to express repulsion produced the adjective yucky/ yecky. These are strong neologisms.

Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings, such as «perestroika» /Russian/, «solidarnosc» /Polish/, Berufsverbot / German /, dolce vita /Italian/ etc.

Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms.

Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as «free-fall»-»резкое падение курса акций» appeared in 1987 with the stock market crash in October 1987 /on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute/. Here also belong: call-and-recall - вызов на диспансеризацию, bioastronomy -search for life on other planets, rat-out - betrayal in danger , zero-zero (double zero) - ban of longer and shorter range weapon, x-rated /about films terribly vulgar and cruel/, Ameringlish /American English/, tycoonography - a biography of a business tycoon.

There are also abbreviations of different types, such as resto, teen /teenager/, dinky /dual income no kids yet/, ARC /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS/, HIV / human immuno-deficiency virus/.

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. snowmobile /automobile/, danceaholic /alcoholic/, airtel /hotel/, cheeseburger /hamburger/, autocade / cavalcade/.

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, educationalist, slimster, folknik etc. Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. to buy into/ to become involved/, fudge and dudge /avoidance of definite decisions/, and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. electronic virus, Rubic’s cube, retail park, acid rain , boot trade etc.

**Changes in pronunciation.**

In Modern British English there is a tendency to change pronunciation of some sounds and combinations of sounds due to the influence of American English and some other factors. These changes are most noticeable in the speech of teachers and students of the universities in the Southern part of England /Oxford, Cambridge, London/.

There are the following changes in pronouncing vowels:

a) shortening of long vowels, especially at the end of the word and before voiceless consonants, e.g. see, keep;

b) lengthening of short vowels before voiced consonants, e.g. big, good, come, jam etc. In such adjectives which end in /d/ lengthening of the vowel is observed all over England, e.g. bad, sad, glad, mad etc.

c) drawling of stressed syllables and clipping of unstressed syllables.

d) In unstressed syllables / / is pronounced instead of / i /, e.g. /b `ko:z/, /`evid ns/ etc.

e) In the words consisting of three or more syllables there is a tendency to have two main stresses,e.g. /`nes `s ri/, /`int `restin/.

f) The diphthong /ou/ is pronounced / u/,e.g. home /h um/, go /g u/.

g) the diphthong / u / is pronounced /o:/, e.g. sure /sho:/.

Vowels can also change under the influence of consonants:

a) after fricatives and consonants /n/ and /m/ /ju:/ is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. resume, music, news, enthusiasm.

b) before fricatives and combinations of fricatives with consonants «a« is pronounced as / /, e.g. dance, answer, class, fast.

The pronunciation of some consonants is also changed :

a) after a vowel /r/ is pronounced ,e.g. /ka:r/ , /ha:rt/.

b)There appears an intrusive /r/ in the combinations where after the final vowel / / there is a vowel at the beginning of the next word, e.g. the idea of, Asia and Europe/ on the analogy with word combinations there is, there are/.

c) /p/ and /t/ are glotalized in the middle of the word,e.g. matter is pronounced as /`m ? /, happy as /`h ? i/.

d) /s/ is used instead of /sh/ before /i/ in the structure of suffixes, e.g. social /`sousi l/, negotiate / ni`gousi,eit/;

e) /l/ is vocalized at the end of the word, e.g. full/ ful/( close to /v/ in sound).

f) /sh/ is voiced in the intervocal position in some geographical names, e.g . «Asia», «Persia»;

g) combinations of sounds /dj/, /tj/ , /sj/ in such words as duke, tube, issue have two variants of pronunciation: /d3u:k/ and /dju:k/, /chu:b/ and /tju:b/, /`ishu:/ and /`isju:/;

 g) pronunciation approaching spelling is being developed, e.g. often /`oftn/, forehead / fo:`hed/ etc;

h) /t/ and/d/ at the end of words are not pronounced, e.g. «half past five’ /`ha:f `pa:s`faiv/, «old man» /`oul `m n/.

**Лекція 3.** SLANG (Сленг)

**I. Slang**

1. Definition

2. Origins

3. Development of slang

4. Creators of slang

5. Sources

6. Linguistic processes forming slang

**Slang**, informal, nonstandard words and phrases, generally shorter lived than the expressions of ordinary colloquial speech, and typically formed by creative, often witty juxtapositions of words or images. Slang can be contrasted with jargon (technical language of occupational or other groups) and with argot or cant (secret vocabulary of underworld groups), but the borderlines separating these categories from slang are greatly blurred, and some writers use the terms *cant,argot,* and *jargon* in a general way to include all the foregoing meanings.

**Origins.**Slang tends to originate in subcultures within a society. Occupational groups (for example, loggers, police, medical professionals, and computer specialists) are prominent originators of both jargon and slang; other groups creating slang include the armed forces, teenagers, racial minorities, ghetto residents, labor unions, citizens-band radiobroadcasters, sports groups, drug addicts, criminals, and even religious denominations (Episcopalians, for example, produced *spike,* a High Church Anglican). Slang expressions often embody attitudes and values of group members. They may thus contribute to a sense of group identity and may convey to the listener information about the speaker's background. Before an apt expression becomes slang, however, it must be widely adopted by members of the subculture. At this point slang and jargon overlap greatly. If the subculture has enough contact with the mainstream culture, its figures of speech become slang expressions known to the whole society. For example, *cat* (a sport), *cool* (aloof, stylish), *Mr. Charley* (a white man), *The Man* (the law), and *Uncle Tom* (a meek black) all originated in the predominantly black Harlem district of New York City and have traveled far since their inception. Slang is thus generally not tied to any geographic region within a country.
A slang expression may suddenly become widely used and as quickly dated (*23-skiddoo*). It may become accepted as standard speech, either in its original slang meaning (*bus*, from *omnibus*) or with an altered, possibly tamed meaning (*jazz*, which originally had sexual connotations). Some expressions have persisted for centuries as slang (*booze* for alcoholic beverage). In the 20th century, mass media and rapid travel have speeded up both the circulation and the demise of slang terms. Television and novels have turned criminal cant into slang (*five grand* for $5000). Changing social circumstances may stimulate the spread of slang. Drug-related expressions (such as *pot* and *marijuana*) were virtually a secret jargon in the 1940s; in the 1960s they were adopted by rebellious youth; and in the 1970s and '80s they were widely known.

**Uses.** In some cases slang may provide a needed name for an object or action (*walkie-talkie,* a portable two-way radio; *tailgating,* driving too close behind another vehicle), or it may offer an emotional outlet (*buzz off!* for go away!) or a satirical or patronizing reference (*smokey,* state highway trooper). It may provide euphemisms (*john,head,can,* and in Britain, *loo,* all for toilet, itself originally a euphemism), and it may allow its user to create a shock effect by using a pungent slang expression in an unexpected context. Slang has provided myriad synonyms for parts of the body (*bean,* head; *schnozzle,* nose), for money (*moola,bread,scratch*), for food (*grub,slop,garbage*), and for drunkenness (*soused,stewed,plastere)*

**Formation of slang**Slang expressions are created by the same processes that affect ordinary speech. Expressions may take form as metaphors, similes, and other figures of speech (*dead as a doornail*). Words may acquire new meanings (*cool,cat*). A narrow meaning may become generalized (*fink,* originally a strikebreaker, later a betrayer or disappointer) or vice-versa (*heap,* a run-down car). Words may be clipped, or abbreviated (*mike,* microphone), and acronyms may gain currency (*VIP,AWOL,snafu*). A foreign suffix may be added (the Yiddish and Russian *-nik* in *beatnik*) and foreign words adopted (*baloney,* from Bologna). A change in meaning may make a vulgar word acceptable (*jazz*) or an acceptable word vulgar (*raspberry,* a sound imitating flatus; from *raspberry tart* in the rhyming slang of Australia and Cockney London; Sometimes words are newly coined (*oomph,* sex appeal, and later, energy or impact).
**Position in the Language**

Slang is one of the vehicles through which languages change and become renewed, and its vigor and color enrich daily speech. Although it has gained respectability in the 20th century, in the past it was often loudly condemned as vulgar. Nevertheless, Shakespeare brought into acceptable usage such slang terms as *hubbub,to bump,* and *to dwindle,* and 20th-century writers have used slang brilliantly to convey character and ambience. Slang appears at all times and in all languages. A person's head was *kapala* (dish) in Sanskrit, *testa* (pot) in Latin; *testa* later became the standard Latin word for head. Among Western languages, English, French, Spanish, Italian, German, Yiddish, Romanian, and Romani (Gypsy) are particularly rich in slang.

I. SLANG

**1. Definition**

Main Entry: **1slang**
Pronunciation: 'sla[ng]
Function: *noun*
Etymology: origin unknown
Date: 1756
**1** **:** language peculiar to a particular group: as **a** **: ARGOT** **b** **: JARGON** 2
**2** **:** an informal nonstandard vocabulary composed typically of coinages, arbitrarily changed words, and extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech
- **slang** *adjective*
- **slang·i·ly** /'sla[ng]-&-lE/ *adverb*
- **slang·i·ness** /'sla[ng]-E-n&s/ *noun*
- **slangy** /'sla[ng]-E/ *adjective*

Main Entry: **2slang**
Date: 1828
*intransitive senses* **:** to use slang or vulgar abuse
*transitive senses* **:** to abuse with harsh or coarse language

Main Entry: **rhyming slang**
Function: *noun*
Date: 1859
**:** slang in which the word intended is replaced by a word or phrase that rhymes with it (as *loaf of bread* for *head*) or the first part of the phrase (as *loaf* for *head*)

**Source:** Webster's Revised Unabridged Dictionary

**Slang**

nonstandard vocabulary composed of words or senses characterized primarily by connotations of extreme informality and usually by a currency not limited to a particular region. It is composed typically of coinages or arbitrarily changed words, clipped or shortened forms, extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech, or verbal novelties.

Slang consists of the words and expressions that have escaped from the **cant**, **jargon** and **argot** (and to a lesser extent from dialectal, nonstandard, and taboo speech) of specific subgroups of society so that they are known and used by an appreciable percentage of the general population, even though the words and expressions often retain some associations with the subgroups that originally used and popularized them. Thus, slang is a middle ground for words and expressions that have become too popular to be any longer considered as part of the more restricted categories, but that are not yet (and may never become) acceptable or popular enough to be considered informal or standard. (Compare the slang "hooker" and the standard "prostitute.")

Under the terms of such a definition, **"cant"** comprises the restricted, non-technical words and expressions of any particular group, as an occupational, age, ethnic, hobby, or special-interest group. (*Cool, uptight, do your thing* were youth cant of the late 1960s before they became slang.) **"Jargon"** is defined as the restricted, technical, or shoptalk words and expressions of any particular group, as an occupational, trade, scientific, artistic, criminal, or other group. (*Finals* used by printers and by students, *Fannie May* by money men, *preemie* by obstetricians were jargon before they became slang.) **"Argot"** is merely the combined cant and jargon of thieves, criminals, or any other underworld group. (*Hit* used by armed robbers; *scam* by corporate confidence men.)

