**Chet tili nazariy aspektlari fani**

**O’quv uslubiy majmua**

**1-modul. Nazariy fonetika.**

**1-MAVZU. INTRODUCTION. PHONETICS AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS.**

**Plan:**

1. **The object of the discipline. The main objectives of the course.**
2. **Types of phonetics.**

**Phonetics (from the Greek word “phone” - meaning sound, voice and “-tika-” a** science) is a special science which studies substance and the expression area of the language, or oth­ erwise the physical media of a language (sounds, syllables, stress and intonation). The linguistic form and content are described by other branches of linguistics, namely grammar (morphology and syntax), lexicology (lexicon or vocabulary, the formation and the meanings of the words) and stylistics (expressive-emotional meanings).The definition of phonetics as «the study of the sounds of a language»1is not sufficient in modern linguistics. Nowadays pho­ netics is a science or a branch of linguistics studying articulatory

-acoustic and perceptual features of a language. It is concerned with the linguistic expression represented in the speech sounds, syllables, stress and intonation. Phonetics deals with oral speech.

Phonetics is of great theoretical and practical value. Theo­ retically it is important to study the formation of speech sounds, their combinations, syllables, stress and intonation. If we approach the study of pronunciation and listening scientifically partial simi­ larities and great differences may be noticed among the utterances which may be recorded either with pen and paper or with a re­ cording machine. A language consists of a series of physical events. Sound waves are formed bythe work of speech organs and perceived by ear. There is a conversion of muscular energy into acoustic energy. But the articulatory and auditory (listening) con­ trol of this conversion is not common property. Speech is per­ ceived, observed, collected and classified by millions of sets of human senses and nervous systems. The classification of various speech utterances and their divisbn into smaller and higher ele­ ments require theoretical, scientific bases - principles and methods. The explanation and description of the articulation of speech sounds, the pronunciation rules of a language is the object of prac­ tical or applied phonetics which is very important in teaching cor­ rect pronunciation of a foreign language. Sometimes, as to its aims of teaching the normal pronunciation of a language, this type of phonetics is called a normative course of phonetics. There is a close relationship between theoretical and practical phonetics, as it is important to combine theory and practice. It is impossible to rep­ resent a good pronunciation rule without a theoretical explanation of a particular question. Speaking about the phonetic system of a language we mean the whole set of relations of its elements. The phonetic elements or units are sounds, syllables, stress and intona­ tion which have their linguistic functions observed in the identifi­ cation and distinction of the utterances. In such words or morphemes as lag - bag, meet - seat, etc. the first sounds help to distinguish their meanings. The words 'present - pre'sent are dis­ tinct by the position of the stress. The sentence She came may be pronounced in such a way as to be declarative, interrogative etc.

The following types of phonetics may be distinguished:

1. General phonetics which studies the human sound - producing possibilities, the functioning of his speech mecha­ nism and the ways they are used in all languages to pronounce speech sounds syllables, stress and intonation. It is a part of General Linguistics.

2. Descriptive phonetics studies the phonetic system of a certain language. For example: English phonetics, Russian pho­ netics, Uzbek phonetics etc.

3. Historical or diachronical phonetics, which studies the changes a sound undergoes in the development of a language or languages. Its material may be based on written historical and literary monuments. Diachronical studies of the phonetic sys­ tem may explain the present state (synchronical) of a language and compare them. It is a part of a history course of a lan­ guage. For example, Verner's and Grimm's Laws, Ablaut, Um­ laut, Great Vowel Shift etc. are the objects of diachronical phonetics which is also called evolutionary phonetics.

4. Comparative-typological phonetics studies the pho­ netic features of two or more languages of different systems such as English, Russian, and Uzbek etc. It is a part of comparative-typological linguistics. Its fundamental principle is using linguistic categorization of all the various units of the languages in compari­ son. Comparative-typological phonetics is of great theoretical and practical value. Theoretically it is important to compare phonetic systems of all languages in order to establish language universals (the facts and features which exist in many languages), similarities and diffirencies between the sound structure, syllable types, stress and intonation. From the results obtained it is possible to represent adequate teaching materials and suggest effective methods of for­ eign language teaching. The comparative-typological method is also known by the terms «contrastive», «confrontative», «differen­ tial» and «comparative» method. This method is used either in his­ torical or synchronical analysis of a language.

The speech apparatus or vocal tract consists of three parts: 1) the respiratory mechanism, which furnishes the airflow necessary for the production of most sounds; 2) the larynx, which creates most of the sound energy used in speech; 3) the supraglottal cavities which play the role of resonators to produce speech noises. The supraglottal cavities are: the pharynx, the mouth cavity and the nasal cavity. One more resonator is the labial cavity which func­ tions in the pronunciation of rounded and unrounded vowels and also labial consonants. The roof of the mouth is divided into: the hard palate, soft palate (or velum), the uvula (the end of the soft palate), the teeth­ ridge, the upper-teeth, the upper lip and the lower lip. The most active organ of speech is the tongue which may be divided into: the root, the back, the center (or front) and the blade with the tip (see fig. 1).

The four principal resonators of the speech organs: I. The pharynx; П. The mouth; III. The nasal cavity; IV. The labial cavity.

Places of articulation; 1. Bilabial; 2. Labiodentals; 3. Dental;

4. Alveolar; 5. Retroflex; 6. Palato-alveolar; 7. Palatal; 8. Velar;9.Uvular; 10. Pharyngal.

The larynx is at the upper end of the trachea which contains the vocal cords. When the vocal cords are drawn near together the air vi­ bration, coming from the lungs, produces voiced sounds. If the vocal cords are apart they do not vibrate as a result of which voiceless con­ sonants may be produced. The space between the vocal cords is called the glottis.The glottis is open during normal respiration. It may be closed when the vocal cords are kept together.The voiceless plosive consonants may be aspirated and un­ aspirated. When the glottis is closed the unaspirated plosive con­ sonants /p, t, к/ may be produced. During the occlusion of an aspirated plosive consonant sound the glottis is open. This is es-sentually a matter of the time relations between the closed phase of articulation and the time of onset (aspiration) or preaspiration of voicing as in /ph, th, kh/. The air which escapes the glottis is closed for the articulation of the following vowel is heard as an exhalation. The aspirated voiceless stops (plosives) are used be­ fore vowels. Aspiration is usually weak before an unstressed vowel. The unaspirated consonant is used before and after other consonants. It is probable that the difference between aspirated and unaspirated stops is not purely a matter of timing, since oral pressure recordings frequently show a level or even slightly fal­ ling, oral pressure during unaspirated stops, but oral pressure ris­ ing right up to the moment of release in aspirated stops.

The state of the glottis, its opening and closing, also the vi­ bration of the vocal cords characterize the types of phonatory structures: breath, voice, voiceless, murmur, creaky voice and glottal stop.In breath the vocal cords are kept apart, with slow airflow. Voice is the result of periodic and closing of the glottis with vocal cords vibration. As to voiceless sounds the glottis is closed and vocal cords do not vibrate. In murmur the glottis is wide open as for breath with a very slow air-flow generating no sound. Creak is produced by a periodic opening of a chink near the hyroid end of the glottis. In creak the airflow passes through the narrow frica­ tive type articulatory channels.1The glottal stop usually indicated by the symbol (?) is pro­ duced in the pharynx or in the larynx where it is possible to close the air passage momentarily by bringing the vocal cords close to­ gether.

