Міністерство освіти і науки України
Мукачівський державний університет
Кафедра англійської мови, літератури з методиками навчання

ВИБРАНІ ПИТАННЯ ТЕОРЕТИЧНОГО КУРСУ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ:
конспект лекцій з дисципліни для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності 014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська))

2023
Мукачево

УДК 378.016:811.111-027.21-047.23(042.3)(072)

Розглянуто та рекомендовано до друку Науково-методичною радою
Мукачівського державного університету
протокол № 7 від «16» лютого 2023р.
Розглянуто та схвалено на засіданні кафедри англійської мови, літератури з
методиками навчання,
протокол № 10 від «17» січня 2023р.

Рецензент: канд.психол.н., доц. Барчі Б.В.

В-41
Вибрані питання теоретичного курсу англійської мови: конспект лекцій з дисципліни для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності 014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська)) / Укладач Н.О. Герцовська. – Мукачево: МДУ, 2023. – 29с. (1,6 авт.арк).

Видання містить стислий конспект лекцій з дисципліни, тематику індивідуальних завдань, перелік питань для проміжного та підсумкового контролів та перелік рекомендованих джерел.
Призначене для використання здобувачами в процесі виконання самостійної роботи та підготовки до семінарських занять. Конспект лекцій розроблений у відповідності до програми дисципліни «Вибрані питання теоретичного курсу англійської мови».

ЗМІСТ

ВСТУП

Для підготовки компетентного конкурентоспроможного фахівця в галузі освіти та педагогіки, здатного на високому професійному рівні розв'язувати складні спеціалізовані задачі та практичні проблеми, орієнтованого на подальшу фахову самоосвіту освітньою програмою передбачено вивчення освітнього компонента «Вибрані питання теоретичного курсу англійської мови».

Мета дисципліни – узагальнити лінгвістичних знань здобувачів освіти для подальшого їх використання у процесі власної педагогічної та мовно-професійної діяльності.

Конспект лекцій укладено з метою допомоги здобувачам в теоретичному опануванні дисципліни «Вибрані питання теоретичного курсу англійської мови» та формуванні загальних і фахових компетентностей, активізації самостійної пошукової роботи здобувачів та мотивації їх до поглибленого вивчення питань дисципліни.

Методичні вказівки містять опорні конспекти лекцій, тематику індивідуальних завдань, перелік питань для проміжного та підсумкового контролів та список використаних джерел.

Засвоєння даної дисципліни сприятиме в досягненні програмних результатів навчання: Вміти здійснювати пошук, опрацювання та аналіз наукової, довідкової, методичної літератури (в т. ч. з використанням сучасних інформаційно-комунікаційних технологій); бути здатним виокремлювати, систематизувати інформацію для використання її у науково-педагогічному дослідженні та освітньому процесі з дотриманням принципів дослідницької та методологічної культури, академічної доброчесності. Володіти здатністю використовувати державну мову, англійську мову (на рівні С1) в професійно-педагогічному контексті для формування у здобувачів освіти іншомовної комунікативної компетентності на рівні європейських вимог та реалізовувати її у міжособистісному спілкуванні, міжкультурній комунікації, в умовах мультилінгвального освітнього середовища. Володіти навичками ведення професійно-орієнтованих дискусій англійською мовою, продукувати англомовні письмові тексти різного функціонального спрямування, демонструючи здатність критично осмислювати об'єктивну дійсність та аргументувати власне бачення ситуації.

Програма курсу

Тема 1. Introduction. The structure, the subject-matter and aims of the general theoretical course of English. The importance of the English language. English as a Germanic language. Classification of Germanic languages.

Тема 2. The outline of the history of the English language. Periods of the history of the English language. The Roman conquest. The Anglo-Saxon conquest. Danish raids on Britain. The vocabulary of Anglo-Saxons. Dialects of old English and Old English manuscripts.

Тема 3. Etymological structure of the English word-stock. Borrowings as a way of enlarging the vocabulary of a language. Borrowings from Latin. Borrowings from French. Borrowings from other languages.

Тема 4. Morphological structure of English words and main ways of their word-formation. Morphological structure of English words. Classification of suffixes and prefixes. Compound words and their classifications. Conversion as a means of word-formation. Minor types of word-building.

Тема 5. Semantic structure of the word. The problem of meaning. Semantic structure of the word. Changes in meaning. Causes of semantic change. Semantic relationships between words. Homonyms and polysemes.

Тема 6. English grammars from a historical perspective. Grammar as a theory of language. The notion of grammar. Types of grammar books. Periods in the history of English grammars. Theories of grammar. N. Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar. R. Jackendoff's mental grammar. R. W. Langacker's cognitive grammar.

Тема 7. Style studies. Functional stylistics and functional styles. Paradigm of stylistic devices. Stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary.

Тема 8. Varieties of English today. Dialects of English on the British isles. American English. Varieties of English throughout the world.

Лекція 1. Introduction.
1. The structure, the subject-matter and aims of the general theoretical course of English.
2. The importance of the English language.
3. English as a Germanic language.
4. Classification of Germanic languages.

The general theoretical course of English is intended for students of philological departments, who study English as their specialization. The main aim of the course is to supply the students with necessary linguistic terminology, which is widely employed in grammar, stylistics, lexicology, history of language.

English is generally acknowledges to be not only one of the major languages of the world, but the world's most important language, the so-called lingua franca.

The importance of English is not grounded on its qualities as language, but is based on such objective criteria as the number of speakers, the geographical distribution, the extend of its function load, the economic and political influence of the native speakers.

English is a language of the Germanic branch of Indo-European family of languages. Germanic group is divided into North Germanic, East Germanic and West Germanic.

There are 7 groups of living Indo-European languages and 3 separate languages, which also include dead languages known from history that are closely related to them, which were the previous stages of the development of modern languages or belonged to the corresponding groups as independent languages.

The largest group of living Indo-European languages is the group of Indian languages – 96 languages spoken by more than 770 million people. These include the languages Hindi and Urdu (2 varieties of the single literary language in India and Pakistan), Bengali, Punjabi, Marathi, Gujarati, Oriya, Assamese, Sindhi, Gypsy, etc., as well as the languages of the shastras (sacred texts) — Vedic and Sanskrit , on which many written monuments have been preserved.