Slang fills a necessary niche in all languages, occupying a middle ground between the standard and informal words accepted by the general public and the special words and expressions known only to comparatively small social subgroups. It can serve as a bridge or a barrier, either helping both old and new words that have been used as "insiders' " terms by a specific group of people to enter the language of the general public or, on the other hand, preventing them from doing so. Thus, for many words, slang is a testing ground that finally proves them to be generally useful, appealing, and acceptable enough to become standard or informal. For many other words, slang is a testing ground that shows them to be too restricted in use, not as appealing as standard synonyms, or unnecessary, frivolous, faddish, or unacceptable for standard or informal speech. For still a third group of words and expressions, slang becomes not a final testing ground that either accepts or rejects them for general use but becomes a vast limbo, a permanent holding ground, an area of speech that a word never leaves. Thus, during various times in history, American slang has provided *cowboy, blizzard, okay, racketeer, phone, gas,* and *movie* for standard or informal speech. It has tried and finally rejected *conbobberation* (disturbance), *krib* (room or apartment), *lucifer* (match), *tomato* (girl), and *fab* (fabulous) from standard or informal speech. It has held other words such as *bones* (dice), used since the 14th century, and *beat it* (go away), used since the 16th century, in a permanent grasp, neither passing them on to standard or informal speech nor rejecting them from popular, long-term use.

Slang words cannot be distinguished from other words by sound or meaning. Indeed, all slang words were once cant, jargon, argot, dialect, nonstandard, or taboo. For example, the American slang *to neck* (to kiss and caress) was originally student cant; *flattop* (an aircraft carrier) was originally navy jargon; and *pineapple* (a bomb or hand grenade) was originally criminal argot. Such words did not, of course, change their sound or meaning when they became slang. Many slang words, such as *blizzard, mob, movie, phone, gas,* and others, have become informal or standard and, of course, did not change in sound or meaning when they did so. In fact, most slang words are homonyms of standard words, spelled and pronounced just like their standard counterparts, as for example (American slang), *cabbage* (money), *cool* (relaxed), and *pot* (marijuana). Of course, the words *cabbage, cool,* and *pot* sound alike in their ordinary standard use and in their slang use. Each word sounds just as appealing or unappealing, dull or colourful in its standard as in its slang use. Also, the meanings of *cabbage* and *money, cool* and *relaxed, pot* and *marijuana* are the same, so it cannot be said that the connotations of slang words are any more colourful or racy than the meanings of standard words.

All languages, countries, and periods of history have slang. This is true because they all have had words with varying degrees of social acceptance and popularity.

All segments of society use some slang, including the most educated, cultivated speakers and writers. In fact, this is part of the definition of slang. For example, George Washington used *redcoat* (British soldier); Winston Churchill used *booze* (liquor); and Lyndon B. Johnson used *cool it* (calm down, shut up).

The same linguistic processes are used to create and popularize slang as are used to create and popularize all other words. That is, all words are created and popularized in the same general ways; they are labeled slang only according to their current social acceptance, long after creation and popularization.

Slang is not the language of the underworld, nor does most of it necessarily come from the underworld. The main sources of slang change from period to period. Thus, in one period of American slang, frontiersmen, cowboys, hunters, and trappers may have been the main source; during some parts of the 1920s and '30s the speech of baseball players and criminals may have been the main source; at other times, the vocabulary of jazz musicians, soldiers, or college students may have been the main source.

To fully understand slang, one must remember that a word's use, popularity, and acceptability can change. Words can change in social level, moving in any direction. Thus, some standard words of William Shakespeare's day are found only in certain modern-day British dialects or in the dialect of the southern United States. Words that are taboo in one era (*e.g.,* *stomach, thigh*) can become accepted, standard words in a later era. Language is dynamic, and at any given time hundreds, and perhaps thousands, of words and expressions are in the process of changing from one level to another, of becoming more acceptable or less acceptable, of becoming more popular or less popular.

2. Origins

Slang tends to originate in subcultures within a society. Occupational groups (for example, loggers, police, medical professionals, and computer specialists) are prominent originators of both jargon and slang; other groups creating slang include the armed forces, teenagers, racial minorities, ghetto residents, labor unions, citizens-band radiobroadcasters, sports groups, drug addicts, criminals, and even religious denominations (Episcopalians, for example, produced *spike,* a High Church Anglican). Slang expressions often embody attitudes and values of group members. They may thus contribute to a sense of group identity and may convey to the listener information about the speaker’s background. Before an apt expression becomes slang, however, it must be widely adopted by members of the subculture. At this point slang and jargon overlap greatly. If the subculture has enough contact with the mainstream culture, its figures of speech become slang expressions known to the whole society. For example, *cat* (a sport), *cool* (aloof, stylish), *Mr. Charley* (a white man), *The Man* (the law), and *Uncle Tom* (a meek black) all originated in the predominantly black Harlem district of New York City and have traveled far since their inception. Slang is thus generally not tied to any geographic region within a country.

A slang expression may suddenly become widely used and as quickly date (*23-skiddoo*). It may become accepted as standard speech, either in its original slang meaning (*bus*, from *omnibus*) or with an altered, possibly tamed meaning (*jazz*, which originally had sexual connotations). Some expressions have persisted for centuries as slang (*booze* for alcoholic beverage). In the 20th century, mass media and rapid travel have speeded up both the circulation and the demise of slang terms. Television and novels have turned criminal cant into slang (*five grand* for $5000). Changing social circumstances may stimulate the spread of slang. Drug-related expressions (such as *pot* and *marijuana*) were virtually a secret jargon in the 1940s; in the 1960s they were adopted by rebellious youth; and in the 1970s and ’80s they were widely known.

3. Development of slang

Slang emanates from conflicts in values, sometimes superficial, often fundamental. When an individual applies language in a new way to express hostility, ridicule, or contempt, often with sharp wit, he may be creating slang, but the new expression will perish unless it is picked up by others. If the speaker is a member of a group that finds that his creation projects the emotional reaction of its members toward an idea, person, or social institution, the expression will gain currency according to the unanimity of attitude within the group. A new slang term is usually widely used in a subculture before it appears in the dominant culture. Thus slang--*e.g.,* "sucker," "honkey," "shave-tail," "jerk"--expresses the attitudes, not always derogatory, of one group or class toward the values of another. Slang sometimes stems from within the group, satirizing or burlesquing its own values, behaviour, and attitudes; *e.g.,* "shotgun wedding," "cake eater," "greasy spoon." Slang, then, is produced largely by social forces rather than by an individual speaker or writer who, single-handed (like Horace Walpole, who coined "serendipity" more than 200 years ago), creates and establishes a word in the language. This is one reason why it is difficult to determine the origin of slang terms.

4. Creators of slang

Civilized society tends to divide into a dominant culture and various subcultures that flourish within the dominant framework. The subcultures show specialized linguistic phenomena, varying widely in form and content, that depend on the nature of the groups and their relation to each other and to the dominant culture. The shock value of slang stems largely from the verbal transfer of the values of a subculture to diametrically opposed values in the dominant culture. Names such as fuzz, pig, fink, bull, and dick for policemen were not created by officers of the law. (The humorous "dickless tracy," however, meaning a policewoman, *was* coined by male policemen.)

Occupational groups are legion, and while in most respects they identify with the dominant culture, there is just enough social and linguistic hostility to maintain group solidarity. Terms such as scab, strike-breaker, company-man, and goon were highly charged words in the era in which labour began to organize in the United States; they are not used lightly even today, though they have been taken into the standard language.

In addition to occupational and professional groups, there are many other types of subcultures that supply slang. These include sexual deviants, narcotic addicts, ghetto groups, institutional populations, agricultural subsocieties, political organizations, the armed forces, Gypsies, and sports groups of many varieties. Some of the most fruitful sources of slang are the subcultures of professional criminals who have migrated to the New World since the 16th century. Old-time thieves still humorously refer to themselves as FFV--First Families of Virginia.

In criminal subcultures, pressure applied by the dominant culture intensifies the internal forces already at work, and the argot forming there emphasizes the values, attitudes, and techniques of the subculture. Criminal groups seem to evolve about this specialized argot, and both the subculture and its slang expressions proliferate in response to internal and external pressures.

5. Sources

Most subcultures tend to draw words and phrases from the contiguous language (rather than creating many new words) and to give these established terms new and special meanings; some borrowings from foreign languages, including the American Indian tongues, are traditional. The more learned occupations or professions like medicine, law, psychology, sociology, engineering, and electronics tend to create true neologisms, often based on Greek or Latin roots, but these are not major sources for slang, though nurses and medical students adapt some medical terminology to their slang, and air force personnel and some other branches of the armed services borrow freely from engineering and electronics.

**6. Linguistic processes forming slang**

The processes by which words become slang are the same as those by which other words in the language change their form or meaning or both. Some of these are the employment of metaphor, simile, folk etymology, distortion of sounds in words, generalization, specialization, clipping, the use of acronyms, elevation and degeneration, metonymy, synecdoche, hyperbole, borrowings from foreign languages, and the play of euphemism against taboo. The English word trip is an example of a term that has undergone both specialization and generalization. It first became specialized to mean a psychedelic experience resulting from the drug LSD. Subsequently, it generalized again to mean any experience on any drug, and beyond that to any type of "kicks" from anything. Clipping is exemplified by the use of "grass" from "laughing grass," a term for marijuana. "Funky," once a very low term for body odour, has undergone elevation among jazz buffs to signify "the best"; "fanny," on the other hand, once simply a girl's name, is currently a degenerated term that refers to the buttocks (in England, it has further degenerated into a taboo word for the female genitalia). There is also some actual coinage of slang terms.

**Інструктивно-методичні рекомендації до практичних занять**

**Практичне заняття № 1.** Language units.(Мовні одиниці)

***Мета заняття:*** Теоретична підготовка студентів до практичної діяльності в якості користувача англійської мови.

***Тема заняття:*** ***Лінгвістичні одиниці мови.***.

***Задачі заняття:*** Ознайомитися з морфологічною будовою слова, структурними видами слів в англійській мові.

***Після засвоєння навчального матеріалу практичного заняття № 1 студенти мають знати:*** як зробити морфологічний аналіз слова, вирізняти суфікси та сплінтери, находити різницю міжпростим словом,основою та коренєм слів, находити розбіжності між словами та фразеологічними одиницями.

***Питання до практичного заняття „* Language units”.**

The smallest language unit.

The function of a root morpheme.