The glottal stop replaces other stops in certain types of the English dialects. For example: in London cockney get, better or in New York bottle, cattle /b э?1/, /кэе?1/ etc.

Some of the explained phonation and articulation types may be combined as a breathy voice, a creaky voice etc. which are used as voice-qualifiers.

The place of articulation are the lips (labial: bilabial and labiodentals), the teeth (dental), the upper teeth ridge (alveolar), the hard and soft palates (pre-palatal and palatal), the pharynx (pharyngal) and the larynx (glottal). At all these places of articula­ tion the vocal tract may be narrowed or closed by the position of some parts of the tongue. If the tip of the tongue approaches them the produced sound is dorsal, if it’s the blade it will be lamina], if it is done by the body the sound will be domal, if its the back part - dorsal sounds are produced.

The degree of closure of the organs of speech measures the manner of articulation. The closure is complete in the production of stops, very narrow for the fricatives, less narrow for the reso­ nants (liquids, nasals, vowels). When there is room for air to pass between the edges of the tongue and the molar teeth the articula­ tion is lateral (for /1/). When the air passes through the nasal cav­ ity by the opening of the velum the articulation is nasal (for /m, n, r\f). There are also some other types of sounds explained in the sections of the classification of vowels and consonants.

All people in the world have similar organs of speech. But not all the movements of the organs of speech are used similarly in the articulation of speech sounds in different languages as it depends on the pronunciation habits of each language. Every lan­ guage uses some of the possible articulatory movements of the speech organs. When learning a foreign language it is important to master a large number of new articulatory habits. The term «articulatory basis» is not scientifically sufficient to express all the articulatory habits which characterize a language. But by the term «articulatory basis» we mean only the typical articulation move­ ments in the pronunciation of sounds and sound combinations of a certain language. For example, English has the alveolar conso­ nants /t, d/ articulated by pressing the tip of the tongue to the al-veols while the Uzbek consonants /t, dJ are dentals as they are pronounced by pressing the front part of the tongue to the front upper teeth. Besides there are more back consonants in Uzbek /q, g’, h/ than in English /к, g/. So, the tendency to move the articula­ tions back in the mouth is stronger in Uzbek than in English. This is because of the different articulation basis in English and Uzbek.

The character of syllable formation, accentuation of words, word combinations and intonation of phrases is denoted by the term «prosodic bases». For example, the English word, much more than the Uzbek, keeps its phonetic independence in the sen­ tence where all the meaningful words have their own stress. Both the articulatory and prosodic bases form the phonetic basis of a language. By describing all the pronunciation features of a lan­ guage we can establish its phonetic basis.

The Uzbek learners of English are apt to use their pronunciation habits, the phonetic basis of Uzbek in the pronunciation of English. This phenomenon is called phonetic interference. In teaching the correct pronunciation of English facts of phonetic in­ terference between Uzbek and English should be established and attention must be paid to the differences of the phonetic basis of the languages.

**2-MAVZU. PHONOLOGICAL THEORIES.**

**Plan:**

1. **Periods of the formation of the phonological theory.**
2. **Different types of variation of sounds.**

I. I.A. BAUDOUIN DE COURTENAY’S THEORY OF PHONOLOGY

The formation of the phonological theory may be divided into two periods:

1. The «prephoneme» period, i.e. when there was no dis­ tinction between «speech sound» and «phoneme» until 1870;

2. The «phonemic» period, which began in 1870 and in­ cludes the twentieth century. In this period the basic phonetic and phonological terms and concepts were proposed, and the distinc­ tion between the actually pronounced speech sounds and the pho­ nemes as functional units of the language was recognized. The first linguist to point out this distinction was I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay (1845-1929), an outstanding Russian and Polish scholar. I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay defined the phoneme as the «psychological» equivalent of the speech sound». But he was aware of the fact that acoustic and motor images of the speech sound do not correspond to each other. I. A. Baudouin de Cour­ tenay also tried to analyse phonemes on the bases of phonetic al­ ternations in morphemes. Besides psychological and morphological definitions of the phoneme, he could propose the distinctive function of the speech sound in notions' as he consid­ ered that words may be realized in notions. I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay repeatedly stated that semantically the utterance breaks up into sentences, sentences into significative words, words into morphological components or morphemes and morphemes into phonemes. As a morpheme is only divided into components of the same nature as itself: these components - phonemes must also be significative.He admitted the division of morphemes into physical or physiological elements to be unjustified in linguistic analysis'. He criticized N. V. Krushevsky's conception of this problem. Inci-dently, N. V. Krushevsky, was one of his students who introduced the term «phoneme» at the same time as F. de Saussure, an emi­ nent Swiss linguist did. I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay's fundamen­ tal ideas had a great influence on the development of later phonological theories both in our country and abroad. In early phonological works many linguists defined the phoneme as «sound image», «conscious sound image», «sound intent» (N. S. Trubetzkoy), and also as the sum of acoustic impressions and of articulatory movements (F. de Saussure) but none of them sug­ gested any other to substitute the term «phoneme». Nevertheless I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay's psychological interpretation of the phoneme concept could not lead to an obliteration of the bound­ ary between sound and phoneme; it was merely a terminological mixture of psychological and linguistic concepts which greatly in­ fluenced each other in that period. Many interesting ideas stating linguistic functions of speech sounds may be found in his works. He showed the articulatory - acoustic, morphological and seman­ tic aspects of sound . material and their relationship. I. A. Bau­ douin de Courtenay's idea of the distinctive-semantic function of speech sound was very important in relation to the modem theory of distinctive features of the phoneme, according to which the phoneme of a given language may be divided from a system of sequences which is formed by their constituents, i.e. by distinctive features. As the morphemes may be divided into phonemes, like­ wise phonemes are divided into distinctive features which are in­ terpreted either in articulatory or acoustic terms. Inspite of the various approaches to the problem of establishing an inventory of the phonemes in a given language, which should be possible on the basis of breaking up utterances or words into the smallest segments or by the method of commutation test, counting mini­ mal pairs of words like pill - bill, till - mill, kill - hill etc. The fundamental discussion on the problems of phonemic analysis is still going on among phonemicist.

II.2. THE St. PETERSBURG PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL. L.V. SHCHERBA'S PHONEMIC CONCEPT

The St. Petersburg Phonological School’s theory is closely connected with the name of academician Lev Vladimirovich Shcherba (1880-1944), a talanted student of I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay. L. V. Shcherba developed the phonemic concept rep­ resented by his research advisor. L.V. Shcherba repeatedly stressed the differential function of the phoneme. He gave the fol­ lowing definition of the phoneme: «The shortest general sound image of a given language, which is capable of associating with images of meaning differentiating words, ..., is called phoneme»1. In this definition besides the term «sound image», which shows the influence of psychology, everything is clear from the phono­ logical view point. Although L.V. Shcherba realized that pho­ nemes are not general images in the logical sense, he considered phonemes as concrete sound images which are the result of dif­ ferent perceptions. L.V. Shcherba illustrated his phonemic theory with examples from various languages. The quantitative and qualitative variations in the pronunciations of languages may de­ pend on their phonetic structures and linguistic habits the sum of which L.V. Shcherba called the articulation basis.