The group of Iranian languages includes living languages — Persian (Farsi), Tajik, Dari (Farsi-Kabuli), Afghan (Pashto), Ossetian, Yagnob, Kurdish, Baluchi, Talysh, a number of Pamir languages, etc. (a total of 81 million speakers) and dead languages – Avestan, Median, Old Persian, Middle Persian (Pahlavi), Parthian, Sogdian, Khorezmian, Scythian, Alanic, Sakan (Khotan). On the basis of a number of common structures and features, Iranian languages are combined with Indian languages into Indo-Iranian languages: there are assumptions about their origin from the former linguistic unity.

The Slavic group of languages is divided into 3 subgroups (more than 290 million speakers):

Eastern: Ukrainian, Russian, Belarusian;

Western: Polish, Czech, Slovak, Upper Lusatia, Lower Lusatia, Polabian language (disappeared at the beginning of the 18th century);

Southern: consisting of two subgroups: Western subgroup: Serbo-Croatian, Bosnian, Serbian, Croatian, Montenegrin, Slovenian, Prekmurian. And Eastern

subgroup: Bulgarian, Macedonian, Old Church Slavonic†, Church Slavic†, local varieties, including the Kyiv izvod.

The group of Baltic languages consists of living languages - Lithuanian and Latvian (4.3 million speakers) and dead languages - Prussian†, Yatvia†, Curonian† and others. Given the special structural proximity of Baltic languages to Slavic languages, it is assumed that there was some kind of Baltic-Slavic language commonality in the past (protolanguages, origin from close Indo-European dialects, long-term contact).

The group of Germanic languages (about 550 million speakers) includes living languages: English — the second (after Chinese) in prevalence in the world, German, Dutch, Frisian, Luxembourgish, Afrikaans, Yiddish, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Faroese and the dead are Gothic†, Burgundian†, Vandal†, Gepid†, Herul† and others.

The Romance language group (576 million speakers) is represented by living languages — French, Provençal (Occitan), Italian, Sardinian (Sardinian), Spanish, Catalan, Portuguese, Romanian, Aromanian, Romansh, and a number of Creole languages. All Romance languages developed on the basis of Latin, the literary form of which is now known from numerous written monuments and is still used as the language of the Catholic liturgy and (to a limited extent) as the international language of science. The Latin language, together with the dead Oscan and Umbrian languages, formed a group of Italic languages.

The Celtic group of languages consists of rare living languages - Irish, Gaelic (Scottish), Welsh, Breton and dead – Manx†, Cornish†, Celtiberian†, Lepontian†, Gaulish†. In the past, Celtic languages were spread over a large area of Europe – from present-day Great Britain to the Carpathians and the Balkans. The structure of the Celtic languages has a number of common features with the Italic languages, with which they are usually combined into a more general Italo-Celtic group.

The Greek language (12.2 million speakers) occupies a special place among Indo-European languages at the level of a language group. Ancient Greek (ancient Greek language) and Middle Greek (Byzantine) periods are distinguished in its history.

The Albanian language (4.9 million speakers) is genetically related to the dead Illyrian and Messapian languages.

The Armenian language (more than 6 million speakers) is considered the successor of the former language of the Hayas-Armenians in the state of Urartu.

Key words: general theoretical course, lingua franca, Germanic branch, Indo-European family of languages.

Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the material/report on the question *Indo-European family of languages*.

Recommended literature: 2; 7; 9; 13.

Лекція 2. The outline of the history of the English language.

1. Periods of the history of the English language.
2. The Roman conquest.
3. The Anglo-Saxon conquest.
4. Danish raids on Britain.
5. The vocabulary of Anglo-Saxons.
6. Dialects of old English and Old English manuscripts.

1. Though the development of English was slow, gradual and uniterupted, there is a considerable difference between the English language of the 9th, 13th and 18th century in vocabulary, grammatical organization and phonetic features. The history of the English language is therefore devided into three periods: Old English, Middle English and Modern (New) English.

The Old English period (OE) began in 449 with the Germanic conquest of Britain. The Middle English Period (MidE) began in 1066 with the Norman conquest of Britain. The Modern English period (MnE) began in 1475 with introduction of of book printing and the formation of national English language. Morphologically, OE was the period of full inflections, MidE – the period of leveled inflections, and MnE is the period of lost inflections. During these periods English transformed its system of the synthetic language into the analytical one.

2. The ancient inhabitants of the British Isles were the Celts, who originally lived on the continent and invaded Britain during the period from the 6th till the 3rd century B.C. One of the most powerful Celtic tribes – the Britons – occupied the rest of the island, and the part of the country began to be known as Britain.

In the 1st century B.C. while the inhabitants of the British Isles lived in the primitive communal system, the Roman Empire became the strongest slave-owning state in the Mediterranean. In 43 A.D. the Roman Emporor Claudius invaded the British Isles and conquered the south-eastern part of the country. The Romans never managed to become the masters of the whole country, the Scotish Highlands became unconquered.

There had been no towns in Britain before the Romans. During this period London which had been a small trading settlement before the conquest now became a center of trade both by road and river.

Throught the communication with Romans a bumber of new words entered the speech of the Celts. The Romans remained in Britain for about four centuries. In 407 the Roman legions were recalled from Briatin to defend Rome against the attacks of the barbarian tribes of the Goths. But the independence of Britain was of short duration. From the middle of the 5th century the country began to suffer from the attacks of the Germanic tribes.

3. In 499 first the Jutes and then the Saxons and the Angles invaded Britain. The Celts fought fiercely against the invaders and it took the Germanic tribes more than one hundred and fifty years to conquer the country. After the conquest seven Kingdoms appeared on the territory.

4. By the close of the 8th century the Anglo-Saxons began to suffer from the attacks of the Scandinavians, mostly Danes and Norwegians, known as the Vikings. These pple were of the same Germanic race as the Anglo-Saxons, but unlike the last whose way of lige had changed greatly, the Danes were still pagans and still lived in tribes.

The Scandinavian influence on the English language manifested itself primarily in the vocabulary. Up to 900 words were borrowed in that period (happy, ill, low, lose, ugly, weak, to call, to die, to take, to want, sister, husband, sky, loan, link, root, window, wing).

5. The Angles, Saxons and Jutes were pagans and believed in many gods. They worshiped the sun and the moon, the sea and some nature phenomena. With the development of feudal relations paganism became of no use to the kings and the landlords, as this religion reflected the life of the tribal society where all man were equal and no oppression of man by man existed. Now thye needed a religion which would teach obedience and would serve the interests of the rich. Such a religion was Christianity. In 597 the Roamn Pope Gregory I sent about forty monks to Britain in order to spread this religion among the Anglo-Saxons and to include Britain into the sphere of his political influence. Together with the religion quite a number of Latin words were borrowed (bishop, pope, master, saint, sin, plant, mint, pear, pound). The influence of the Celtic language was entirely confined to the vocabulary and did not affaect the grammatical structure of English.