The main function of suffixes.

The secondary function of suffixes.

The main function of prefixes.

The secondary function of prefixes.

Splinters and their formation in English.

The difference between affixes and splinters.

Structural types of words in English.

The stem of a word and the difference beween a simple word, a stem and a root.

The difference between a block compound and a nominal benomial.

The difference between a word and a phraseological unit.

The similarity between a word and a phraseological unit.

Analyze the following lexical units according to their structure. Point out the function of morphemes. Speak about bound morphemes and free morphemes. Point out allomorphs in analyzed words:

accompany unsystematic forget-me-not

computerise expressionless reservation

de-restrict superprivileged moisture

lengthen clannish pleasure

beautify workaholic reconstruction

beflower inwardly counterculture

specialise moneywise three-cornered

round table Green Berets to sandwich in

**Практичне заняття № 2.** Affixation.(Афіксація)

***Мета заняття:*** Теоретична підготовка студентів до практичної діяльності в якості користувача англійської мови.

***Тема заняття:*** ***Складні слова***

***Задачі заняття:*** Ознайомитися з характерними рисами складних слів, розглянути класифікацію складних слів та їх утворення.

***Після засвоєння навчального матеріалу практичного заняття № 3 студенти мають знати:*** як утворюються складні слова, зробити аналіз складного слова використуючись різними видами класифікацій (структури, приєднаних елементів,частини мови, семантичного співвідношення між його компонентами).

 ***Питання до практичного заняття „*Compound words.”.**

Characteristic features of compound words in different languages.

Characteristic features of English compounds.

Classification of compound words according to their structure.

Classification of compound words according to the joining element.

Classification of compound words according to the parts of speech.

Classification of compound words according to the semantic

 relations between the components.

Ways of forming compound words.

Analyze the following compound words:

note-book speedometer son-in-law

to job-hop brain-gain video-corder

fair-haired forget-me-not Anglo-Russian

teach-in back-grounder biblio-klept

theatre-goer well-dressed bio-engineer

to book-hunt mini-term to baby-sit

blood-thirsty good-for-nothing throw-away

do-gooder skin-head kleptomania

sportsman para-trooper airbus

bus-napper cease-fire three-cornered

tip-top brain-drain bread-and-butter

Compare the strucure of the following words:

demagougery tablewards heliport

tobbacoless money-wise non-formal

booketeria go-go motel

counter-clockwise to frontpage productivity

giver-away newly-created nobody

**Практичне заняття № 3.** Compound words.(Складні слова)

***Мета заняття:*** Теоретична підготовка студентів до практичної діяльності в якості користувача англійської мови.

***Тема заняття:*** ***Конверсія***

***Задачі заняття:*** Ознайомитися з притаманним та найбільш поширеним видом словотворення в англійській мові – конверсією.

***Після засвоєння навчального матеріалу практичного заняття № 3 студенти мають знати:*** як утворюються нові слова на основі зміни частини мови, виділяти семантичні групи іменників, що можуть перетворюватися на дієслова і навпаки, та дієслова з прикметників.

 ***Питання до практичного заняття „* Conversion.”**

Conversion as a way of wordbuilding.

Different points of view on the nature of conversion.

Semantic groups of verbs which can be converted from nouns.

The meanings of verbs converted from adjectives.

Semantic groups of nouns which can be converted from verbs.

Substantivised adjectives.

Characteristic features of combinations of the type «stone wall».

Semantic groups of combinations of this type.

Analyze the following lexical units:

to eye a find to slim

a grown-up to airmail steel helmet

London season resit sleep

a flirt a read handout

to weekend a build-up supersonics

a non-formal to wireless to submarine

to blue-pencil to blind - the blind - blinds

distrust a jerk to radio

news have-nots the English

to co-author to water to winter

a sit-down mother-in-law morning star

undesirables a walk a find

dislike log cabin finals

**Практичне заняття 1.** Conversion.(Конверсія)

***Мета заняття:*** Теоретична підготовка студентів до практичної діяльності в якості користувача англійської мови.

***Тема заняття:*** ***Фразеологічні одиниці***

***Задачі заняття:*** Ознайомитися з основними шляхами утворення фразеологічних одиниць, семантичною, структурною, синтаксичною класифікацією фразеологічних одиниць.

***Після засвоєння навчального матеріалу практичного заняття № 1 студенти мають знати:*** як утворюються фразеологічні одиниці, складні слова, аналізувати їх в залежності від значення, структіри та синтаксичної функції.

 ***Питання до практичного заняття „*Phraseological units”.**

Ways of forming phraseological units.

Semantic classification of phraseological units.

Structural classification of phraseological units.

Syntactical classification of phraseological units.

Analyze the following phraseological units according to their meaning, structure, syntactical function and the way they are formed:

When pigs fly /never/. To leap into marriage.

To be a whipping boy. To be behind scenes.

Girl Friday /a man’s assistant/. Fire in the belly.

Man Friday /a true friend/. A dear John.

To be on the beam. Game, set and match.

Country and western. To jump out of one’s skin.

As smart as paint. It’s my cup of tea.

Robin Crusoe and Friday / seats at a theatre divided by a passage/. Fortune favours fools. To be in the dog house.

The green power. Green Berets.

Culture vulture. To get off one’s back.

To make headlines. On the nose.

With a bump. To have a short fuse.

To vote with one’s feet. Nuts and bolts.

Blackboard jungle. The sky is the limit.

Cash and carry. To nose out.

To sandwich in. Berlin wall.

A close mouth catches no flies. To speak BBB.

To sound like a computer. As dull as lead.

Last but not least. On the stroke of.

**Практичне заняття 2**. Phraseological units.(Фразеолоічні одиниці)

***Мета заняття:*** Теоретична підготовка студентів до практичної діяльності в якості користувача англійської мови.

***Тема заняття:*** ***Неологія***

***Задачі заняття:*** Ознайомитися з різними видіми їснуючих неологізмів.

***Після засвоєння навчального матеріалу практичного заняття № 2 студенти мають знати:*** як утворюються неологізми, виділяти семантичні групи неологізмів, що пов’язані з комп’ютерізаціэю, соціальною стратифікаціэю,вирізняти фонологічні та запозичені неологізми.

 ***Питання до практичного заняття „*Neology.”**

Neology «blowup» and the work of R.Berchfield.

Semantic neologisms, transnomination and proper neologisms.

Semantic groups of neologisms connected with computerization.

Social stratification and neologisms.

Semantic groups of neologisms referring to everyday life.

Phonological neologisms and borrowings as strong neologisms.

Morphological and syntactical neologisms.

Changes in pronunciation.

Analyze the following neologisms from the point of view of neology theory and also from the point of view of their morphemic structure and the way they were formed :

to clip-clip AIDS coup

sound barrier to Vice-Preside boutique

to re-familiarize tourmobile sevenish

to de-dramatize non-formals to baby-sit

to scrimp and save fireside chat hide-away

coin-in-the-slot cashless society memo

We shall overcome. to dish old wine in new bottles

to-ing and fro-ing multinationals the Commons

hyperacidity religiosity D-Day

face-to-face/tuition/ femme-fatalish to the wingtips

to river singer-songwriter beatnik

communication gap laundered money cheeseburger

Don’t change horses. to put a freeze on micro-surgical

SA out-doorsy medicare

Cold War self-exile public-schooly

brain-drainer movers and shakers Euroyuppie

**8. Контрольні завдання до практичних занять.**

***VARIANT A***

**І рівень – ознайомчо-орієнтований – 10б.**

 ***Дайте відповіді на настіпні теоретичні питання***

1. What is the external structure of the word *irresistible*? What is the internal structure of this word?
2. Explain why the word *blackboard* can be considered a unity and why the combination of words *a* *black board* doesn’t possess such unity.
3. What is understood by the semantic unity of a word? Which of the following possess semantic unity – *a blue–bell* or *a blue bell.*

**ІІ рівень – понятійно-аналітичний – 15 б.**

***Дайте відповідь на запитання.***

1. Give a brief account of the main characteristics of the word.
2. What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
3. What is the difference between colloquialisms and slang? What are their common features?
4. Why should slang and dialect words not be included in the students’ functional vocabulary?

**III рівень – продуктивно-синтетичний – 5 б.**

***Проаналізуйте лексичні одиниці, їх структуру.***

accompany

computerise

de-restrict

lengthen

beautify

beflower

specialise

round table

**Тест №2**

***VARIANT A***

**І рівень – ознайомчо-орієнтований – 10б.**

 ***Дайте відповіді на настіпні теоретичні питання***

1.The term «lexicology» is….

2. Term «vocabulary» is...

3. The term «word-group»...

**ІІ рівень – понятійно-аналітичний – 15 б.**

4.Splinters are ... (give some examples).

5.There are different structural types of words in English.....(give some examples)

6.There are also secondary ways of word-building...

**III рівень – продуктивно-синтетичний – 5 б.**

***Дайте відповідь на запитання.***

 7.There are different classifications of suffixes ....

8. Composition is the way of wordbuilding when ...

9.Conversion is ...

 10.Blends are ...

1. **Питання до заліку/екзамену.**

Language units

Splinters

Affixation

Compound words

Conversion

Substantivization

«Stone wall» combinations

Abbreviations

**10. Методичні рекомендації та розробки викладача.**

*Поради з планування та організації часу,*

*необхідного для вивчення навчальної дисципліни*

Самостійна робота студента є основним засобом оволодіння навчальним матеріалом у час, вільний від обов’язкових навчальних занять. Зміст самостійної роботи при вивченні дисципліни «Практичний курс іноземної мови» визначається навчальною програмою дисципліни, завданнями та вказівками викладача, даними методичними вказівками.

Кількість годин для самостійного вивчення дисципліни складає 70% від загального навантаження, тому саме самостійна робота студентів є основним засобом оволодіння навчальним матеріалом дисципліни у час, вільний від аудиторних занять. Головною метою самостійної роботи є закріплення, розширення та поглиблення набутих у процесі аудиторної роботи знань, вмінь та навичок, а також самостійне вивчення і засвоєння нового матеріалу під керівництвом викладача, але без його безпосередньої участі.

 Забезпечується самостійна робота студента системою навчально-методичних засобів, передбачених для вивчення дисципліни: підручники, навчальні та методичні посібники, конспект лекцій викладача, методичні вказівки для виконання практичних занять тощо.