He emphasized the importance of the variants of phoneme. For example, citing D. Jones’ idea of the existence of two allo­ phones of the phoneme III in English - dark and clear L.V. Shcherba wrote that they cannot be associated with meanings consciously. As for the Russian pair of ль - л it is capable to dis­ tinguish meanings: бил - был. Thus L.V. Shcherba emphasized the practical value of sound types in the pronunciation of a given language. He explained that in concrete speech we pronounce a number of speech sounds which may be summed up in a com­ paratively small number of sound types capable of distinguishing words and word forms. Such sound types are called phonemes. Actually pronounced speech sounds, in which phonemes may be realized, would be called the phoneme shades (allophones or variants of the phoneme). But among those shades of the phoneme usually there may be one that is the typical representative of the phoneme which can be pronounced isolately, actually, this is what is perceived by us consciously as an element of speech. All other shades cannot be understood consciously and it is difficult to per­ ceive them all by ear normally. These explanations make it clear to understand the distinction between general sound types and concrete speech sounds, which can prove the distinction between a phoneme and allophone (speech sound).

L.V. Shcherba also indicated three aspects of speech sounds: biological (physiological), physical and linguistic (social), of which he paid special attention to the last aspect. In speech com­ munication physiologically and physically different articulations

(for example [a]) may be generalized by one meaning.Such a generalized unit is called a phoneme. Thus, L.V. Shcherba under­ lined the concrete, generalized and functional aspects of the phoneme. He explained that each phoneme may be distinguished from all other phonemes by its features, while all the phonemes of a given language form a unit system of oppositions in which each phoneme is defined by its oppositions against another separate phoneme or phoneme groups. L.V. Shcherba invented his own system of transcription. He wrote about different pronunciation styles and advanced very in­ teresting ideas on the subjective and objective methods of scien­ tific investigation. L.V. Shcherba’s phonological theory was developed and improved by many linguists. His followers and pupils L.R. Zinder, M.I. Matusevich, L.V. Bondarko, A.N. Gvoz­ dev, V.I. Litkin, Y.S. Maslov, O.I. Dickushina are representatives of the St. Petersburg phonological school. L.R. Zinder defines the phoneme as the smallest, i.e. indi­ visible in time (or linearly) unit, but from the structural view point, it may have different features some of which are considered to be common with other phonemes and some other features which distinguish it from all other phonemes. The phoneme is very complex unit and it may be realized in different allophones (or shades, variants). There are two of allophones: positional and combinatory i.e. depending on their positions and on the neighbouring sounds. If the distinctions between the sounds are not capable of distinguishing the meanings of words or word-forms, then such sounds are the allophones of a phoneme. For example, let us examine consonant sounds t, t°, t', t'° in the words так /tak/, тот /t°ot/, стяг /st'ak/, тётя /t'ot'b/ etc. The distinction between the first and second sounds, and between the third and fourth sounds can not serve to distinguish the meanings of the words. Thus, they represent one phoneme. The distinctions be­ tween the first and the third sounds and between the second and fourth sounds are capable of differentiating the meanings of the words. Therefore they may represent different phonemes. Accord­ ingly we can state that some sound distinctions may be phone-matic and some of them may be phonetic1. L. R. Zinder points out the reality of the phoneme i. e, its ex­ istence in a given language, being the sound unit of a language phoneme through its different representatives may have very complex phonetic characteristics. Besides, being independent and autonomous unit of a language expression, the phoneme can be separated from the sound material of words. For example, the word прут /prut/, may be broken up into /p/, /r/, /u/, /t/2. This comes from the descrete character of the phoneme. L. R. Zinder also proposes rules to determine phonemes and phoneme combi­ nations. He thoroughly analyses the most valuable phonological ideas of I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay, L. V. Shcherba, N. S. Trubetzkoy and other linguists. It must be kept in mind that the St. Petersburg Phonological School's definition of a phoneme is based on words and word-forms, i.e. the phoneme is the smallest unit capable of differentiat­ ing words and word forms. This phonemic concept is applied to the description of English phonemes by G. P. Torsuyev, V. A.Vassilyev, О. I. Dickushina and V. N. Vitomskaya.

II.3. THE MOSCOW PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

Another scientific approach to the phoneme concept in Rus­ sia is known as the Moscow phonological school. This school is represented by R.I. Avanesov, V.N. Sidorov, A.A. Reformatsky (1901-1978), P.S. Kuznetzov (1899-1968), A.M. Sukhotin, M.V. Panov, N.F. Jakovlev. One of the first linguists to give a defini­ tion of phoneme void of psychologic elements was N.F. Jakovlev:

«Phonemes are understood those phonic properties that can be analysed from the speech flow as the shortest elements serving to differentiate units of meaning1.The representatives of the Moscow phonological school based their definition of a phoneme on the concept of the mor­ pheme. A.A. Reformatsky gave the following definition of the phoneme: «Phonemes are minimal units of the sound structure of a language, serving to form and differentiate meaningful units: morphemes and words»2. Phonemes are meaningless units of a language but they are capable of distinguishing meaningful units as their sequences may form morphemes and words. For example, pit - lit, but - bet etc.

Analysing the sound changes in the morphemic structure of

a language, it is possible to establish two different positions: stressed and unstressed. In a stressed position phonemes can preserve their phonetic characteristics, while in an unstressed po­ sition they change their articulatory and acoustic features. This fact is very important in the phonetic analysis of Russian vowels. In the Russian word вода (vad' дJ there are two variants or allo­ phones of the phoneme /л/: stressed and unstressed, which are dif­ ferent as to their quantitative feature because usually stressed vowels are longer than unstressed ones. But if we take the word-forms воды /vodi/, водный /vodnij/, водяной /va djanoj/ in the morpheme вод we can distinguish the sound alternations /л' - о - э/. In such cases R. I. Avanesov proposes to define each member of alternations /л' - о - э/ as variants of one phoneme /о/. Like­ wise in the words вода /vacL\V, вод /vot/, воде /vAde/ the conso­ nants /t/ and /d/ may also be interpreted as variants of the phoneme /d/, but the members of alternations /d —t —d'/ may be considered as the realizations of one phoneme. In all these cases the relationship between the notions of phoneme and morpheme becomes very important. In such alternations, which depend on their position in morphemes or words, and there are no distinctive functions between the members of alternations, it is possible to use the term phonemic line («фонемный ряд»). According to R.I. Avanesov a phoneme is an element of a wordform and «phonemic line» is an element of a morpheme1. There are some differ­ ences in the phonemic solutions of the representatives of this school. A.A. Reformatsky did not use the term «phonemic line». Thanks to the perceptual and significative functions, he divided the stressed and unstressed positions into the following types: perceptually the stressed position is that where a phoneme is rep­ resented in its basic form independent of its position; as to the un­ stressed position, where under the influence of positions, a phoneme is represented in its variations. For example, in the words мал - мял and мил - мыл we can observe pairs of vo­ wels Ы - /ае/ and /и/ - /ы/. In the first pair the basic form of the phoneme is /а/, while /ае/ is variation, likewise in the second pair /и/ is the basic form of the phoneme, while /ы/ is its variation.