6. When the Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes settled in Briatin there were four distinct dialects (the Northumbrian, the Mercian, the West Saxon, the Kentish). The ancient Germans used runic characters for writing. With the spread of Christianity the Latin language began to be widely used. The main Old English manuscripts were written in Latin are Caedmon's Hymn and Beowulf. The latter is valued both a source of linguistic material (originally written in the Mercian dialect) and a masterpiece of art. Most valuable are the survivals of Old Englsih prose which was in the form of charters and brief records of the year's happenings made at various monasteries – the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles. The most famous writer of that time was the monk named Bede, who wrote Ecclesiastical History of the English People.

Key words: monk, runic, Latin, tribe, pagan, Cgristianity, conquest, Celts, Roamns, Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Danes, Scandinavians.

Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the material/report on the question *Old English manuscripts*.

Recommended literature: 2; 7; 8; 9; 14.

Лекція 3. Etymological structure of the English word-stock.
1. Borrowings as a way of enlarging the vocabulary of a language.
2. Borrowings from Latin.
3. Borrowings from French.
4. Borrowings from other languages.

1. Etymology is the study of the root or origin of a word. Some of the words are ytomologically transparent, others are not. The word stock of a language is, as a rule, etymologically heterogeneous, falling into native words and borrowed. The English word stock includes the so-called native words (words belonging to theoriginal word stock as known from the earliest OE manuscripts) and loan words, borrowed into the language in the course of its development through linguistic contacts with other people. Nowadays, only 30 % of the English words are native.

A borrowed word undergoes certain assimilation according to the standards of the language-borrower. The degree of assimilation depends upon the length of the period during which the word has been used in the receiving language, upon its frequency and the importance for communication purposes. According to the degree of assimilarion borrowings fall into three groups: 1) completely assimilated loan words; 2) partially assimilated loan words; 3) unassimilated loan words or barbarisms.

Languages that have contributed words to English include: Latin, Greel, French, German, Arabic, Hindi, Italian, Dutch, Portuguese and Spanish. Nevertheless, the heart of the language reamins the Anglo-Saxon of Old English. Only about 5000 words from this period have remained unchanged but they include the basic building blocks of language: household words, parts of the body, common animals, most pronouns, prepositions, numerals, conjunctions, auxiliary words.

2. Latin has been the most long-lasting donor of borrowings to English because its influence started before the 5th A.D. (when Anglo-Saxons still lived on the Continent) and continues up to present day.
Usually Latin borrowings in **OE** are classified into the following layers:
1. **Continental borrowings** – words that the West Germanic tribes borrowed from Latin while they still lived on the Continent. Later, when they conquered the British Isles, they brought these words with them. These words are present in all the Germanic languages.
- **concrete objects** (household (*cup, pillow,* etc.*)*, food (*cheese, butter,* etc.), animals (*mule, turtle,* etc.));
- **units of measurement** (*mile, pound, inch,* etc.).

2. **Borrowings after the Roman Invasion** of the British Isles (through the Romanised Celts) that lie within the following semantic areas:
- **trade** (*trade, deal, chest, flask,* etc.);
- **building** (*chalk, file, copper,* etc.);
- **domestic life** (*dish, kettle,* etc.);
- **military affairs** (*wall, street, pile,* etc.);

3. **Borrowings after the Introduction of Christianity** (597) that lie within the following semantic areas:
- **religion** (*angel, hymn, idol, pope, psalm*; from Greek through Latin – *anthem, bishop, candle, apostle,* etc.);
- **learning** (*school, scholar, master, verse, accent, grammar,* etc.);
- **everyday life** (*plant, pine, radish, cap, sock,* etc.).

Latin	Greek
abstract concepts (*anticipate, exact, exaggerate, explain, fact, dislocate, accommodation,* etc.)	**theatre** (*drama, episode, scene, theatre,* etc.)
	literature (*anapest, climax, epilogue, rhythm,* etc.)
	rhetoric (*dialogue, metaphor,* etc.)
affixes de- (*demolish, destroy,* etc.), **ex-** (*extract, , explore, explain,* etc.), **re-** (*reread, retell, retry,* etc.), **-ate** (*locate, excavate,* etc.), **-ent** (*apparent, present, turbulent,* etc.), **-ct** (*correct, erect,* etc.)	**roots** for creation of new words ( )
	affixes -ism (*humanism, mechanism, aphorism,* etc.), **-ist** (*protagonist, terrorist, cyclist,* etc.), **anti-** (*antibody, antidote, antibiotic,* etc.), **di-** (*digest, diverse,* etc.), **neo-** (*neo-realism, neo-conservatism,* etc.)
Greco-Latin Hybrids (words one part of which is Greek and the other one – Latin): e.g. *tele-graph, socio-logy, tele-vision,* etc.	

3. A study of the history and process of borrowings is essentially the study of the development of language. It reveals the point of contact between two people, two civilizations, two ways of living and speaking. The English language owes its profundity and richness to a number of two races – French and English came into contacts with each other on various fronts. Many French words found their way in English vocabulary. The Norman Conquest opened the door for a great influence of foreign words. The knowledge of French enabled the native people to reach the rich literature of the continent but also to high administrative positions. The French formed the upper class of the English society with the result that so many of the French words are aristocratic. It gave to English nearly all words relating to government and to the administration. These words are *crown, state, government, minister, chancellor, power, country, parliament, council, people, nation, etc.* Military affairs came into the hands of the result that a large number of words came from the French stock. Some of the military words are *war, peace, battle arms, armor, lance, banner, navy, admiral, troops, etc.* The Norman also greatly

influenced the English law and religion words like *justice, judge, court* and religion words such as clearly sent Miracle, *preach, pray, etc* come from the French stock.

There are a good number of words which relate to pleasure and enjoyment, such words are *joy, pleasure, delight.* The French words connected with fashion are *dress, costume, tailor, mason, table, chair* and *carpenters.* Many words relating to art and architecture were from French as *art, beauty, color, design chapel, place mason.* Again English owes to the French all the current terms of family relationship outside the immediate circle of the household like an uncle, aunt, and nephew, niece and cousin. French loan words continued to be adopted even after the Middle English period. With the close, the middle ages there come a marked change in the nature and character of the French influence upon English while the French word adopted by the Middle English period became an integral part of the language. The French words borrowers after the beginning of the 16th century came to be restricted to the well educated. But one thing is obvious that in every century English imported a large number of words from French vocabulary.