**Самостійна робота студентів під час вивчення навчальної дисципліни«Практичний курс іноземної мови» включає такі форми:**

* + 1. **Самостійне опрац**ювання лекційного матеріалу.
		2. Виконання індивідуальних творчо-дослідницьких завдань.
		3. Конспектування першоджерел з певною дидактичною настановою. (
		4. Укладання текстів за вказаними параметрами
		5. Розробка конспектів уроків для основної школи з лінгвістики тексту, формулювання визначень, опорних схем.
		6. Виконання завдань, спрямованих на встановлення міжпредметних зв’язків
		7. Робота з інтернет-ресурсами (Чи погоджуєтеся ви з визначенням тексту, поданим у «Вікіпедії» (http://www.wikipedia.org.)? ω Чи погоджуєтеся ви з визначенням дискурсу, яке подане в інтернет-енциклопедії:<http://www.wikipedia.org.)>?;
		8. Пошукова робота.
		9. Мовні спостереження.
		10. Самостійна робота зі словниками, конструювання понять, доповнення класифікацій.
		11. Здійснення цілісного лінгвістичного аналізу тексту за поданою схемою. Ідея СРС з лінгвістичного аналізу тексту полягає у тому, щоб навчити студента вчитися самостійно. Викладач у цьому разі виконує роль консультанта.
		12. Індивідуальні навчально-дослідні завдання (ІНДЗ) – це різновид позааудиторної індивідуальної роботи студента з лінгвістичного аналізу тексту дослідницького характеру, який використовується під час опанування студентом курсу і входить до складників модульного контролю. На першому занятті студентам пропонуються на вибір ІНДЗ, які виконуються упродовж семестру і подаються викладачеві на перевірку у письмовій формі за два тижні до заліково-екзаменаційної сесії. Передбачений також усний захист ІНДЗ.

 Орієнтовна тематика ІНДЗ може бути такою: 1) Своєрідність часткового етнолінгвістичного аналізу тексту; 2) Види адресатів у публіцистичних текстах; 3) Функціональні вияви заголовків у рекламних текстах; 4) Фактуальна, підтекстова й концептуальна інформація в художньому тексті; 5) Специфіка часткового психолінгвістичного аналізу тексту; 6) Текст, підтекст, контекст: порівняльна характеристика; 7) Лінгвовізуальні (креолізовані) тексти та їх специфіка; 8) Мовна реалізація категорії часу у публіцистичному тексті; 9) Мовне вираження категорії інтертекстуальності у тексті тощо.

* + 1. **Підготовка рефератів, доповідей презентацій за програмою дисципліни.**

**Оцінювання результатів проводиться за такими критеріями:**

**“відмінно” (5 – А)** відповідає виявленню всебічного системного і глибокого знання програмного матеріалу; засвоєння основної та додаткової літератури; чітке володіння понятійним апаратом, методами, методиками та інструментами, передбаченими програмою дисципліни; вміння використовувати їх для вирішення як типових, так і нетипових практичних ситуацій; виявлення творчих здібностей в розумінні, викладі і використанні навчально-програмного матеріалу;

 **“добре” (4 – В, С)** відповідає виявленню знань основного програмного матеріалу; засвоєння інформації в основному з лекційного курсу; володіння необхідними методами, методиками та інструментами, передбаченими програмою; вміння використовувати їх для вирішення типових ситуацій, допускаючи незначні помилки;

 **“задовільно” (3 – D, E)** відповідає виявленню значних прогалин в знаннях основного програмного матеріалу; володіння окремими поняттями, методиками та інструментами, допускаючи при їх використанні принципові помилки;

 **“незадовільно” (2 – F, FX)** відповідає відсутності знань програмного матеріалу навіть в лекційному обсязі, не володіння методами, методиками та інструментами, передбаченими програмою.

Практичні та індивідуальні завдання з дисципліни виконуються студентами протягом семестру згідно програми курсу з метою закріплення теоретичних знань. Викладачем, який веде практичні заняття, здійснюється поточний контроль виконання практичних та індивідуальних завдань шляхом перевірки наявності виконаних завдань та індивідуальної співбесіди із студентом по кожному завданню. Кожне завдання оцінюється окремо у відповідності із встановленими критеріями оцінки.

Одним з видів самостійної роботи для студентів під час вивчення дисципліни є виконання індивідуальних завдань. Завдання оформлюються в окремому зошиті або на стандартних аркушах паперу, скріплених у папку. Вимоги до оформлення – аналогічні вимогам до оформлення реферату. Кожне завдання повинно мати назву, відповідні пояснення. Завдання подаються в систематизованому, охайному вигляді. Самостійна робота студента над засвоєнням навчального матеріалу може виконуватися у бібліотеці вищого навчального закладу або в домашніх умовах.

***Опис послідовності дій студента під час***

***засвоєння змісту навчальної дисципліни***

З самого початку вивчення дисципліни «Практичний курс іноземної мови» студент повинен бути ознайомлений як з програмою дисципліни і формами організації навчання, так і зі структурою, змістом та обсягом кожного з її навчальних модулів, а також з усіма видами контролю та оцінювання навчальної роботи.

Вивчення студентом навчальної дисципліни відбувається шляхом послідовного і ґрунтовного опрацювання навчальних модулів. Змістовий модуль – це відносно окремий самостійний блок, який логічно об’єднує кілька навчальних елементів дисципліни за змістом та взаємозв’язками. Тематичний план дисципліни складається з двох змістових модулів.

***Рекомендації щодо використання матеріалів НМК***

Зміст вивчення дисципліни «Практичний курс іноземної мови» визначено її робочою програмою. Інформативну частину навчання складають навчальні посібники, розроблені викладачами кафедри, конспекти лекцій у паперовій та електронній формі, план, зміст та методичні вказівки до проведення практичних занять, методичні вказівки до виконання контрольних робіт, перелік рекомендованої до вивчення літератури.

У методичних вказівках для проведення практичних занять з дисципліни міститься план занять та перелік питань, які підлягають розгляду за кожною темою, з посиланнями на додаткові навчально-методичні матеріали, які дозволяють вивчити їх глибше. Окрім цього у даних методичних вказівках можна ознайомитися з питаннями, що виносяться на обговорення, та списком літератури, необхідної для цілеспрямованої роботи студента при підготовці до заняття, умовами завдань, які розглядаються на практичних заняттях.

***Рекомендації щодо роботи з літературою***

При опрацюванні матеріалу потрібно дотримуватись таких правил:

- зосередитися на тому, що читаєш;

- виділити головну думку автора;

- виділити основні питання тексту від другорядних;

- зрозуміти думку автора чітко і ясно, що допоможе виробити власну думку;

- уявити ясно те, що читаєш.

У процесі роботи над темою тлумачення незнайомих слів і спеціальних термінів слід знаходити у фаховій літературі, словниках.

Після прочитання тексту необхідно:

- усвідомити зв’язок між теоретичними положеннями і практикою.

- закріпити прочитане у свідомості.

- пов’язати нові знання з попередніми у даній галузі.

- перейти до заключного етапу засвоєння і опрацювання – записам.

Записи необхідно починати з назви теми та посібника, прізвища автора, року видання та назви видавництва. Якщо це журнал, то рік і номер видання, заголовок статті. Після чого скласти план, тобто короткий перелік основних питань тексту в логічній послідовності теми.

Складання плану, або тез логічно закінченого за змістом уривка тексту, сприяє кращому його розумінню. План може бути простий або розгорнутий, тобто більш поглиблений, особливо при опрацюванні додаткової літератури за даною темою. Записи необхідно вести розбірливо і чітко. Вони можуть бути короткі або розгорнуті залежно від рівня знань студента, багатства його літературної і професійної лексики, навичок самостійної роботи з книгою.

Для зручності користування записами необхідно залишати поля для заміток і вільні рядки для доповнень. Записи не повинні бути одноманітними. В них необхідно виділяти важливі місця, головні слова, які акцентуються різним шрифтом або різним кольором шрифтів, підкреслюванням, замітками на полях, рамками, стовпчиками тощо. Записи можуть бути у вигляді конспекту, простих або розгорнутих тез, цитат, виписок, систематизованих таблиць, графіків, діаграм, схем.

Після вивчення літературних джерел доцільно детально ознайомитися з нормативними документами, які регламентують певне питання методики та організації аудиту або аудиторської діяльності.

***Поради з підготовки до поточного та підсумкового контролю***

Контрольні заходи включають поточний і підсумковий контроль знань студентів. Поточний контроль є органічною частиною навчального процесу і проводиться під час лекцій та практичних занять.

*Форми поточного контролю*:

- усна співбесіда за матеріалами розглянутої теми на початку практичного заняття з оцінкою відповідей студентів;

- письмове фронтальне опитування студентів на початку чи в кінці практичного заняття.

- перевірка домашніх завдань;

- тестова перевірка знань студентів;

- модульний контроль;

- інші форми.

Теми самостійної роботи входять у модуль, який контролюються після закінчення логічно завершеної частини лекцій та інших видів занять з дисципліни та їх результати враховуються при виставленні підсумкової оцінки.

***Список рекомендованої літератури***

**Рекомендована основна навчальна література:**

**Базова**

1. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Upper-Intermediate. Course book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 168 p.

2. Ian Lebeau, Gareth Rees. Language Leader Upper-Intermediate. Work book. Pearson: Longman, 2008. – 95 p.

**Допоміжна**

1. English grammar: Reference and Practice. Дроздова Т. Ю., Бурустова А. И. Химера, Санкт-Петербург, 2000. – 320 р.

2. Murphy R. English Grammar in Use. – Cambridge, 1988. – 328 p.

3. Thompson A. J., Martinet A. V. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#2. Oxford University Press.

4. Thompson A.T. J., Martinet A. V.. A Practical English Grammar Exercises#1. Oxford University Press.

5. Верба Г. В., Верба Л. Г. Довідник з граматики англійської мови. – К.: Освіта, 1993.

6. Каушанская В.Л. Грамматика английского языка. Пособие для студентов педагогических институтов и университетов. – М., 2000. – 320с.

7. Каушанская В.Л. Сборник упражнений по грамматике английского языка. – М.,2000. – 216с.

**11. Методичні матеріали, що забезпечують самостійну роботу студентів.**

*Методичні рекомендації щодо організації самостійної роботи студентів*

1) Підготовка до практичних занять вимагає самостійного поглибленого вивчення теоретичних питань, аналізу і синтезу навчально-методичних матеріалів з підготовкою виступу (презентації) на практичних заняттях підготовлених матеріалів з викладом теоретичних положень та ілюстрацією прикладів;

2) Поглиблене вивчення теми передбачає індивідуальне дослідження актуальних проблем методики навчання іноземної мови з вивченням наукових джерел і викладом в формі доповіді / реферату (рекомендується в якості альтернативної форми підсумкового контролю);

3) Практичні завдання вимагають попередньої самостійної підготовки студентів, аналізу фрагментів уроків на різних ступенях навчання з подальшим обговоренням на практичних заняттях;

4) Самостійна підготовка фрагментів уроків або плану-конспекту урока передбачає творчий пошук, аналіз теоретичної літератури і шкільних підручників.