Phonemes organize different phonological oppositions, re­ sulting in their significant functions. In a stressed position pho­ nemic oppositions may be preserved, while in an unstressed position they are neutralized. Usually neutralization is the result of coincidence of two phonemes which are differentiated by one feature. For example, in words плод and плот, луг and лук voiced consonants become voiceless at the end of words. The Moscow phonologists suggested the term «hyperphoneme» which is defined as a unit which appears in the position of neutralization of a group of phonemes. For example, in Russian neutralization may take place in unstressed syllables where the vowels /а/, /о/, /i/, /e/, /u/ can be distinguished from each other; in this case they are not phonemes but hyperphonemes /а/ о, i /е/ and Inf1. The unit hyperphoneme as presented by the Moscow phonologists does not coincide with the «archiphoneme» unit suggested by the Prague phonological school. The latter is understood as a unit, when two phonemes, distinguished only by one feature, for example, voiced

- voiceless consonants /p - b/, /t —d/ etc., may coincide with their feature in the position of neutralization: луг - лук, пруд - прут. In such cases archiphonemes /р/b and t/d/ may appear in Russian.Phonemes and their distinctive features differ. A phoneme is a sum of distinctive features. Distinctive sounds, i.e. phonemes and distinctive features are considered to be two levels of the phonological structure of a language. The level of distinctive features is called «merismatic level». One of the fundamental notions of pho­ nology is that of position, which creates conditions for the realiza­ tion of phonemes in speech. Positions may depend not only on the phonetic context but also on the morphological conditions. For ex­ ample, in joining basic and affixal morphemes some sound combi­ nations become an affricate: штатский, шведский where /тс/ and /дс/ form the affricate luj.Some Moscow phonologists, especially, A. A. Reformatsky gave a classification of phonological oppositions and presented a new approach to the problem of neutralization. It should be stated that their theory is commonly applied to the description of Rus­ sian phonemes; it was also fruitful in the analysis of the phono­ logical systems of other languages. The Moscow phonologists described the supersegmental features of syllables, stress and in­ tonation. Besides, they improved the morphonological theory ad­ vanced by N.S. Trubetzkoy. According to A.A. Reformatsky morphonology is a «bridge» level between phonology and mor­ phology. N.S. Trubetzkoy included almost all the phonemic alter­ nations into morphonology and used the term «morphoneme». However, morphonology must not only study the alternations of segmental phonemes but can analyse the alternations of su­ prasegmental elements, i.e. stress alternations in morphemes. In the Russian words рука - ручной, нога - ножной, слух - послушный we can observe alternations both of a segmental and suprasegmental character. Such alternations in English as foot - feet, tooth - teeth, ox - oxen, child - children, which are inter­ preted as morphonological by the American linguists, belong to the grammatical meanings formed by the internal inflexion1. The alternations, which do not depend on their positions in morphem­ es, would be studied in morphonology.

II.4. THE PRAGUE PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

The fundamental scientific works have been done by the representatives of the Prague phonological school - well-known linguists W. Matezius (1882-1945), B. Havranek (1893-1978), N.S. Trubetzkoy (1890-1938), В. Tmka, I. Vachek, V. Skalichka and others. Among them very important phonological ideas were advanced by the Russian scholar N.S. Trubetzkoy. In his book «Principles of Phonology» first published in German in 1939, N.S. Trubetzkoy discussed the relation of phonology to other studies, the nature of phonemes and their variants, how to deter­ mine the phonemes of a language, relations between phonemes in general analysis and in particular languages, the classification of phonological and non-phonological oppositions, neutralzation, mono- and biphonemic combinations, phonological statistics, boundary-markers (junctures) and prosodic elements (syllables, stress and intonation). His theoretical work on phonology shows «... the breadth of Trubetzkoy's knowledge and the intricacy and incisiveness and cerebral character of his scientific analysis»1.

N.S. Trubetzkoy came to the phoneme concept through the classification of phonological oppositions. The concept of dis­ tinctiveness presupposes the concept of opposition. One thing can be distinguished only from another thing insofar as a relationship of opposition exists between the two. Likewise one sound prop­ erty may be opposed to another phonic property. Oppositions of sound, capable of differentiating the lexical meaning of two words in a particular language are phonological or phonologically distinctive or distinctive oppositions. In contrast, those opposi­ tions of sound that do not have this property are phonologically irrelevant or nondistinctive. For example, in English the opposi­ tion /e - as/ as in /bet - baet/ phonological (distinctive) while the opposition between aspirated /pA, t \ к / and non-aspirated /p, t, к/ sounds and also opposition between dark and soft /1/ sounds are non-distinctive as there is not a single word pair in English that is differentiated by these oppositions. Each member of a phonologi­ cal opposition is called a phonological (or distinctive) unit. Pho­ nological units that, from the standpoint of a given language, cannot be analysed into still smaller successive distinctive units are called phonemes. N. S. Trubetzkoy points out that phonemes should not be considered as «building blocks» out of which indi­ vidual words are assembled. Each word is a phonic entity and the phonemes are then the distinctive marks of the configurations of words. Sounds participate in phonological oppositions only by means of their phonologically relevant properties. Another defini­ tion of phoneme given by N. S. Trubetzkoy is «the sum phonologi­ cally relevant properties of a sound (laut-gebilde)»1.