4. Words from Scandinavian languages were adopted mainly during the OE period. Here we found: begin, egg, get, kettle, ill, skin, skirt, sick, shirt, same, doze, root, score, scrape, saga, ski.

Most Greek words came into English through Latin or French. Most of them were learned, technical, scientific words. At the time of the revival of learning many of the new ideas or branches of learning that the Reneissance brought were expressed by Greek words: arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, comedy, poetry, logic, zoology, telephone, bicycle.

In the 16th century and onwards, trade, exploration, colonization and cultural contacts led to the borrowing of the new words from other languages. Spanish sailors made many discoveries and also brought many new words into English: chocolate, tomato, banana, tobacco, cigar, vanilla, cockroach, embargo, guitar, mosquito. Numerous Italian words include musical terms and names of food: broccoli, carnival, casino, duet, pizza, solo, piano, malaria, paparazzi, regatta, umbrella, bankrupt.

Most Hebrew words have religious significance: amen, messiah, jubilee, satan. Words of Arabic origin include: admiral, alcohol, harem, candy, hazard, lemon, safari, sofa, zero. Loan words from Indian langauges are as follows: bungalow, cashmere, curry, ginger, jungle, mango, pajamas, shampoo, yoga.

Key words: Borrowed words, loan words, native element, barbarism.

Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the material/report on the question *Borrowings from Slavic languages*.

Recommended literature: 2; 7; 8; 9.

Лекція 4. Morphological structure of English words and main ways of their word-formation.

1. Morphological structure of English words.
2. Classification of suffixes and prefixes.
3. Compound words and their classifications.
4. Conversion as a means of word-formation.
5. Minor types of word-building.

Words are made up of **morphemes**. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a word. We distinguish root morphemes and affixational morphemes. The very term "morpheme" is of the Greek origin (*morphe* – form). Can morphemes occur in speech as separate independent units? They can, if a word consists of a single morpheme: he can, pen, walk. But upon the whole morphemes are **not autonomous**. They occur in speech as consistent parts of words. **Word** is the basic unit of a given language.

Lexicology deals with **derivational affixes**. They may be treated from the point of view of **word**-building (in what way they derive new words) and from the point of view of word-structure (what role they play in the structure of the word, as a structural unit).

Affixational derivational morphemes are subdivided into **prefixes, suffixes** and **infixes**. An affix before the root-morpheme is called a prefix: *re*-presentation, *un*-willingly, *im*-possible, *en*-circle and that following the root-morpheme – a suffix: walk-*er*, yellow-*ish*, symbol-*ism*, fellow-*ship*. Affixes possess the part-of-speech meaning.

Structurally we distinguish *free* morphemes and *bound* morphemes. *Bound* morphemes function only as parts of words: *-ness, -ate, -hood, de-*. *Bound* morphemes among roots are presented by *–ceive* (conceive, deceive), *theor-* (theory, theoretical).

Infixes (n in stand) are not productive in English.

When we remove from a word all functional affixes (inflexions) we receive a stem (основа слова). The stem expresses both lexical and part-of-speech meaning. It is the part of a word which remains unchanged through its paradigm. **A paradigm** is a system of grammatical forms of the word.

Stems may be simple (root stems), derived (beautiful) and compound (handbag).

A stem containing one and more affixes is called a derived stem.

From the point of view of the morphological structure of English words we distinguish:

1. Simple words (root-words) where the root coincides with the stem in form;
2. Derived words (derivatives) where the meaning of the root, the lexical nucleus is modified by the potential meaning of suffixes;
3. Compound words where two or more stems are fused into semantic and structural whole.

4.   Compound derivatives or derivational compounds constituted by two or more stem-morphemes (roots) modified by an affix.

2. **Word-composition** (compounding) is the formation of words by morphologically joining two or more stems.

A compound word is a word consisting of at least two stems which usually occur in the language as free forms, e.g. university teaching award committee member.

The compound inherits most of its semantic and syntactic information from its head, i.e. the most important member of a compound word modified by the other component.

According to the type of the linking element:

compounds without a linking element, e.g. *toothache, bedroom, sweet-heart*;

compounds with a vowel linking element, e.g. *handicraft, speedometer*;

compounds with a consonant linking element, e.g. *statesperson, craftsman*;

compounds with a preposition linking stem, e.g. *son-in-law, lady-in-waiting;*

compounds with a conjunction linking stem, e.g. *bread-and-butter.*

According to the type of relationship between the components, subordinative compounds are classified into:

-syntactic compounds if their components are placed in the order that resembles the order of words in free phrases made up according to the rules of Modern English syntax, e.g. *a know-nothing* - to know nothing, *a blackbird* – a black bird;

-asyntactic compounds if they do not conform to the grammatical patterns current in present-day English, e.g. *baby-sitting* – to sit with a baby, *oil-rich* – to be rich in oil.

According to **the way of composition**:

-**compound proper** is a compound formed after a composition pattern, i.e. by joining together the stems of words already available in the language, with or without the help of special linking elements, e.g. *seasick, looking-glass, helicopter-rescued, handicraft*;

-derivational compound is a compound which is formed by two simultaneous processes of composition and derivation; in a derivational compound the structural integrity of two free stems is ensured by a suffix referring to the combination as a whole, e.g. *long-legged, many-sided, old-timer, left-hander.*

According to the semantic relations between the constituents:

non-idiomatic compounds, whose meanings can be described as the sum of their constituent meanings, e.g. *a sleeping-car, an evening-gown, a snowfall*;

compounds one of the components of which has undergone semantic derivation, i.e. changed its meaning, e.g. *a blackboard*, *a bluebell*;

idiomatic compounds, the meaning of which cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituents, e.g. *a ladybird*, *a tallboy*, *horse-marine*. **The bahuvrihi compounds** (Sanskrit 'much riced') are idomatic formations in which a person, animal or thing is metonymically named after some striking feature (mainly in their appearance) they possess; their word-building pattern is **an**

adjectival stem + a noun stem, e.g. *bigwig, fathead, highbrow, lowbrow, lazy-bones.*

3. Conversion (zero derivation, root formation, functional change) is the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of derived words are homonymous. This phenomenon can be illustrated by the following cases: work – to work, love – to love, water – to water.

Partial conversion is a kind of a double process when first a noun is formed by conversion from a verbal stem and next this noun is combined with such verbs as to give, to make, to take to form a separate phrase: to have a look, to take a swim, to give a whistle.

There is a great number of idiomatic prepositional phrases as well: to be in the know, in the long run, to get into a scrape. Sometimes the elements of these expressions have a fixed grammatical form, as, for example, where the noun is always plural: It gives me the creeps (jumps). In other cases the grammatical forms are free to change.