**Самостійна робота 1**

**Ex. 1.** Divide the following 24 words into three equal groups under the headings: a) head; b) arm and hand; C leg and foot.

jaw lash pupil lobe elbowv

shin temple knuckles calf forearm

wrist toes thigh thumb heel

gums biceps instep fist ankle

lid palm sole nostril

**Ex. 2.** Put each of the following words in its correct place in the sentence below. Volume publication whodunnit hardback

best - seller thriller copy edition

manuscript proofs paperback

a. You can see the original\_\_\_*of Hamlet* in the museum in Shakespeare's own writing.

b. Before a book is sent to be printed, the author must check the

c. Where is\_\_\_three of this set of encyclopaedias?

d. The new government report on agricultural statistics is a very interesting\_\_\_.

e. Have you got a\_\_\_Graham Green's *Brighton Rock* ?

f. This book costs $12, but that's the\_\_\_/The\_\_\_costs only $ 5.50.

g. His first three novels didn't sell very well, but his fourth was a\_\_\_ and made a fortune.

h. The book has already been selling well for five years. Now the publishers are going to bring out a new\_\_\_with illustrations.

i. She likes to relax by reading a\_\_\_about spies or crime.

j. I'm reading a\_\_\_. It's fun trying to guess who the murderer is.

**Ex. 3.** Put each of the following words in its correct place in the sentence below. Chew lick polish off swallow gnaw

consume peck at gorge digest bolt

a. The children have no appetite. They just\_\_\_their food. They hardly eat anything.

b. My mother always used to say to me 'Now make sure you\_\_\_meat carefully before you\_\_\_it.'

c. Statistics show that we\_\_\_more fruit and meat than *%10* years ago.

d. He has an enormous appetite. I've, seen him\_\_\_four hamburgers and a pile of chips at a sitting.

e. As children we used to\_\_\_ourselves on ice - cream, chips and chocolate, and then feel very sick.

f. the starving prisoners were so desperate they would\_\_\_any meat bones they could find.

g. It's not good for your body to\_\_\_your food so quickly. Eat slowly so that you can\_\_\_it

properly. *\*

h. He was so hungry that when he'd finished his food, he began to\_\_\_the plate!

**Ex. 4.** Answer the following questions using words from the list of Ex. 3.

a. How do people eat ice cream cones?

b. How do hungry people eat?

c. How do very greedy people eat?

d. How do people eat if they are not very hungry?

e. How do dogs eat?

f. What is a good, healthy way to eat meat?

g. What is an unhealthy way to eat, and why?

**Ex. 5**. Some meat is given a different name from the animal it comes from. What animals do the following meats come from?

a. pork e. veal

b. beef f. mutton

c. bacon ' g. ham

d. venison

**Ex. 6.** The following is a list of different types of friends (and a few associates and enemies). Put each one in the most suitable space in the sentences below, some words must be used more than once.

Acquaintance foe associate bosom - pal companion compatriot old flame

fair - weather friend mate rival pen - pal partner confidant colleague

a. She comes from the same country as me. She's a .

b. We carried on a friendship through letters. He was a\_\_\_.

c. I'd rather not make the journey alone. I need a travelling -\_\_\_.

d. He and I own this business together. He's my\_\_*,\_.*

e. She didn't know what the homework was so she asked a class -\_\_\_.

f. I've known George for ages. We're really good old friends who spend a lot of time together. He's my\_\_\_

g. Henry Somers wants the manager's job and so do I. He's my\_\_\_.

h. Wanted: sensible, well - mannered girl to act as old lady's\_\_\_.

i. She used to be John's girl - friend. She's an\_\_\_.

j. The assistant to a plumber, electrician or lorry driver is known as his\_\_\_.

k. Tn the darkness the soldier couldn't see whether the approaching figure was friend or

1. She teaches in the same school as I do. She's my\_\_\_.

m. He seems a good friend when things are going well, but when I'm in trouble he's nowhere to be

seen. I'm afraid he's a\_\_\_.

n. He's the person to whom I tell my most personal thoughts, problems and fears. He's my\_\_\_.

o. If you can't afford to live on your own, you'll have to find a flat -\_\_\_.

p. I don't really know him very well. He's just an\_\_\_.

q. I just meet him occasionally when his firm and my firm work together. He's just a business –

**Ex. 7.** Which people from the list of ex. 6 would you ...

... talk business with? ... not trust?

... go to with personal problems? ... borrow money from?

... visit on holiday? ... invite to your party9

... go on holiday with? . ... invite to your wedding?

**Ex. 8.** Put each of the following words orphrases in its correct place in the sentence below, numismatist broke currency expenditure

counterfoil mortgage statement bounce

legal tender quid hire purchase make ends meet

standing order 1.0 U. chicken feed instalments

counterfeit

a. You can change your\_\_\_at any bank or large hotel.

b. She held the note up to the light to make sure it wasn't\_\_\_.

c. He collects coins and banknotes. He's a\_\_\_.

d I always fill in the\_\_\_when I write out a cheque. Otherwise I would lose track of my

e. I don't trust him/ I'm sure his cheque will\_\_\_.

f. 1 pay rent by\_\_\_. It saves me having to write a cheque every month.

g. The bank sends me a detailed\_\_\_*[* every month/

h. Don't worry. Scottish banknotes are\_\_\_in England too.

i. I'm afraid I have no money at all. I'm completely\_\_\_.

j. She finds London very expensive. She says she can't\_\_\_on less than $ 200 a week.

k. To a multi - millionaire $ 100 is\_\_\_.

|  |
| --- |
| **Ex. 9**. Match each occupation on the left with the most appropriate tool or piece of |
| equipment on the right. |  |
| a. doctor | a rake |
| b. gardener | a hose |
| c. jockey | a plane |
| d. chef | an axe |
| e. fireman | a baton |
| f. lumberjack | a stethoscope |
| g. conductor | a rolling pin |
| h blacksmith | an anchor |
| i. carpenter | a whip |
| j. photographer | a spanner |
| k. mechanic | an exposure meter |
| 1. sailor | an anvil |
| m. violinist | a scalpel |
| n. window cleaner | a truncheon |
| o. fisherman | a pneumatic drill |
| p. tailor | a bucket |
| q. surgeon | a bow |
| r. usherette | a tape measure |
| s. policeman | a net |
| t. bricklayer | a spade |

**Ex. 10**. Put the most suitable sound from the following list into each sentence.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Drone | gasp | yell | chant | moan |
| snort | scream | whimper | boo | cheer |
| a. I heard the | of a terrified woman. |  |  |  |

b. He gave a tired\_\_\_of pain.

c. The Queen's arrival was met with an enthusiastic\_\_\_from the crowd.

d. The referee made another unpopular decision and the crowd began to\_\_\_.

e. When demonstrators march through the streets, they often\_\_\_political slogans.

f. He gave a\_\_\_of surprise when he found the shower was ice - cold.

g. The taxi - driver gave a\_\_\_of contempt at the small tip.

h. He used to\_\_\_on and on monotonously and some of his listeners went to sleep listening to him.

i The little baby began to\_\_\_weakly.

j. 1 had to\_\_\_at the top of my voice to make him hear me above the noise.

**Самостійна робота 2**

**Ex. 1.** Many firms and shops choose a short name which attracts attention, is, easy to remember and immediately identities the service being offered This name is often spelt in a kind of simple phonetic spelling to make it even more unique and memorable, e.g. EAZIWASH (easy wash) is a launderette and FIZZEEK (physique) is a gymnasium and health club. Below are the real names of fourteen firms or shops Give the normal spelling of each and find on the righl the kind of business it is.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| a. | LITE BITE | photo-processing shop |
| b. | SHUSELLA | photo-copying firm |
| c | KEEP-A-KREASE | children's clothes shop |
| d. | SUPASNAPS - | snack bar |
| e. | KWICK KOPY | shoe-shop |
| f. | KWALITY FASHIONS | dry-cleaners |
| *&■* | KUMFY KIDDY WEAR | taxi firm |
| h. | HANDICARS | garage and repair shop |
| i. | MR Ki.EEN | women's clothes shop |
| j | SNA | dry cleaners |
|  | MOTOR KAR.E | hairdressers |
| 1 | LOOKRiTE | snack bar |
| m. | FL1TE CENTRE | car-hire firm |
| n. | U-DR1VE | travel agency |

**Ex. 2.** Products are often named in the same way as the businesses above. Give the normal spelling of each real product below and write down the kind of product you think it is KLEENOFF ANSAFONE KARRJMOR

KATTOM EAT . RESTRJTE ANS ADOR

Ex. 10. Some firms use normal spelling in their names but form them by combining two words into one. What kind of business'do the following real firms do? TRANSLAGENCY SECUR1COR SUNTOURS

AUTOCHECK QUICK-LETS DATAFLOW

AUTOPASS FIGURETR1M F1NNAJR

**Ex. 3**. Express each of the following headlines as it would appear in an ordinary news announcement

a. **EDITORS URGE END TO PRESS GAG**

b **INDIA SEEKS US AID**

**c GEM SMUGGLERS CAUGHT IN PORT SWOOP**

d **BANK RAID CASH HAUL FOUND: 3 CHARGED**

e **HEAD QUITS OVER 'RIGGED' EXAM RESULTS**

**f. RAIL CHIEFS RESHUFFLED AFTER BIG LOSSES**

**y GOVT DEFEATED IN POLL DRAMA**

**Ex. 4.** For each of the following words, all frequently used in headlines, find the meaning in the list below. It will help you if you look to see how they are used in the headlines at the foot of the exercise. Then express each headline as it would appear in an ordinary news announcement. **MOVE** **CLASH** **WOO** **BID** **FOIL** **HALT**

**OUST** **QUIZ** **PLEA** **BAN** **BACK** **FLEE**

a to prevent

b strong request, call for help, appeal

c. attempt, to attempt

d. stop, to slop

e. to prohibit, prohibition

f. fighting, argument, conflict, to argue, to fight '■

g. support, to support

h. lo force out of office, remove from high position

i. run away from, escape

j. to try to attract

k. action, step, to take action

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Ex.5.** Instructions as above.. |  |  |
| **SPLT** |  **LEAK RIDDLE PROBE** | **AXE** | **LIFT** |
| **CURB** | **BAFFLED STORM RAP** | **CALL** | **ENVOY** |
| **a.** | mystery |  |  |
| **b.** | to escape, escape (of secret information) |  |  |
| **c.** | diplomat, ambassador |  |  |
| **d.** | close, dismiss, cancel, closure, dismissal |  |  |
| **e.** | remove (restrictions, prohibitions) |  |  |
| **f.** | criticise, reprimand |  |  |
| **g-** | at a loss to explain, mystified |  |  |
| **h.** | restrict, restriction |  |  |
| **i.** | divide, division |  |  |
| **j-** | investigate, investigation |  |  |
| **k** | to demand, to appeal, demand, appeal |  |  |
| **t.** | angry argument |  |  |

**Самостійна робота 3**

**Ex. 1**. In the following exercises, the situations are very informal, e.g. between very

friends, when we sometimes use very casual, ironic or even rude responses. Task 6. Instructions as above.

a. Can you lend me $100? Serves you right.

b. I've eaten too much. I feel ill. OK. Suit yourself.

c. Where were you last night? ■ That'll be the day

d. I think I'd rather go to a pub. You must be joking.

e. I'll pay you back soon. Mind your own business.

close

Task 6. Instructions as above.

a Why don't you do some work?

b. I insist on doing it like this.

c. Where's Ann tonight?

d. I've borrowed your coat.

e. **It's** very cold, but I'm going for a walk.