Phonemes are functional sounds of a language while speech sounds are the realizations or manifestations of phonemes in speech. This distinction between language and speech was bor­ rowed by N.S. Trubetzkoy from F. de Saussure's and K. Biihler's works. N.S. Trubetzkoy insisted on defining a phoneme solely on the basis of its function in the system of a language. One of the rules for the determination of phonemes was formulated in the following way: «If two sounds occur in exactly the same position and cannot be interchanged without a change in the meaning of the words or without rendering the word unrecog­ nizable, the two sounds are phonetic realizations of two different phonemes»2. For example in beet /bi:t/ - but /bAt/, /i:/ and Ы are interpreted as realizations of two different phonemes. The rule for the determination of individual phonemes and phoneme combinations is very important in solving the problem of phonemic interpretation of diphthongs and affricates. N.S. Trubetzkoy wrote: «A combination of sounds can be interpreted as the realization of a single phoneme only if it is produced by a homogeneous articulatory movement or by the progressive disso­ lution of an articulatory complex»3. This rule was illustrated by the English diphthongs /ei/ and /ou/ which are regarded as mono-phonematic. This rule is solely phonetic but not phonematic as it is based on the articulatory movement, i.e. it is an articulatory characteristics of a diphthong. This is one of the interesting points which clearly show the close relationship of phonetics and pho­ nology separated by N. S. Trubetzkoy into two independent sci­ ences. According to another rule if the constituent parts of combi­ nations of sound are not distributed over two syllables then such combinations of sounds are to be regarded as the realization of single phonemes. This rule is true for the English diphthongs and affricates /tj/, /d3/. The combinations of sounds which cannot be determined by the rules are called phoneme clusters. N.S. Trubetzkoy presented the classification of phonological oppositions in terms of logic. Two things which have no features in common cannot be contrasted, likewise two phonemes which have no common features cannot be opposed. Firstly, oppositions are classified in relation to the entire system of oppositions. Ac­ cording to this principle oppositions may be unidimensional and pluridimensional (or bilateral and multilateral). Two phonemes possessing a common feature, which no other phoneme has, are in unidimensional opposition. For example in English /t-d/, /p-b/, /k-g/, /b-m/, /d-n/, /g-T|/ /f-v/, /s-z/, /s-j/, /z-3/, /t-tj/, /d-d3/, /r-1/ are unidimensional (bilateral) oppositions. Two phonemes, whose feature is common to some other phoneme, are in pluridimensional (multilateral) opposition. For example, the opposition /b - d/ in English is pluridimensional as the common features of the members of this opposition (plosive + voiced + lenis are characteristic of the phoneme /g/. According to N.S.Trubetzkoy the unidimensional opposi­ tions are fewer but more interesting than the others. Pairs of pho­ nemes, having similar oppositions between them, are called proportional oppositions. In English pairs of phonemes /p-b/, /t-d/, /s-z/, /1-3/, /0 -5 /, /tj-d3/, /f-v/, /k-g/ have similar oppositions in which the distinctive feature is voiceless - voiced (resp. fortis - lenis (tense — lax). These pairs of phonemes constitute propor­ tional oppositions. If there is no pair of phonemes in similar relation to the ex­ isting pair of phonemes, such an opposition is called isolated. For example, /г-L/ is an isolated opposition in English, Russian and Uzbek. Secondly, oppositions may be classified on the basis of rela­ tionship between their members. According to this principle they may be private, gradual and equipollent.

If the member of opposition is differentiated from the other by one distinctive feature such an opposition is called private. For example, /d-t/, /f-v/ etc. Which differentiated by a voiced-voiceless (resp. fortis-lenis) feature. The member of such an op­ position, characterized by the presence of a feature, is called marked and the member of opposition, which is characterized by

the absence of a feature, is called unmarked. Thus, a voiced mem­ ber is marked (+) while an unvoiced member is unmarked (-).

Gradual oppositions are those whose members are character­ ized by different gradations of one and the same feature. In English /i:-a:/ according to the hights of the tongue they may be distin­ guished as close-open where half-open and half close members are omitted. Likewise /р-к/ is a gradual opposition, because, ac­ cording to the place of articulation, /р/ is labial and /к/ is backlin-gual, between which forelingual (alveolar, apical) and interlingual /j/ members of opposition are omitted. If both members of opposition have the same distinctive fea­ tures except one, which is different, such an opposition is called equipollent. In English /p-f/, /b-v/, /t-0/, /d~3/, /k-h/ are equipol­ lent oppositions.

Thirdly, oppositions may be classified on the basis of dis­ tinctive force and their occurrence in different positions according to which oppositions may be neutralizable and constant. In par­ ticular positions the feature of one member of the opposition may have a different distinctive force. As in Russian and in Uzbek voiced members of the oppositions become unvoiced at the end of words: пруд /прут/, teg/tek/ - tek/tek etc. The opposition where the opposition is neutralized is called the position of neutraliza­ tion. N.S.Trubetzkoy stated that usually only unidimensional (bi­ lateral) oppositions may be neutralized. In the position of neu­ tralization one of the phonemes becomes the representative of an archiphoneme. An archiphoneme is the sum of the relevant (dis­ tinctive) features common to both members of the opposition. In the above examples: / d / \, /t/ archiphoneme, / t K

This unit may have different features in other languages. The unidimensional, privative, proportional oppositions, the

members of which are in similar relations with each other, are combined into correlation: /p-b/, /t-d/, /s-z/, /J-3/, /f-v/, /tj-d3/, /0-б/, /k-g/. Such pairs of phonemes are called correlation pairs and the feature voiced - voiceless (resp. Fortis - lenis) is called the feature of correlation. Constant oppositions are those which are not neutralized in some positions and always preserve their distinctive features. But there may be cases when two phonemes are opposed in some po­ sitions but not in others. For example, English /р/ and 1Ы are not opposed after Isl, because only one of them can occur after /s/ as in the word spin. Such types of neutralization is called contextual which appear in many languages. After N.S.Trubetzkoy’s defini­ tion of neutralization there were attempts to classify neutraliza­ tions into several other types1. N.S.Trubetzkoy advanced a valuable theory and methods available in paradigmatic analysis of phonemes i.e. in establishing phonological and non-phonological oppositions. But there are some shortcomings in his description of syntagmatic relations of phonemes. N.S.Trubetzkoy’s theory was applied to the descrip­ tion of the phonemic system of English by B.Tmka, J.Vachek2, by V.A.Vassilyev3and A.Cohen4.