Reconversion is the phenomenon when one of the meanings of the converted word is a source for a new meaning of the same stem: cable (металевий провідник) – to cable (телеграфувати) – cable(телеграма); help(допомога) – to help (допомагати пригощати) – help (порція їжі), deal (кількість) – to deal (роздавати) – deal (роздача карт).

Substantivation can also be considered as a type of conversion. Complete substantivation is a kind of substantivation when the whole paradigm of a noun is acquired: a private - the private – privates – the privates. Alongside with complete substantivation there exists partial substantivation when a feature or several features of a paradigm of a noun are acquired: the rich. Besides the substantivized adjectives denoting human beings there is a considerable group of abstract nouns: the Singular, the Present. It is thus evident that substantivation has been the object of much controversy. Those who do not accept substantivation of adjectives as a type of conversion consider conversion as a process limited to the formation of verbs from nouns and nouns from verbs. But this point of view is far from being universally accepted. Conversion is not characteristic of the Ukrainian language. The only type of conversion that can be found there is substantivation: молодий, хворий.

4. Word-formation is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from material, available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.

Word-composition is the formation of a new word by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms (*f.e. house-keeper, door-handle*).

Apart from principal there are some minor types of modern word-formation, i.e. shortening, blending, acronymy, sound interchange, sound imitation, distinctive stress, back-formation.

Shortening is the formation of the word by cutting off a part of the word. According to the part of the word which is cut off (initial, middle or final) there are the following types of shortening 1- initial (aphesis) f.e. *fend* from *defend*, *phone* from *telephone;* 2 – medial (syncope) f.e. *fancy* from *fantasy*; 3 – final (apocope) f.e. *veg* from *vegetavles*; 4 – both initial and final f.e. *flu* from *influenza.*

Blending is the formation of a new word by combining parts of two words. Blends may be of two types: 1 – additive type that may be transformed into a phrase consisting of complete stems combined by the conjunction and, *smog = smoke + fog*; 2 – restrictive type that can be transformed into a phrase, the first element of which serves as a modifier for the second f.e. *telecast = television broadcast.*

Acronymy (graphical abbreviation) is the formation of the word from the initial letters of word combination. There are two basic types of acronyms: 1 – acronyms which are read as ordinary English words f.e. *UNESCO – the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization*; 2 – acronyms with the alphabetic reading f.e. *BBC – the British Broadcasting Corporation.*

Sound interchange is the formation of a word due to an alternation in the phonemic composition of its root. Sound-interchange falls into two groups: 1 – vowel-interchange (ablaut) f.e. *food – to feed*, in some cases vowel-interchange is combined with suffixation (f.e. *strong – strength*) ; 2 – consonant-interchange f.e *advice – to advise*. Consonant & Vowel interchange may be combined together (f.e. *life – to live*).

Sound imitation (onomatopoeia) is the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with it f.e. *cock-a-dooodle-do = ку-ка-рi-ку.* Semantically, according to the source sound, many onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups: 1 – words denoting sound producing by human beings in the process of communication or expressing their feelings f.e. *chatter, babble*; 2 – words denoting sound produced by animals, birds, insects f.e. *moo, croak, buzz*; 3 – words imitating the sound of water, the noise of metallic things, a forceful motion, movements f.e. *splash, clink, whip, swing.*

Back-formation is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words. The process is based on analogy. F.e. *butle* was made from *butler.*

Stress interchange is the formation of a word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word, f.e. *'absent – ab'sent.*

Key words: stem, root, affix, composition, word-formation, conversion, compound.

Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the material/report on the question *Minor types of word-building.*

Recommended literature: 3; 4; 9; 11.

Лекція 5. Semantic structure of the word.
1. The problem of meaning.
2. Semantic structure of the word.
3. Changes in meaning. Causes of semantic change.
4. Semantic relationships between words.
5. Homonyms and polysemes.

1. In everyday language the words meaning and sense are used interchangeably. In linguistics they are differentiated. The sense of a word is its cognitive meaning as determined by its place within the semantic system of a language.

Traditionally they differentiate between the lexical and the grammatical meaning of the word. The latter deals with the expression in speech of the relationship between words. The former is said to be the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system. The notional content of the word is expressed by the denotative meaning. The emotive association that a word evokes is called connotation.

2. Semantics is the study of meaning which is a complex matter in that it involves the relationship between words, ideas and things as well as the relationship between words of similar meaning.

The semantic structure of the word is complicated and may include:
- Direct and figurative meaning
- Main and secondary meaning
- Outdated and present-day usage
- Stylistically neautral and stylistically coloured

3. Semantic changes have been variously classified into such categories as: enlargement (or extension), narrowing, generalization, specialization, transfer (metaphor and metonymy), irradiation, amelioration, pejoration and many others.

These numerous classifications might be subdivided into logical, psychological, sociological and genetic. No satisfactory or universally accepted scheme of classification has ever been found and this line of search seems to be abandoned.

The authors of the earliest classifications treated semantic change as a logical process conditioned psychologically and classed its types under the headings of the figures of speech: synecdoche, metonymy, metaphor.

The synecdoche covers not only all cases in which a part is put for the whole, or the whole for a part, but also - the general for the special and the special for the general, i.e. what was later termed as specialization or narrowing and generalization or widening.

The metonymy applies the name of one thing to another with which it has some permanent connection. The relations may be those of cause and result, symbol and thing symbolized, container and content, etc.

The metaphor applies the name of one thing to another to which it has some resemblance.

They considered the last type of semantic change to be the most important of the three.

The classification has its drawback, as it mixes facts of language with those of the literary style.

Later on to the classification were added: hyperbole, vulgarism, litotes, and euphemism (they will be discussed later).

In the 20th century the progress of semasiology was uneven. The theory of semantic field, treating semantic phenomena historically and within a definite language system at a definite period of its development was offered.

The study of semantic change is very important as the development and change of the semantic structure of a word is always a source of qualitative and quantitative development of the vocabulary.

When studying it we are to compare:

We may compare the earlier and the new meaning of the given word. This comparison may be based on the difference between notions expressed or referents in the real world that are pointed out, or on some other features. This difference is revealed in the difference of contexts, in which these words occur, in their different valency.

E.g. the word "play" suggests different notions to a child, a playwright, a footballer, a musician or a chess-player and has in their speech different semantic paradigms. A word which formally represented a notion of a narrower scope has come to render a notion of a broader scope. When the meaning is specialized, the word can name fewer objects, i.e. have fewer referents.