**Ex. 2.** People often react to certain situations by using sounds rather than real words, and people from different countries often use different sounds, e.g. British people often say 'ouch!' when they feel a sudden pain, whereas other nationalities sometimes say 'aief' Of course different British people will have different responses, but the following are common.

Answer the questions below with sounds from the following list.

giddyup! whoah! mm! there, there eh? (rhymes **with**'say')

whoops! well? sh! boo! (rhymes **with** 'too') wow! (rhymes **with 'how')**

gosh! ta-ta er (rhymes with 'sir')

now, now **hi!** (rhymes with 'lie')

cheers oi! (rhymes **with 'boy')**

Task 1, What do you say if you ..."

a. ... want someone to be quiet?

b. ... don't catch what a friend says?

c. ... want a horse to start or go faster?

d. ... comfort a child in pain and crying?

e ...jump out from behind a tree to surprise someone?

f ... suddenly lose your balance, or drop something?

g. ... are waiting for someone to answer your question?

h. ... are suddenly impressed, by something?

i. ... want a horse to slow down or stop?

j. ... express spontaneous delight!

Task 2 Instructions as above.

What do you say if you ...

... thank a friend casually

. hesitate or forget something?

. calm an over-exciled, angry friend?

. and a friend raise your glasses to drink together?

. say goodbye casually to a friend? express your agreement with something said in a speech?

... greet a friend casually9

... see someone trying to steal your bag?

.. express surprise?

**Самостійна робота 4**

**Task 1.** **FRENCH.** Put each of the following expressions into its correct place in the sentences below.

**nouveaux riches** **tete-a-tete** **bon** voyage **cul-de-sac** **chic**

**hors d'oeuvre** **rendezvous** **carte blanche** **grand prix** **blase**

a. The advantage of living in **a**\_\_\_is that there is no through traffic, so it's very quiet.

b. Let's order I'm hungry. I'm going to start with a nice\_\_\_.

c. The boss didn't tell me how he wanted the project carried out He gave me\_\_\_to do it as I

thought best.

d The French \_\_\_was won by a Brazilian driver in an Italian car.

e. \_\_\_. and send us a post-card when you arrive!

f She chooses her clothes, hair-style and make-up so that she is in the latest fashion. She always looks very \_\_\_\_.

g 1 have one or two ideas I'd like to discuss with you. Could we have a little\_\_\_ one day

soon?

h. He was very excited when his first book was published, but now, having written over 30, he's fairly\_\_\_ about it.

i. That restaurant is a favourite\_\_\_for writers and artists.

j A snob tends to look down on\_\_\_as people who have money but no class or taste.

**Task 2.** **FRENCH** Instructions as above.

\* **encore** **debut** **c'est la vie** **entourage** **coup**

**facade** **au fait** **avant garde** **gourmet** **detente**

a. If we take Charles out to dinner, we must choose a good restaurant. He's a

b. There was a successful \_\_\_ last night. The president has been arrested and the main

government buildings are in the hands of the army.

c Film stars don't usually travel alone. They're normally surrounded by a large\_\_\_of agents,

secretaries and other helpers.

d The audience liked her songs so much that at the end they shouted, «\_\_\_» and she obliged

by singing one more.

e. Yes, I've had some bad luck recently, but it's no use worrying about it.\_\_\_.

f I hadn't visited the country for a long time and I wasn't\_\_\_with the most recent political

developments.

g. He's a very \_\_\_ artist. I have no idea what he's trying to express. Very few people

understand his paintings.

li She made her\_\_\_as an actress in a film at the age of 14

i That building **still** has its old\_\_\_as you can see, bul the rest of the building behind it has

been rebuilt and modernised.

j At ihe moment there is **a**\_\_\_between the two countries. Relations are much easier.

**Task 3. LATIN.** Instructions as above. **bona fide** **vice versa**

**status quo** **pro rata**

**persona non grata curriculum vitae**

**per capita post mortem**

**ad nauseam ego**

travellers. Please show your flight-ticket

a. Duty-free goods may be purchased only by \_ when buying.

b. Applicants for this post should write enclosing a detailed\_\_\_.

c Rental rates for our cars are $ 50 a day. Longer periods will be charged \_\_\_ with no

reductions, so a one-week rental will be $ 350.

d. He was barred from this country in 1985 and has been \_\_ ever since.

e. Everyone must do what she wants, listen to what she says, go where she decides to go. No one else is important. She really has got a big .

f. Some people just want to preserve the\_\_\_in this country, but others want change, reform,

development.

g. A great many British people spend their holidays in America, and\_\_\_.

h. The\_\_\_examination showed that she died of cancer.

i. Canada has a\_\_\_income of over $20,000.

j. I'm afraid he's rather a boring person. He goes on and on

about his political views.

**Самостійна робота 5**

**Task 4.** **MIXED.** Instructions as above. **siesta** **(Spanish)**

**macho** **(Spanish)**

**patio** **(Spanish)**

**blitz** **(German)**

**kaput** **(German)**

**kindergarten**

**incognito**

**bravo**

**graffiti**

**kowtow**

**(German)**

**(Italian)**

**(Italian)**

**(Italian)**

**(Chinese)**

a. A man who is very hard, tough and masculine is sometimes described as '\_\_\_'

b. At the age of three she went to a\_\_\_just to learn to play with other children.

After lunch I like to have a for an hour or so.

A week after the wall was repainted, it was covered with My television's\_\_\_. I'll have to buy a new one.

You performed very well.\_\_\_J

again.

on it last

to him.

g. He didn't want to be recognised so he changed his appearance and travelled\_\_

h. My garden was looking very overgrown and neglected so I did a real Saturday. I worked all day.

i. When the Prime Minister comes, just be polite and normal There's no need to\_\_\_

j No, our house hasn't got aproper garden, just a paved\_\_\_.

Ex. 2. Choose the correct word for each space. misused (badly, wrongly used) disused (no longer used)

a. An airport\_\_\_since its closure ten years before was used for car-racing.

b. They complained that the new law had been\_\_\_to suppress individual liberties.

c. Be careful of this word. It is often\_\_\_

d The goods were stored in a\_\_\_ cinema.

**unreadable** (too boring or too badly written to read) **illegible** (physically impossible to read)

a. His hand-writing is so bad it's\_\_\_.

b. The book is long, uninteresting and not very well-written. I find it\_\_\_.

c After years of being exposed to the sun and rain, the sign over the shop had become completely

d 1 think her novels are\_\_\_ The style is awful and the plots are ridiculous.

dependent (depending)

dependant (person who depends on another for home, money, food)

a The signing of the contract is\_\_\_on whether you can guarantee delivery of the goods within

three months, b You are entitled to receive a government allowance for each\_\_\_who is living with you.

c. This residence document permits you, but no\_\_\_, to live and work in this country.

d. The empire consisted of the kingdom and all its\_\_\_colonies

historic (important in history) historical (concerning history)

a. At the meeting of our local\_\_\_society there will be a talk on 'France in the 19th Century'.

b. Today we have gained our independence and our liberty. It is a j\_\_day for our country.

c. She likes\_\_\_novels, especially romances set in the 16th and 17th centuries.

d In 1945 there was a\_\_\_meeting of world leaders which changed the course of world events.

immigration (coming into a country to settle)

emigration (leaving a country to settle elsewhere)

a If we don't restrict.\_\_\_into this country, the pressure on our social services will be intolerable.

b. When times were hard in Britain, there was very large\_\_\_to Australia and Canada.

dissatisfied (discontented, displeased, not satisfied with quality)

unsatisfied (unfulfilled, not satisfied with quantity)

a. He ate a meal large enough for three normal people but his appetite was still\_\_\_.

b. I'm very\_\_\_with this computer. It keeps breaking down.

c. If you are\_\_\_with the service, you should complain.

d. Demand for the new car is still\_\_\_in spite of an increase in production.

suit (be suitable for)

suite [swi:t] (group of things belonging together, set)

a. Will seven o'clock\_\_\_you or shall 1 come later?

b. She took a\_\_\_of rooms at the Bristol Hotel.

c. For the living-room we can either buy a complete\_\_\_of matching furniture or get different items

separately

d. Do you think a dark brown overcoat would\_\_\_me?

prophecy (prediction, *noun)*

prophesy (predict, *verb)*

a I\_\_\_that he will pass his exam and get a good job.

b. I will make a\_\_\_ There will be a new government in less than a year.

device (new invention, means of doing something, *noun)*

devise (invent, *verb)*

a. Anyone who can \_\_\_ a means of recording television programmes without recording the

advertisements will make a fortune.

b He invented a\_\_\_for warning pilots if there was bad weather ahead

c A\_\_\_can be attached to a private telephone which keeps a record of all calls made and their cost.

d. He managed to \_\_\_ a system of bonus payments to encourage hard - working staff.