II.5. THE LONDON PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

There is a long tradition of phonetic and phonological stud­ ies in England. One of the first linguists who made a serious study in English phonetics was Henry Sweet. He distinguished broad and narrow transcriptions and gave the classification of English vowels and consonants in his “Handbook of Phonetics” (Oxford, 1877). Under “The London Phonological School” we mean the theory and methods of phonetic and phonological analysis pro­ posed by the British linguists. This school is represented by J.R. Firth, Daniel Jones, D. Abercrombie, I. Ward, L. Armstrong, D. B. Fry, H. Kingdon, J.D. O ’Connor, A.C. Gimson. The British linguists presented original idea on phonemic and prosodic analysis. Well-known British linguist D. Jones and J.R. Firth gave brief explanations of the phoneme concept. DJones admits the fact that the idea of the phoneme was first introduced to him by Leningrad professor L.V. Shcherba in 1911, but both the theory and the term itself had existed for more than thirty years even then. D. Jones wrote: “According to J.R. Firth the term “phoneme” was invented as distinct from “phone” in 1879 by Krushevskiy”1. Thus, both outstanding English lin­ guists were familiar with theory and term “phoneme” used by Russian linguists. D. Jones prefers to speak about an “explanation” of pho­ neme rather than a “definition”, the latter is impossible without making use of terms such as “language”, “speech sounds” and “words”. He gave the following explanation of a phoneme: "... a phoneme is a family of sounds in a given language which are re­ lated in character and are used in such a way that no one member ever occurs in word in the same phonetic context as many other members”2. D. Jones explanation of a phoneme is a physical (acoustic) one, since the phoneme is treated as a “family of sounds” His physical interpretation is distinct from the articula­ tory approach to the phoneme. D. Jones explained a phoneme on the basis of auditory distinctions, which only secondarily is based on presumed articulatory positions. He also distinguishes “princi­ pal and subsidiary member” of the phoneme which are equal to the terms “allophone” and a “variant” of the phoneme. According to his view point a phoneme consists of more than one member, and one of the sounds seems more important and common than the others, or because it is the one used in isolation or is interme­ diate between extreme members. Such a sound is called by D. Jones the “principal members of the phoneme”. The other sounds in the same phoneme are called “subsidiary members”. One of the rules for the determination of a phoneme is that if two sounds of a language can occur in the same phonetic context they belong to separate phonemes. For instance, /i/ and /э/ belong to separate pho­ nemes in English because they can both occur initially before the same consonant as in the words illusion /i'lu: 3n/ - allusion /э’1и: 3n/. Such differences between phonemes are significant i.e. capable of distinguishing one word from another. These ideas of D. Jones emphasize the importance of the semantic function of pho­ nemes in a language. Two members of the same phoneme cannot be significant if they cannot distinguish words. The aspirated /кА and non-aspirated /к/ sounds as members of the phoneme /к/ can­ not distinguish two words and they are used in different positions. The aspirated /кА is used before vowels while non-aspirated /к/ is used in all other positions in English. Besides the phoneme concept D.Jones presented his ideas on the problems of syllable structure, stress and intonation applied to the description of English in a number of his works, particu­ larly in “Outline of English Phonetics” (Cambridge, 1957), “The pronunciation of English” (Cambridge Univ. Press, 1956) etc. D. Jones' “Everyman’s English Pronouncing Dictionary” (reprinted with minor correction and short supplement. Eleventh edition, L., 1958) is the best handbook on literary British pronunciation. The well-known English Unguist J.R. Firth who is considered to be the head of the London Phonological school, began to work in the area of phonology in 1930 although his fundamental work “Sounds and Prosodies” was published in 1948. J.R. Firth distin­ guished prosodic system from phonematic system on the basis of the analysis of works. J.R. Firth stated: “Looking at language ma­ terial from a syntagmatic point of view, any phonetic features, characteristic of and peculiar to such positions or junctions, can just as profitably and perhaps more profitably be stated as proso­ dies of the sentence or word. Penultimate stress or functional geminations are also obvious prosodic features in the syntagmatic junction. Thus, the phonemic and phonological analysis of the word can be grouped under ... sounds and prosodies” 1. J.R. Firth purposely avoided the term “phoneme” in his work as “sound” is sufficient for his analysis. He illustrated his prosodic theory with the character of the English neutral vowel which marks junctions and required by the prosodies of word formation, especially in the formation of derivatives. The occur­ ence of Southern English diphthongs is a good illustration of the value of his prosodic treatment. Besides J.R. Firth regarded the so-called intrusive r, linking r, the glottal stop etc. as prosodies. He also distinguished prosodies of strength quantity, tone in which the prominant syllable is regarded as the nucleous of the group of syllables forming a word. He wrote: “The prominent syl­ lable is a function of the whole word or piece structure”, natu­ rally, therefore, the prosodic features of a word include:

1. The number of syllables.

2. The number of syllables - open or closed.

3. The syllabic quantities.

4. The sequence of syllables (radicals and flexional elements separately treated)

5. The sequence of consonants

6. The sequence of vowels

7. The position, nature and quantity of the prominent.

8. The dark or clear qualities of the syllables'.

J.R. Firth’s prosodic theory was developed and applied in the description of different languages. R.H. Robins classified syl­ lable prosodies, prosodies of syllable groups, phrase or sentence - part prosodies, sentence prosodies, word and morpheme proso­ dies2. John Lyons included some consonantal and vocalic features (aspiration, vowel harmony etc.) into the object of prosodies be­ sides tone, stress and quantity as they all operate as “long compo­ nents”3.A new approach to the description of English phonemics and prosodies is given by A.C. Gimson who revised some ideas of D. Jones and other representatives of the London phonological school.

II.6. PHONOLOGICAL TRENDS IN THE USA

There are several phonological trends in the USA. The head of the American descriptive linguistics L.Bloomfield was one of the first phonologists whose ideas were very fruitful in the further development of phonological theories in USA. Another well-known American linguist E.Sapir also formulated his own ap­ proach to phonemic solutions. Below we give a short review of phonological trends in the USA. BloomHeldian descriptive phonology is also called the relative - acoustic theory, as it is based on the analyses of struc­ tural functions and acoustic features of phonemes. According to L.Bloomfield, a phoneme is a minimal distinctive unit of a lan­ guage, which has no meaning itself but may be determined as a special unit, owing to its physical and structural contrasts in rela­ tion to all other sounds types of a particular language. His other definition of the phoneme as a minimal unit of the phonetic fea­ ture is purely a phonetic one. He sometimes mixed up the notions of a “speech sound” and a “phoneme”. His idea on the primary and secondary phonemes was very important in the further classi­ fication of segmental and suprasegmental phonemes. He also gave descriptions of the phoneme combinations in initial, medial and final positions of the words1.L.Bloomfield's theory was developed and improved by a number of linguists and is called the post-Blooomfieldian theory of descriptive phonology. The representatives of this are Z.Harris, Ch.F.Hockett, H.A.Gleason. According to this theory a phoneme is a class of sounds or a class of allophones (phones) which have both phonetic similarity and functional identity, in the sense that the substitution of one for another in the same context does not change its syntactic or semantic function, i.e. makes no change in its meaning. This theory defines a phoneme on the basis of the distributional method. Usually the phoneme is defined as the rep-sentative of phones in free variation or complementary distribu­ tion, which are phonetically similar2. The allophones of phonemes may also be determined on the basis of the distributional method. Some representatives of this trend define a phoneme as a sum of distinctive features. They state the physical and functional aspects of the phoneme from the mentalistic point of view, as their theory is based on the stimulus-response segments that are the same or different. In connected speech a sound is generally modified by its phonetic environment (neighbouring sound), by the position it occupies in a word or an utterance; it is also modified by prosodic features, such as stress, speech melody, and tempo of speech. Every language has a limited number of sound types are shaped by all the speakers of the language and are linguistically important because they distinguish words in the l, in E there are 20 vowels phonemes and 24 consonant phonemes. All the actual SS are allophones of the phonemes that exist in the language. Those that distinguish words, when opposed to one another in the same phonetic position, are realizations of different phonemes. The **phoneme** may be defined as the smallest linguistically relevant unit of the sound structure of a given language which serves to distinguish one word from another. **Allophones**of a certain phoneme are SS which are realizations of 1 and the same phoneme and, which cannot distinguish the words. On the one hand, the phoneme is an abstraction and a generalization. It is abstracted from its variants that exist in actual speech and is characterized by features that are common to all its variants. On the other hand, the phoneme is material, real and objective, because speech it is represented by concrete material sounds. The phoneme can be regarded as a dialectical unity of its 2 aspects: material and abstract. Phonemes in isolation has no meaning, in their material form constitute morphemes, words, all of which are meaningful (constitutive function of the phoneme). Besides, the constitutive function of the phoneme performs the distinctive function, because phonemes distinguish one word from another. Linguistics distinguish the third function of the phoneme – identificatory. It appears that when identifying linguistic units the use of the right phoneme is not the only significant factor, the use of the right allophone is not much less important. Every phoneme displays a vast range of variation in connected speech. Among the different types of variation we distinguish idiolectal, diaphonic and allophonic variation. **Idiolectal** embraces the individual peculiarities of articulating sounds, which are caused by the shape and form of the speaker’s speech organs and by his art habits. **Diaphonic**variation affects the quality and quantity of particular phonemes. It is caused by concrete historical tendencies active in certain localities. **Allophonic** variation, which conditioned by phonetic position and phonemic environment. In connected speech sounds undergo various modifications under the influence of neighbouring sounds and the intonation patterns they occur in. EV are modified in unstressed syllables. The weakening of art and shortening of the duration of unstressed vowels results in modification of their quality and quantity. This phonetic phenomenon Is called **reduction.** The process of adapting the art of a vowels to a consonants, or a consonants to a vowels, is known as **accommodation**(depends on position in the intonation group)**.**When a consonant is a component of a consonant cluster, it is partially or completely assimilated by the neighbouring sound. A consonant may be voiced or devoiced, it may lose its plosion, or the plosion may become restricted, there may even occur coalescent assimilation which results in a new phoneme. All English phonemes in various pronouncing conditions undergo **assimilation.**Main problems of phonological analysis: 1. The identification of the phonemic inventory for each individual L; 2. The identification of the phonemic inventory of phonologically relevant features of a L; 3. The interrelationships among the phonemes oh a language.