The reduction of scope accounts for the term "narrowing of meaning" which is even more often used than the term "specialization".

There is also a third term for the same phenomenon, namely "differentiation", but it is not so widely used as the first two terms.

The process reverse to specialization is termed "generalization and widening of meaning". In this case the scope of the new notion is wider than that of the original one, whereas the content of the notion is poorer. In most cases generalization is combined with a higher order of abstraction than in the notion expressed by the earlier meaning. The transition from a concrete meaning to an abstract one is a most frequent feature in the semantic history of words.

4. Synonyms are often defined as words different in form but identical in meaning. In reality, however, this is not so. By the very nature of language, each and every word has its own history, its typical contexts and motivation. Hence synonymous words could only be **similar**, but never really identical in meaning. There is always a difference, if very small, between either denotational or connotational meaning or both. Much synonymic group includes, among others, a dominant element, or a **synonymic dominant**. This seems to contain all, most, specific semantic features possessed also by the specific members of the synonymic group, and so is the most general term that could, if necessary, replace

any other member of synonymic group in most contexts. An example is *hope* as used to *anticipate*, *expect*, *look forward to*: *hope* is most neutral word, while *look forward* is definitely colloquial and *anticipate* is bookish.

Traditionally, the Soviet linguists, following V.V. Vinogradov, distinguished between **ideographic** synonyms, defined words conveying the same notion but differing in shades of meaning, **stylistic** synonyms, differing in stylistic characteristics, and **absolute** synonyms, which coincided in all shades of meaning and all their stylistic characteristics. This, however, leaves more questions than answers. Firstly, absolute synonyms are very rare; whenever they appear – usually as a result of borrowings – one of them tends to drop out of use, or acquire a specialized meaning. Secondly, shades of meaning is something so vague that it evades definition. Thirdly, many synonyms are distinguished both by their shade of meaning and their stylistic colouring, or, in other words, both in their denotational and connotational meaning.

Traditionally, antonyms are defined as pairs of words that have opposite or contrasting meanings, such as *hot – cold*, *wide – narrow*, *happiness – sorrow*, *love – hate*. This definition, however, is not sufficiently accurate. A more precise definition, taking into account all the various aspects of the phenomenon, runs as follows: Antonyms are two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and to the same semantic field, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and often used together so that their denotative meanings render **contradictory** or **contrary** notions. Contradictory notions mentioned here are mutually opposed and mutually exclusive, as *alive* is the opposition of *dead*. Contrary notions, on the other hand, imply a gradation of meaning, so *old* and *young*, *hot* and *cold* are but the most distant elements in a series of intermediate stages like *elderly, middle-aged*; *cool, lukewarm*, etc. On the other hand, even an absolute opposition could be made gradable for stylistic purposes (e.g. more *dead* than *alive*).

Another classification of antonyms is based on a morphological approach, dividing them into **absolute** antonyms which are completely different in their sound-form (*right – wrong, kind – cruel*), and **derivational** antonyms with phonemically identical root-morphemes, distinguished by presence or absence of a negative affix (*happy – unhappy*, *kind – unkind*).

Antonyms should be distinguished from **conversives** which describe the same situation as seen from different points of view, and therefore not antagonistic but complementary in meaning: *buy – sell, parent – child, left – right*, etc., with an obvious place or role reversal. The substitution of one conversive by another does not change the meaning of a sentence if other necessary changes are made, and logico-grammatical relations are taken into account: *He is my child – I an his parent*, *He is to the left of me – I am to the right of him*, *I bought flowers – I was sold flowers*.

5. **Homonyms** are words which are identical in sound form and/or spelling but different in meaning. Modern English is extremely rich in homonyms as there are a lot of one-syllable and two-syllable words.

Homonyms can be classified according to different *principles*:

I. On the basis of *(a) sound-form, (b) spelling* and *(c) meaning* homonyms are classified into:

1) homonyms proper, or perfect homonyms, which are identical both in spelling and sound-form, but different in meaning,

e.g. *bank "a shore" - bank "a financial institution",*
winter "a season" - to winter "to spend the winter";

2) homophones, which are identical in sound but different in spelling and meaning,

e.g. *course - coarse, weather - whether, cite - sight – site;*

3) homographs, which are identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning,

e.g. *'entrance, n. "door, gate" – en'trance, v. "put in a trance",*
lead [e] "the metal" - lead [i:] "conduct, guide";

II. On the basis of *the paradigm*, i.e. whether the paradigms of two words coincide completely or only in part, homonyms are divided into:

   1. full homonyms, which coincide in all their forms,

e.g. *ball "a dancing party" - ball "a spherical object",*
seal "a sea animal" - seal " a piece of wax, lead, etc. stamped with a design";

   2. partial homonyms which have only some identical forms:

e.g. *found "to establish" - found (past indefinite of find),*
seal "a sea animal" - to seal "to fasten or close tightly";

Partial homonyms usu. belong to different parts of speech, but may belong to the same part of speech,

e.g. *to lie (lied) - to lie (lay, lain).*

III. On the basis of their *part of speech*, homonyms are classified into:

1) lexical homonyms which belong to the same part of speech,

e.g. *seal(1) – seal(2)*

   2. lexico-grammatical homonyms which belong to different parts of speech,

e.g. *rose "a flower" - rose (past indefinite or rise).*

This group includes words related by conversion,

e.g. *to jump-a jump, milk - to milk.*

Some lexicologists argue that there are also grammatical homonyms but they are homonymous forms of one word and thus not real homonyms, which are, by definition, different words.

Key words: sense, meaning, semasiology, semantic change, synonym, antonym, homonym

Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the presentation on the questions *Sources of synonymy.*

Recommended literature: 4; 5; 6; 9; 11; 12.

Лекція 6. English grammars from a historical perspective.

Grammar as a theory of language. The notion of grammar.
Periods in the history of English grammars.

1. Grammar covers the description of various aspects of language: syntax (the way of combination of words into phrases, clauses, sentences), morphology (the internal structure of words), word-formation, phonetics, phonology, vocabulary, semantics and pragmatics. A distinction is often made between reference grammar and pedagogical grammar. Reference grammar is for individual consultation. Pedagogical grammar is chiefly intended for class use under the guidance of a teacher.

In describing the formation and development of English grammars we follow the periodization suggested by L.L. Iofik, where he distinguishes the age of pre-scientific grammar (16th cent. – 1900), the age of scientific grammars (since 1900 until now).