Enquiry/enquiries (request for information)

inquiry/inquiries (formal investigation)

a. You should make\_\_\_al the office.

b. Official\_\_\_are always held after plane crashes.

c. We have received a number of \_\_\_about our new product since putting an advertisement in the

newspaper.

d It was never discovered where the missing money went, in spite of a searching\_\_\_by the bank.

exhausting (very tiring)

exhaustive (very thorough, complete)

a. \_\_ tests were carried out to discover the cause of the plane's engine failure.

b. The older members of the group found the long journey quite\_\_\_.

c. He never stops talking He's an\_\_\_person to be with.

d. The police carried out an\_\_\_investigation, but the missing woman was never found.

disinterested (impartial)

uninterested (not interested, bored, apathetic) a Only 22% of the people voted. The rest were totally\_\_\_.

b. The management and the union asked a completely*\_\_\_* party to mediate between them.

c. 1 don't know why he didn't go to the exhibition. Perhaps he was too busy or just\_\_\_.

d. France's intervention in the dispute was not entirely \_\_\_ It gave her increased power and

influence in the area

council (district government)

counsel (1: kind of lawyer in court 2; to advise)

a. The job of a Vocational Guidance Officer is to\_\_\_young people on their careers.

b. I have complained to the local\_\_\_about the poor condition of the pavements.

c The prosecuting \_\_ demanded the death penalty but the judge gave her a life sentence, d- Some men from the\_\_\_came to plant trees along the river.

councillor (member of a council)

counsellor (adviser)

a. She and her husband often argued, so they went to a marriage\_\_\_for help.

b. He's always been interested in local government Now he's been elected\_\_\_.

unknown (not known) infamous (shameful, notorious) a The show was such a success that she went from being an\_\_\_actress to a star overnight.

b. Joseph Jackson was an\_\_\_mass-murderer of Victorian times.

c. His action in cheating poor, sick and elderly people of their savings was described by the judge as

d. The firm was almost\_\_\_ten years ago but now it is famous for its high-quality products.

certainly (definitely, really)

surely (expresses surprise, doubt, relief)

a. \_\_\_you aren't going out like that, are you?

b I am\_\_\_not inviting Teresa to my party. I've never liked her

c. Your coat must be here somewhere,\_\_\_!

d. He\_\_\_impressed me-1 thought he was very bright and talented

dairy (1: place where milk is kept, butter, cheese etc. made; shop selling milk products 2: related to milk products)

diary (daily record of events) a He kept a\_\_\_from the age of 15 to 21.

b. We're still waiting for milk deliveries from the\_\_\_.

c. No, we don't grow wheat or vegetables. It's a\_\_\_farm. We have about 200 cows.

d. She has a regular column in the Daily News describing the various activities of the day. It's called 'Annabel's\_\_\_'

compliment (to praise, piece of praise)

complement (go together or combine well, add to)

a. He lacks confidence and she is a strong person. They\_\_\_each other very well.

b He paid her a nice\_\_\_on her new dress.

c. I'd like to\_\_\_you on your performance. It was excellent.

d. Weight-lifting gives strength. Running increases stamina. The two exercises\_\_\_each other.

first (first item in list of reasons, actions etc.) at first (initial attitude before change)

a. \_\_\_boil the water, then add salt, then put in the potatoes, then ...

b. He found the job difficult\_\_\_, but soon got used to it.

c. \_\_\_they didn't like their new boss.

d. I phoned the police, then I made a list of what had been stolen, then I made myself a cup of tea.

lastly (final item in list of reasons, actions etc.) at last (final result)

a. The police questioned him for three hours until\_\_\_he confessed.

b. ... then stir the mixture in the saucepan, then leave for five minutes and\_\_\_add sugar.

c. \_\_\_I succeeded in making him understand!

d. There are several reasons why he's leaving the country. First, he hates the weather here, secondly, he can't find a good job, and\_\_\_, he's homesick.

Ex. 3. The following sentences have two different meanings, due to the ambiguity of the words in italics. Explain the two meanings of each sentence, a. She was driving on the *right* side of the road, b He's *very fair.*

c. She was a very *funny* girl.

d. Half the workers in the factory are *idle.*

e. They did not *recognise* the new President.

f. She's a very *curious* person.

g. It's a very *cheap* newspaper.

h. They are *expected* to arrive at seven.

i. My grandfather was a very *powerful* man.

j. 1 thought he was rather *suspicious.*

k. She was very *jealous* of her husband's reputation.

1. She likes to *entertain* people.

m. John *should* know the answer.

n He didn't *appeal* to me.

o The Mourning News is *& popular* newspaper.

p. He *might* have phoned.

q. I'm afraid I'm not *prepared* to leave yet.

r. The teacher *insisted* that his pupils did their homework regularly.

s. He took *advantage* of his friend's knowledge.

**Самостійна робота 6**

**Ex. 3**. The sentences below are written as they would be spoken Rewrite them as they would normally be written, using numbers and abbreviated forms. E.g. I take a size fourteen and a half shirt.

a. Forty minus fifteen plus six is thirty-one.

b. Eighty-one divided by three is twenty-seven. c Three times six is eighteen

d. Queen Elizabeth the First reigned from fifteen fifty-eight to sixteen oh three,

e The show is due to commence at seven thirty p.m. on the second of August,

f It cost me six pounds seventy-five pence.

g. Phone me any time on four double-one four eight five oh.

h. Please note that our reference number is double-four dash seven stroke five oh nine.

i The total cost is estimated at two million, four hundred and seventy-one thousand, eight

hundred and fifty pounds.

j The mixture is two thirds water.

k. A litre is one point seven six pints.

1 Twenty-two per cent of the candidates passed with distinction

m. The temperature was thirty degrees centigrade, that is eighty-six degrees fahrenheit.

n. It measures four feet two and three quarter inches by two feet eight and a half inches.

o France beat England three nil. (football)

p. Brazil and Italy drew three all. (football)

q The score stands at thirty love to Becker (tennis)

**Ex. 4.** Write out the following sentences exactly as they would be spoken, i.e. as in the exercise above

a. 73 + 20 - 43 = 50

b. 129: 3-43

c. 4x21 =84

d. Edward Vll died in 1910.

e li was exactly 11 35 am on 21st May.

f. They cost $ 3.25 each

g. Our new phone number is 307 2201. h. Please quote reference no. 8/2-771. i. The population is 3,255,840.

j. I am 1/8 French.

k. 1 mile = 1.609 kilometres.

I. His 17.38% gold.

m. Water freezes at 3 F, i.e. 0 C.

n. The picture measured 2'6 1/2" x 5' 8 1/4".

o. We won 3:0. (football)

p. The final score was 2:2. (football)

q. The score's 15:0 to me at the moment, (tennis)

**Ex. 5.** The following common phrases are associated with particular situations. Identify each phrase by describing briefly who would say it and in what circumstances. E.g. 'Please fasten your safety-belts.1 Aii-slew a rd ess to passengers before take-off or landing.

a. 'Mind the doors! '

b. To eat here or take away?"

c. 'Many happy returns.'

d. 'How do you plead?'

e. 'Just a trim, please.1

f. 'Have you anything to declare?' g 'Heel! '

h. 'Take this prescription and come back and see me in a week.'

i. 'I'm 'putting you through.'

j. 'A pint ofbitter, please.'

k. 'Going ... going ... gone!'

I. 'Here's to the bride and groom.'

m 'I now pronounce you man and wife.'

n. '1 swear to tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth.'

o. 'This won't hurt.'

p. 'God bless her and all who sail in her.'

q. 'Amen.'

r 'Once upon a time ...'

s. 'Say "Cheese".'

t. 'All aboard!'

u. 'Man overboard! '

**Самостійна робота 7**

 **Комунікативна ситуація “Allocating funds”.**

 You have a total of 100000$ available. Decide which project you will fund. You can suggest possible changes to the project if that means you might fund them.

**Розмовна тема “Як готувати доповідь”.**

Exploring reading texts

1. Read the web article below and answer these questions.

1. Where did the text appear?

2. Who wrote it and who will read it?

3. When was it written?

4. What is it about?

5. Why was it written?

*Top scientists say global warming stopped years ago*

 Michael Barry of the campaign group Global Warming Concern commented recently, “I have no doubt . . . that the problem of global warming exists.” However, why was he so sure when there is evidence to say that it is not true?

 These are the facts. Firstly, the World Governmental Group on Climate Change has statistics which show that average global temperatures have not changed since 1998. Secondly, there has, in fact, been little or no global warming since 1979, apart from warming caused by natural events such as large volcanic eruptions and tropical storms. Thirdly, some studies suggest that, rather than warming, the environmental signs are that we are about to go into a period of cooler weather over the next few decades.

 How, then, is it possible for scientists to say that global warming is caused by human action? Read more here.

 Brian Carnegie (Petroleum Sciences Committee)

 15 June 2007

 http://www.global-warming-not-true.com/article\_21.htm

2. Write and then answer further questions about the text in each of the following topics. Refer to Lesson 11.4 for ideas on the kinds of questions you might ask.

1 Asking about the quality of information \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

2 Asking why something is in the text \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

3 Asking about what is missing \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

4 Asking about language \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_

3. Do you think the text is useful as research or reference material? Why?

**Самостійна робота 8**

**Підготувати доповідь за темою "Modern ecological problems"**

**Самостійна робота 9**

 **Виконання вправ на закріплення лексико матеріалу**

1. Match each sport to its description.

*Sports:* gymnastics, archery, fencing, judo, dragon boat racing

A a rowing race with a traditional Chinese style of long boat

B a sport in which you hold and throw your partner

C the sport of sword fighting

D this requires strength, balance and body control

E shooting an arrow from your bow at a target

*Second conditional*

2. Complete the following sentences using *would* or *might*.

1 If children learned judo at school, \_\_\_\_.

2 If cycling were on TV every day, \_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

3 If more people came to the sports centre, \_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

4 If there was a swimming pool in my town, \_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

5 If I thought that anyone would come, \_\_\_\_\_\_.

6 If I won a million dollars, \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.

*Too and enough*

3. Complete each sentence using either *too* or *enough*.

1 Do we have \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ people for the committee yet?

2 We don’t have \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ water. Could you fill the jugs, please?

3 There’s \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ much work to do today. We’ll never finish.

4 Do you think your brother is clever \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ to pass the exam?

5 Don’t you think you’ve got \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ many plates on that tray?

6 Don’t ask her, she’s \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ boring to want to play.

**Самостійна робота 10**

**Підготувати доповідь за темою "My favourite kind of sport".**

**Комунікативна ситуація “How to write a formal Email” .**

How to write a formal Email

 Whether you’re writing to friends, colleagues or to a potential business partner, your main goal is to get your message across. If you use language that isn’t considered Standard English, or there are too many mistakes in your e-mail, not only might you fail your aim, you might also fail to make a good impression on the reader. To avoid this, you can run your e-mail through a [grammar and spell checker](http://tr.grammarly.com/aff_c?offer_id=3&aff_id=1858), however, this, in itself, won’t guarantee that you’re using the right words and expressions.

 In this article, you’ll find examples of language that are commonly used in different e-mailing situations, so that you won’t have to worry about whether your wording is correct or not. The examples are labelled ’formal’ and ’informal’- please note that most informal expressions are perfectly suitable to use in ’semi-formal’ situations, such as between business associates who have worked together for some time and have established a good relationship.

GREETINGS

Formal

- Dear Sir/ Madam,

- Dear Sir or Madam,

- To whom it may concern: (especially AmE)

- Dear Mr/ Ms Jones,

- Dear Dr Smith,

(note: First names are NOT used. Using Miss or Mrs to address a woman  is not good form anymore: you cannot know whether she’s married or not)

Informal

Hi Dennis, Hello Claire, Dear Mum,

(note: salutations are followed by a **(,) comma**, exception: ’To whom it may concern:’)

**REASON FOR WRITING / REPLYING**

Formal

- I am writing **to** make a reservation/ to apply for the position of…/ to confirm my booking/ to ask for further information about …

- I am writing **with regard** **to** the sale of …/ to the complaint you made on 29 February
- Thank you for your e-mail of 29 February regarding the sale of… / concerning the conference in Brussels.