**3-MAVZU. SYLLABLE FORMATION AND SYLLABLE DIVISION IN ENGLISH**.

**Plan:**

1. **Ways of syllable formation.**
2. **Syllable division in English.**

From the articulatory point of view the syllable may be regarded as a single uninterrupted unit of utterance which may coincide with a word (ex. cat /kfet/) or a part of a word or a word form (ex. little /lit—1/) making /mei-kig/). Syllables consisting of two or more phonemes, joining the articulations, have a complex structure characterized by on - glides, retention and off-glides which is essentual also for the ordinary combination of phonemes. From the acoustic and perceptual point of view a syllable is a wave of loudness characterized by prosodic features such as stress, pitch, sonority and length. The acoustic - auditory shape of the syllable depends on the sonority of the sounds. The peak of the syllable is often formed by a vowel as in pet, act, see; less of

ten by the sonants or sonorants (m, n, 1), as in the second syllable of cable, tension, times. The peak of the syllable may be followed by less sonorous sounds (consonants). One sound, which is characterized by the great force of utterance (accent and pitch of voice), sonority and length, may function as a syllable. For example, I /ai/, little /lit—I/, rhythm /пб-m/. From the functional point of view a syllable, like other phonetic units, fulfills four functions: 1) constitutive function, i.e. a syllable or syllables act as material carriers of words, word-forms, word-combinations and phrases; 2) distinctive function, i.e. the syllables may serve to distinguish minimal pairs of words, word-combinations and phrases. For example: an apron /эп 'eipren/ - a napron /э 'neipran/ an ice house /эп 'ais 'haus/ - a nice house /э nais'haus/, its lips /its'lips/ - it slips /it slips/. Is there any mistake here? - Is there any Miss Take here?; 3) recognitive function, i.e. the recognition of the right syllable formation and syllable division rules; 4) delimitative function, i.e. some syllables may occur only in initial or final positions in words. Phonologically it is possible to distinguish two types of syllables: 1) genuine syllables, the phonemic structure of which has constant functional relevance: bottle /bot-1/ - bottom /bot-эт/, make /meik/ - making /meikiq/; 2) the secondary syllables are unstable and their phonemes have not the same functional relevance as the phonemes of genuine syllables. There are two or more peaks of sonority in the secondary syllables'. For example: a black tie /s'blxk'tai/ - a blacked eye /9'blaektt'ai/, ice-cream /'ais'kn:m/ - I scream /ai'skn:m/. According to statistic investigation almost half of the syllables frequently used in English are CVC (42-47,7%). In Russian the universal type of the syllable is CCVC (31,8%) while in Uzbek CV type of syllable is regarded as a universal type (48,983%). CVC type has lower frequency of occurance in Russian and Uzbek. In the Turkic languages CVC is regarded the oldest universal type which originated the other syllable types as (C)VC, CV(C), (C)V(C)1. G.P. Torsuyev gave the statistic data of sound combinations used in initial, medial and final positions of words and syllables. So far, speaking of a syllable, we have tried to explain it in connection with a word. We have done so because a syllable is defined as an intermediate phonetic unit occupying a place below the word unit but above the phoneme. The syllable is not directly connected with a morpheme. Perhaps, some linguists negate the importance of a syllable on the basis of this fact and regard it better to describe the combinations of phonemes in certain positions. A syllable is a very complex and complicated unit of utterance. Many linguists attempted to explain the syllable from different points of view. 1. The most ancient theory of syllable formation admitted that the number of syllables is equal to the number of vowels used in an utterance. It does not take into consideration the syllable formation function of some consonants. 2. The American phonetician R. H. Stetson suggested the expiratory theory of the syllable, which is also called the chest- pulse or pressure theory. According to R. H. Stetson's expiratory theory «the vowel is an articulation which has the function of delimiting the chest-pulse of the syllable»1. He also admits that phonetically the language signals depend on the function of vowels and consonants which affect the meaning of a syllable. The syllables are regarded as meaningful minimal units of speech articulated by a single expiration. But in fact a number of syllables may also be uttered by a single expiration. The Romanian linguist A. Rossetti have approved the expiratory theory regarding «no syllable without expiration»2. It is not necessary to break up utterances or phrases and sentences into chest-pulses in oral speech. Therefore the expiratory theory of the syllable is regarded useless. Though R. H. Stetson measured the action of the respiratory muscles and compared the curves of these musculatory variations with the curves of sonorous intensity and found their perfect correspondence but his theory cannot explain the nature of syllable division and syllable formation. 3. The Danish linguist O. Jespersen suggested the sonority theory of the syllable, which is based on the degree of sonority (audibility) of speech sounds. The term «sonority» is used here to denote the prevalence of musical tone over noise in the production of speech sounds. O. Jespersen classified sounds according to the degree of sonority beginning with the last sonorous sound in the following way: 1. Voiceless consonants (p, t, k, f, s, etc.); 2. voiced stops (b, d, g); 3. voiced fricatives (v, z, etc.); 4. nasals and laterals (m, n, 1 etc.); 5. trills and flaps (r); 6. close vowels (i, y, u); 7. mid vowels (e, о, e, з etc.); 8. open vowels (a, ae, etc.). O. Jespersen defined a syllable as the distance between two degrees of sonority. Syllables of the type of plain, freight, like are consequently in accordance with this definition. But many types of syllables contradict it. Thus, in such words as station /steijn/, little Ait—1/, straw /stro:/ middle /midl/ etc. We notice one or two syllables in which consonant clusters do not form separate syllables. The sonority theory cannot explain the syllable boundary. Inspite of this and other shortcomings this theory is used by some foreign linguists who develope it further. The sonority theory of the syllable have been applied to Russian by R.I. Avanesov who distinguishes only three degrees of sonority: 1) constrictive consonants, 2) sonorants and 3) vowels1. 4. The classification of sounds according to their sonority is very closely connected with grouping of sounds based on the degree of opening. A vowel is more sonorous and also more open than a consonant, a plosive consonant is more closed (and less sonorous) than fricative consonant sounds, M is more open and sonorous than /i/ etc. F. de Saussure's definition of the syllable is based on the degree of opening of the sounds. According to F. de Saussure, consonants are grouped around vowels on the basis of their opening. The syllabic boundary is at the junction of a more close sound and more open. Saussure called the opening, occurring at the beginning of the syllable, the explosion, and the closing at the end, the implosion. These terms are still used in modern linguistics. Any consonant, which is placed after the vocalic nucleus (the vowel) of the syllable, is called implosive whereas any consonant which precedes a vowel sound is called explosive. According to Saussure, syllable may be symbolized by the sign < > (opening + closing). Wherever one finds > < (closing + opening) there is a syllabic boundary2. The implosive and explosive element's coincide with the slopes of a syllable, while its nucleus is equal to its centre or peak. 5. F. de Sassure's theory of syllable formation is used by many linguists with perfection. For example, J.W.F. Mulder gives the following definition of a syllable: «The syllable can be defined as a simultaneous bundle of positions which is a subset of a simultaneous bundle of positions called a distributional unit, which subset contains an explosive, a nuclear and an implosive position or position group»1. Any distributional unit contains at least one syllable and cannot therefore be properly included in a syllable. That is to say, the extension of a syllable is the lower limit of extension of a distributional unit. According to Mulder, distributional units are disjoint, i.e. no syllable can belong to more than one distributional unit, nor can a part of a syllable be long to a distributional unit and another part of that syllable to another distributional unit. For some languages there may be preexplosive, post-implosive positions as in the English word stands /standz/. Mulder distinguishes free and non-free or bound syllables. Free syllables can occur in any place, i.e. initially, medially or finally in a distributional unit. An independent syllable can appear alone in a distributional unit. Besides, a syllable is defined both as a simultaneous bundle of positions and as a sort of «accent group» with respect to the phonemes in that syllable2. It should be stated that the above definition of the syllable is based on its distribution in different positions, though it cannot explain the nature of syllable formation and syllable division. 6. The French phoneticians M. Grammont, and later on P. Fouche, have defined the syllable in psychological terms according to which it is characterized by a growing tension of the muscles of the voice-producing mechanism in the explosive part followed by a decreasing tension in the implosive part of it3. 7. The Czech phonetician B. Hala, summarizing all the definitions of the syllable, distinguishes five components: 1) expiratory; 2) phonatory; 3) articulatory; 4) the muscular; 5) acoustic. B. Hala also emphasizes the importance of the sonority degree of sounds in the acoustic characteristics of the syllable4. B. Hala's syllable theory, like R.H. Stetson's expiratory theory, is based on the physiological principle, while the sonority theory is based on the acoustic principle. 8. Academician L.V. Shcherba advanced his own syllable theory. According to L.V. Shcherba a syllable is formed due to the muscular tension of the articulation which is constantly changed. The boundaries of the syllable coincide with moments of weakening tension, whereas the peak of the syllable is formed by the maximal muscular tension which may be changed during the articulation of one and the same sound. Thus, this theory explains how a vowel or a consonant sound's articulation may be divided into two syllables. The sounds pronounced with growing tension begin the syllable. Consonants, which begin the syllable with strong articulation and gradually reduce muscular tension towards the end are called initially strong (finally weak). E. g., in the words shut /'/At/, tiny /'tini/ country /’клпйт/ the initial consonants /J/, /t/, /к/ are initially strong (finally weak). If the con sonant articulation becomes gradually tense towards the end of it, this type of consonant is termed finally strong (initially weak) which ends the syllable. E. g., in the words map /maep/, type /taip/ artistic /a:'tistik/ the final consonants are strong (initially weak). Sometimes both the beginning and the end of the articulation of consonants may be strong, while its centre becomes weak. Such consonants are called double peaked1. Usually the combination of two similar (geminated) consonants may be double peaked. E. g. misstate /'mis-steit/, unnatural /An-'naetjr(s)l/, rest time /'rest-'taim/, cold day /kauld 'dei/. In the last two examples double-peaked geminated consonants occur at the junction of two words or morphemes.