Generative grammar is another kind of formal grammar of a language which is capable of listing all grammatical sentences of a certain language mechanically. The idea of generative grammar was introduced by the American linguist Noam Chomsky in the 1950s. Various kinds of generative grammars have been elaborated, the most famous being Chomsky's transformational grammar.

2. "What generative linguists mean by 'grammar' should not be confused, in the first instance, with what ordinary persons or nonlinguists might refer to by that term: namely, a *traditional* or *pedagogical grammar* such as the kind used to teach language to children in 'grammar school.' A pedagogical grammar typically provides paradigms of regular constructions, lists of prominent exceptions to these constructions (irregular verbs, etc.), and descriptive commentary at various levels of detail and generality about the form and meaning of expressions in a language. By contrast, a **theoretical** grammar, in Chomsky's framework, is a scientific theory: it seeks to provide a complete theoretical characterization of the speaker-hearer's knowledge of her language, where this knowledge is interpreted to refer to a particular set of mental states and structures.

"The purpose of descriptive and **theoretical linguistics** is to further our understanding of language. This is done through a continual process of testing theoretical assumptions against data, and analyzing data in the light of those assumptions which previous analyses have confirmed to such a degree that they form a more or less integral whole that is accepted as the currently preferred theory. Between them, the mutually dependent fields of descriptive and theoretical linguistics provide accounts and explanations of how things seem to be in language, and a terminology for use in discussions."

Key words: structural grammar, traditional grammar, transformational grammar.

Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the presentation on the question *Noam Chomsky's generative grammar*.

Recommended literature: 1; 3; 7; 9; 12.

Лекція 7. Style studies.

1. Functional stylistics and functional styles.
2. Paradigm of stylistic devices.
3. Stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary.

FS is a pattern variety of text characterized by the greater of lesser typification of its constituents, superphrasal units in which the choice and arrangement of independent language media are calculated to secure the purport of communication. Each FS of the literary language makes use of language means which in their proper correlation can satisfy the aim of communication. Those means are peculiar to a given FS and may not be observed in other FS.

FS are relatively stable systems at a definite stage in the development of the literary language, therefore a FS is a historical category, it is not the same at all stages. But as the hole language itself, FS are not unchangeable, they change in quality and quantity in the process of their development. The number of styles and the principles of their differentiation change with time and reflect the state of functioning of the language at a given period, e.g. in the majority of classifications of styles, there was the so-called poetic style, which dealt with the verbal forms specific for poetry. In the most up-to-date classifications they do not single out the specific poetic style, it is only one of the substyles, dealing with poetry.

2. At present most scholars dealing with FS single out such FS as official, scientific, publicistic. But this number is very disputable. Not everybody agrees to single out newspaper style. There is a discussion in philology about the special place of the style of the works of literature.

In Stylistics by Galperin the classification of FS reflects also inner differentiation of styles, in this classification not only styles, but also substyles with their specifying features are mentioned.

Belles-lettres style: language of poetry;
Emotive prose;
Language of drama.
Publicistic: oratory and speeches;
Essays;
Journalistic articles;
Newspaper style: brief news items;
Press reports;
Advertisements and announcements
Editorials and feature articles
Scientific: the language of exact sciences;
Humanities;
Popular scientific readings.
The style of official documents: the language of business documents
Legal documents;
Diplomacy
Military documents

Stylistic lexicology deals with words which make up people's lexicon. Vocabulary or lexis is usefully distinguished from grammar in textual analysis. The grammar of any utterance is the underlying structure. The vocabulary is the immediate content or subject-matter of a statement.

The majority of English words are neutral. Neutral words do not have stylistic connotations. Their meanings are purely denotative. They are such words as *table, man, day weather, to go ,first something, enough*. Besides neutral vocabulary, there are two great stylistically marked layers of words in English word-stock: literary vocabulary and colloquial vocabulary. **Neutral words** form the lexical backbone of all functional styles. They are understood and accepted by all English-speaking people.

Terms belong to particular sciences. Consequently, the domain of their usage is the scientific functional style. The denotative meanings of terms are clearly defined. A classical term is monosemantic and has no synonyms.

The stylistic function of **poetic words** is to create poetic images and make speech elevated. Their nature is archaic. Many of poetic words have lost their original charm and become hackneyed conventional symbols due to their constant repetition in poetry. Rarely used words are called obsolescent. **Obsolete words** have gone completely out of usage though they are still recognized by the native speaker. **Archaic words** belong to Old English and are not recognized nowadays. The main function of old words is to create a realistic background to historical works of literature.

Barbarisms and **foreignisms** have the same origin. They are borrowing from other languages. The greater part of barbarisms was borrowed into English from French and Latin: E.g. *parvenу-выскочка.*

Neologisms are newly born words. Most of them are terms. The layer of terminological neologisms has been rapidly growing since the start of the technological revolution. The sphere of the Internet alone gave birth to thousands of new terms which have become international *(network, server, browser, e-mail, provider, site, Internet Message Access Protocol, Hypertext, Communicator, etc*).

Jargonisms are non-standard words used by people of a certain asocial group to keep their intercourse secret. There are jargons of criminals, convicts, gamblers, vagabonds, souteneurs, prostitutes, drug addicts, and the like. E.g. *white stuff- cocaine or morphine; candy man- drug seller.*

Professionalisms are term-like words. They are used and understood by members of a certain trade or profession. Their function is to rationalize professional communication and make it economical: E.g. *scalpel – a small sharp knife used by a doctor for doing an operations.*

Dialecticisms are words used by people of a certain community living in a certain territory.

Slang is non-standard vocabulary understood and used by the whole nation. Slang is sometimes described as the language of sub-cultures or the languages of the street.

Vulgar or obscene words may be viewed as a part of slang. The most popular images of slang are food, money, sex and sexual attraction, people's appearances and characters.

Idioms. An idiom is a fixed phrase which is only meaningful as a whole. All languages contain idiomatic phrases. Native speakers learn them and remember them as a complete item, rather than a collection of separate words: E. g. *a red herring = a false train, raining cats and dogs = raining very hard, a fly in the ointment = spoiling the effect.*

Key words: functional styles, substyle, neutral words, slang, barbarsisms, professionalisms, vulgar words, idioms.

Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the presentation on the question *Functional styles of colloquial speech.*

Recommended literature: 2; 7; 9; 10.

Лекція 8. Varieties of English today.
1. Dialects of English on the British isles.
2. American English.

1. A dialect is a form of language distinguished from other forms of the same language by pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The modern English language on the British Isles exists in a number of regional dialects: Scottish, Northern, Midland, Southern. These dialects differ mainly in the vocabulary and pronunciation. Violation in grammar rules is also observed, for the dialects are closer to the spoken variation of language.