- With reference to our telephone conversation on Friday, I would like to let you know that…

Informal

- Just a quick note **to** invite you to…/ to tell you that…

- **This is to** invite you to join us for a picnic on 20 May.
- Thanks for your e-mail, it was wonderful/great to hear from you.

**MAKING A REQUEST / ASKING FOR INFORMATION**

Formal

- Could you please let me know if you can attend the fair/ if you are available for a meeting on 12 December?

- I would appreciate it if you could send me a brochure/ if you could reply within two days.
- Could you possibly arrange a meeting with my secretary?

- I would also like to know if there are any swimming pools in your area.
- Please, let me know how much the tickets cost.

Informal

- I was wondering if you could come and see me sometime next week

- Would you mind coming early to help me clear up the place?

- Do you think you could call Jerry for me?

- Can you call me/ get back to me asap? (as soon as possible)

**OFFERING HELP / GIVING INFORMATION**

Formal

- We are happy to let you know that your article has been selected for publication.
- I am glad to inform you that we will be holding our annual conference in Brussels on 20 September 2014.

- We regret to inform you that the show has been cancelled due to bad weather conditions.
- We are willing to arrange another meeting with the CEO.

- We would be glad to send you another statement if necessary.

- Please, let me know if I can be of further assistance.

- Should you need any further information/assistance, do not hesitate to contact us.

Informal

- I’m sorry, but I can’t make it tomorrow. (= I can’t come tomorrow.)

- I’m happy to tell you that John and I are getting married next month.

- Would you like me to come early and help you clear up the place?

- How about I come and help you out?

- Do you need a hand with moving the furniture?

**COMPLAINING**

Formal

- I am writing to express my dissatisfaction with… / to complain about…
- I regret to say that I was not completely satisfied with the room you provided us.
- We regret to inform you that your payment is considerably overdue.
- I would like to receive a full refund and compensation for the damages.
- I am interested to hear how your company can compensate us for the distress we suffered.

Informal

- I’m sorry to say that you’re late with the payments.

- I hope you won’t mind me saying that the place you’d recommended to us wasn’t as nice as we’d expected.

**APOLOGIZING**

Formal

- We would like to apologize for any inconvenience caused.

- Please accept our apologies for the delay.

- Please let us know what we can do to compensate you for the damages caused.
- We will make sure that this will not happen again in the  future.

– I am afraid I will not be able to attend the conference.

Informal

- I’m sorry for the trouble I caused.

- I apologize for the delay.

- I promise it won’t happen again.

– I’m sorry, but I can’t make it to the meeting.

ATTACHING FILES

Formal

- I am attaching my CV for your consideration

- I am sending you the brochure as an attachment.

- Please see the statement attached.

- Please find attached the file you requested.

- I am afraid I cannot open the file you have sent me.

- Could you send it again in … format?

Informal

- I’m attaching/sending you the holiday photos.

- Sorry, but I can’t open it. Can you send it again in … format?

**ENDING**

Formal

- I look forward to hearing from you.

- I look forward to hearing when you are planning to visit our town.

Informal

- Hope to hear from you soon.

- I’m looking forward to seeing you.

**CLOSING FORMULA**

Formal

- Yours faithfully, (when you start with Dear Sir/ Madam,)

- Yours sincerely, (when you start with the name e.g. Dear Ms Collins)

- Sincerely Yours, (AmE)

- Sincerely, (AmE)- Yours Truly, (AmE)

Informal

- Love, Thanks,- Take care,- Yours,- Best regards, (semi-formal, also BR)

One more thing to keep in mind is that in formal correspondence contractions are rarely used, so remember to write ’I do not’ instead of ’I don’t’ or ’they cannot’ instead of ’they can’t’ and so on.

**13.** **Глосарій**

**ГЛОСАРІЙ**

**Abbreviation** (syn. **clipping**, **shortening**) – a shortened form of a word or phrase, e.g., *prof – professor, pike - turnpike,* etc.

**Absolute (total, complete) synonyms –** synonyms so identical in their meaning that one can always be substituted for by the other in any given context, e.g., *fricative – spirant, almost – nearly, mirror – looking-glass, flection – inflection, noun – substantive,* etc.

**Acronym**  – a word formed from the initial letters of a fixed phrase or title, e.g., *TV –* television, *VIP –* very important person, *hi-fi –* high fidelity, etc.

**Affixation –** is the formation of new words by adding derivative affixes to derivational bases or stems, e.g., *kind + ness, grate* + *ful, un + happy, im* + *moral,* etc.

**Allomorphs –** positional variants of a morpheme characterized by complementary distribution (they are used in mutually exclusive environment and stand in alternation with each other), e.g., allomorphs of the prefix *in-* are: *il- (illegal), ir- (irregular), im- (impossible),* etc.

**Antonyms –** words of the same parts of speech different in sound-form, opposite in their denotational meaning or meanings and interchangeable in some contexts, e.g., *short – long, to begin – to end, regular – irregular, day – night, thick – thin, early – late,* etc.

**Aphaeresis, aphesis –** initial clipping, i.e. the formation of a word by the omission of the initial part of the word, e.g., *phone* from *telephone, mend* from *amend, story* from *history,* etc.

**Apocope –** final clipping, i.e. the omission of the final part of the word, e.g., *exam* from *examination, gym* from *gymnasium* or *gymnastics, lab* from *laboratory, ref* from *referee,* etc.

**Assimilation** (of a loan word) – a partial or total conformation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the English language and its semantic system.

**Back-formation –** derivation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed affix from an existing word, e.g., to sculpt – *sculptor,* to beg – *beggar,* to burgle –*burglar,* etc.

**Borrowings** (also **loan words) –** words taken over from another language and (partially or totally) modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language, e.g., *rickshaw* (Chinese), *sherbet* (Arabian), *ballet, café, machine, cartoon, police* (French), etc.

**Clipping –** formation of a word by cutting off one or several syllables of a word, e.g., *doc* (from *doctor), phone* (from *telephone),* etc. (see **abbreviation**, **apocope**, **aphaeresis**, **syncope**).

**Collocation –** habitual lexico-phraseological association of a word in a language with other particular words in a sentence, e.g., *to pay attention to, to meet the demands, cold war,* etc.

**Compound words** or **compounds –** words consisting of at least two stems or root morphemes which occur in the language as free forms, e.g., *tradesman, Anglo-Saxon, sister-in-law, honeymoon, passer-by,* etc.

**Connotation –** complementary meaning or complementary semantic and (or) stylistic shade which is added to the word‟s main meaning and which serves to express all sorts of emotional, expressive, evaluative overtones.

**Concept** (syn. **notion**) – an idea or thought, especially a generalized idea of a class of objects, the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations.

**Degradation of meaning** (also **pejoration** or **deterioration) –** the appearance of a derogatory and scornful emotive charge in the meaning of the word, i.e. a lexeme develops a negative meaning, e.g. *knave* (OE – *boy), silly* (OE – *happy), boor* (OE – *farmer).*

**Derivation –** the process of forming new words by affixes, sound and stress interchange, e.g. *work – worker, kind – unkind, food – feed, blood – bleed, life – live, present – present, import – import.* Some scholars include conversion into derivation, too.

**Denotational** (or **denotative) meaning –** the component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible, i.e. the component of meaning signifying or identifying the notion or the object and reflecting some essential features of the notion named;

**Etymology –** a branch of lexicology dealing with the origin and history of words, especially with the history of form.

**Euphemism –** a word or phrase used to replace an unpleasant word or expression by a conventionally more acceptable one, e.g. *to be no more, to pass away* for *to die; to tell stories, to distort the facts* for *to lie; remains* for *corpse; paying guest* for *lodger.*

**Functional approach to meaning –** an approach showing that the meaning of a linguistic unit (word) may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units (words) and not through its relation to either concept or referent, i.e. it views the meaning as the function of distribution,

**Homographs –** words identical in spelling but different both in their sound-form and meaning, e.g. *bow* [] – *bow* , *row* [] – *row* [], etc.

**Homonyms –** words identical in sound or spelling (or in both) but different in meaning (in semantic structure), e.g. *sound (adj) – sound (n).*

**Homonyms proper** (syn. **absolute**, **perfect**) – words identical in sound-form and spelling but different in meaning, e.g. *temple – скроня*, *temple* – храм; *seal –* печатка, *seal –* тюлень, etc.

**Homonyms, etymological** (syn. **historical homonyms**) – homonyms that are etymologically different words, e.g. *sea –* море, *to see – бачити*, *bear – ведмідь*, *to bear – народжувати*, etc.

**Idiom –** an accepted phrase, word-group, or expression the meaning of which cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components and the way they are put together, e.g. *to talk through one’s hat, to smell a rat, a white elephant, red tape,* etc.

**Juxtaposition** – the way of forming compounds by placing the stems side by side without any linking elements. It is very productive in English, e.g. *airline, postman, blue-bell, waterfall, house-keeper,* etc.

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

**Lexicography –** a branch of applied lexicology concerned with the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

**Morpheme –** the smallest linguistic unit possessing meaning (or the minimum meaningful unit of language), e.g. *un-luck-i-ly* has four morphemes,

**Paradigm –** the system of grammatical forms characteristic of a word, e.g. *to write, wrote, written, writing, writes; girl, girl’s, girls, girl’',* etc.

**Phraseological units** (syn. **set expressions**, **fixed combinations**, **units of fixed context**, **idioms**) – partially motivated or non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

**Polysemy –** plurality of meanings, i.e. co-existence of the various meanings of the same word and the arrangement of these meanings in the semantic structure of the word, e.g. *maid* 1) a girl, 2) a woman servant.

**Semantic changes –** changes of meaning,

**Semasiology –** the branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning.

**Synonyms –** words of the same part of speech different in their sound-form but similar in their denotational meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. *to look, to seem, to appear; high – tall,* etc.,

**Translation loans (loan-translations) –** words and expressions formed from the material available in English by way of literal word-for-word or morpheme-for-morpheme translation of a foreign word or expression (i.e. formed according to patterns taken from another language), e.g. *masterpiece* (cf. German *Meisterwerk); it goes without saying* (cf. French *cela va sans dire),* etc.

**Valency (valence) –** the combining power or typical cooccurrence of a linguistic element, i.e. the types of other elements of the same level with which it can occur; see **lexical valency**. Kinds of valency: lexical valency – the aptness of a word to occur with other words, grammatical valency - the aptness of a word to appear in specific syntactic structures.

**Vocabulary –** the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents of a language.

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