It is important to know the different ways in which English-speaking communities grew up in various parts of the globe, since these circumstances clearly affected attitudes towards the home country and the mother tongue.

When different groups of people become separated by geographical, political or social barriers, each group gradually develops its own variety of the language, which is usually called a dialect. So long as the differences between the dialects do not make mutual comprehension impossible, though sometimes they do make it difficult, these varieties are said to be dialects of the same language.

A pidgin is any mixed language, spoken usually in trade, which uses the vocabulary of two or more languages and a simplified form of the grammar of one of them.

2. The pronunciation of American English and the pronunciation of British English are similar. The general impression of American English pronunciation is as follows:

- American English intonation does not rise or fall as much as that of British English, it sounds more monotonous.
- American voices usually have a higher pitch. That is why American English often seems too emphatic and American voices seem louder than those of British speakers.
- American pronunciation is more nasalized.
- There are certain differences in the pronunciation of vowels and consonants.

Though British and American spelling is the same in most cases, it differs in a few details, which sometimes leads an unexperienced student to failures in his attempts to find some unknown words in the dictionary.

If a student looks for the word "reflexion" in a small dictionary, he may be unable to identify the word, unless he recollects that there may be some differences in spelling, and that the American "exion" looks "ection" in the British usage.

The changes introduced into the American variety of English are to be found in grammar and structure as well, but they are especially evident in the vocabulary. Some English words have developed new meanings, and many of these are traceable to the development of American institutions and American ways of life. Yet the striking feature of American English innovations is their close correspondence to characteristics of the temperament and the ways of life of the people who developed them.

British English vs American English
Minister / secretary
car / automobile
secondary school / high school
biscuits / cookies
flat / apartment
form (school) / grade
lift / elevator
post / mail
pavement / sidewalk
lorry / truck
tram street-car
petrol / gasoline (gas)
wash up / do the dishes
wash your / hands wash up

There are many lists of equivalent British and American words, but they must not be taken too seriously. On the American side of the page will be many words and phrases perfectly well understood, many of them in use, in Britain. Thus, most of them would not cause any serious confusion on either side.

Americans do not usually say "first floor" for "second floor", they do not call a "trillion" a "billion". But most educated Americans are quite aware of the British equivalents. Valid differences in the use of words are not really very numerous or very significant.

Key words: dialect, variant, pigdin, equivalent, lexicon**.**
Tasks for individual students' work: prepare the presentation on the question Varieties of English throughout the world.
Recommended literature: 2; 6; 7; 9; 12.

Орієнтований перелік проміжного та підсумкового контролю

1. The structure, the subject-matter and aims of the general theoretical course of English.
2. The importance of the English language.
3. English as a Germanic language. Classification of Germanic languages.
4. Characteristics of Germanic languages.
5. Borrowings as a way of enlarging the vocabulary of a language.
6. Borrowings from Latin.
7. Borrowings from French.
8. Borrowings from other languages.
9. Morphological structure of English words. Classification of suffixes and prefixes.
10. Compound words and their classifications.
11. Conversion as a means of word-formation.
12. Minor types of word-building.
13. The problem of meaning.
14. Semantic structure of the word.
15. Changes in meaning. Causes of semantic change.
16. Semantic relationships between words.
17. Homonyms and polysemes.
18. The notion of grammar. Types of grammar books.
19. Periods in the history of English grammars.
20. Theories of grammar.
21. N. Chomsky's transformational-generative grammar.
22. R. Jackendoff's mental grammar.
23. R. W. Langacker's cognitive grammar.
24. Functional stylistics and functional styles.
25. Paradigm of stylistic devices.
26. Stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary.
27. Dialects of English on the British Isles.
28. American English.
29. Varieties of English throughout the world.
30. The outline of the history of English.

Список рекомендованих джерел

1. Alexeyeva I. Theoretical Grammar Course of Modern English. Курс теоретичної граматики сучасної англійської мови: навч. посібник для студ. ВНЗ. Реком. МОНУ / I. Alexeyeva. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2007. – 328 с.
2. Crystal D. The Stories of English / David Crystal. – Ldn. : Penguin Books, 2005
3. Eastwood J. Oxford Learner's Grammar Finder / J. Eastwood. – Oxford : Oxforc Univ. Press, 2005.
4. Ganetska L.V. Lexi-Maker : Modern English Lexicology in Tables, Figures and Exercises. Київ : Ленвіт, 2004. 96с
5. Nikolenko A. G. English lexicology. Theory and practice: навч. пос. для студ. ВНЗ. Реком. МОНУ / A. G. Nikolenko. – Вінниця: Нова книга, 2007. – 528 с.
6. Бистров Я. В. English Lexicology at the Seminars. Івано-Франківськ, 2010. 43 с.
7. Булатецька Л. І. Теорія і теоретизація у лінгвістиці: підручник / Л. І. Булатецька. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2004. – 176 с.
8. Гороть Є. І., Єфремова Н. В., Малімон Л. К., Павлюк А. Б. Загальний теоретичний курс другої іноземної мови (англійської) : навч. посіб. Луцьк : Вежа-Друк, 2015. 322 с.
9. Домброван Т. І. Загальнотеоретичний курс англійської мови як другої іноземної : Курс лекцій / Т. І. Домброван. – Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2009. – 128 с.
10. Єфімов Л. П., Ясінецька О. А. Стилістика англійської мови і дискурсивний аналіз. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2004. 240 с.
11. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова книга, 2007. 528 с.
12. Харитонов І. К. Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови: навч. посібник для студ. ВНЗ. Реком. МОНУ / І. К. Харитонов. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2008. – 352 с.

Інформаційні ресурси

12. https://www.britishcouncil.org/
13. https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/articles
14. https://www.rong-chang.com/

Навчально-методичне видання

Вибрані питання теоретичного курсу англійської мови:
конспект лекцій з дисципліни для здобувачів другого (магістерського) рівня вищої освіти
спеціальності спеціальності 014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська))
Укладач Н.О. Герцовська

Тираж 5 пр.

МУКАЧІВСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ

89600, м. Мукачево, вул. Ужгородська, 26
тел./факс +380-3131-21109
Веб-сайт університету: www.msu.edu.ua
E-mail: info@msu.edu.ua, pr@mail.msu.edu.ua
Веб-сайт Інституційного репозитарію Наукової бібліотеки МДУ: http://dspace.msu.edu.ua:8080
Веб-сайт Наукової бібліотеки МДУ: http://msu.edu.ua/library/