**4-MAVZU. WORD STRESS IN ENGLISH.**

**Plan:**

1. **Prosodic features of stressed morphemes.**
2. **Phonetic factor of word stress.**

By word stress we mean singling out one or more syllable in a word with the help of greater prominence accompanied by the change of pitch, qualitative and quantitative features of the sound in relation to other syllable or syllables of the same word.

ress is one of the constitutive features of a word. Owing to stress the sound structure of a word is phonetically combined and shaped and forms a semantic unit. Singling out a syllable or syllables of a word by great prominence does not take place isolately; it is a result of many factors among which semantic, morphological (i.e. grammatical) rhythmic and phonetic factors should be mentioned. Usually those factors are interdependent. The semantic factor is observed in the accentual structure of English words. For example, in abbreviations represented by letters such as USA /'ju:'es 'ei/ each component has equal stress owing to its semantic importance. Besides, there are words with separable prefixes as they are called, i.e. those which have a distinct referential meaning of their own, and compound words. The Morphological factor is determined by stressing some of the suffixes in word formation. It should be stated that an accentual pattern of a word is regarded one of the main characteristics of the phonetic structure of words. Stressed morphemes (basic or suffixal) of English have specific prosodic features. The rhythmic factor of word stress is observed while singling out a certain syllable or syllables in accordance with rhythmic habits and tendency to alternate stressed and unstressed syllables in order to distribute stress contours in relatively equal times. Word stress in English falls on a certain syllable in relation initial, medial and final positions of a word. The Phonetic factor of word stress serves to single out one syllable from another by its sound structure i.e. the prominence or force of articulation rises sharply at the beginning, culminates in the syllabic, and tapers off towards the end.

**5-MAVZU. THE FUNCTIONS OF SENTENCE STRESS.**

**Plan:**

1. **The semantic morphological factor of word-stress.**
2. **The rhythmic-accentual factor of word stress.**
3. **Semantic factors of stress.**

Stress is one of the constitutive features of a word. Owing to stress the sound structure of a word is phonetically combined and shaped and forms a semantic unit. Singling out a syllable or syllables of a word by great prominence does not take place isolately; it is a result of many factors among which semantic, morphological (i.e. grammatical) rhythmic and phonetic factors should be mentioned. Usually those factors are interdependent. They are very important in stress placement and in distinguishing the degrees of stress. Probably, the semantic factor is more important than the other factor in English. G. P. Torsuyev gave a brief de scription of all these factors in his works1, which is used in this book. The semantic factor is observed in the accentual structure of English words. For example, in abbreviations represented by letters such as USA /'ju:'es 'ei/ each component has equal stress owing to its semantic importance. Besides, there are words with separable prefixes as they are called, i.e. those which have a distinct referential meaning of their own, and compound words. The majority of such compound words have two equally strong stresses known as a double-stress, or even (level) accent. Usually the second stress in these words is somewhat stronger than the first. H. Kurath calls this type of stress «fore-stress» which is used in native words consisting of two or more free forms (bases). In this respect, these compound words differ sharply from the normally end-stressed phrases of English as in the following examples: a blue bird - a blue bird, a glass house - a glass door, a standstill - stand still, a black out - black out2. Even accent is observed in the following words: 'over-'dressed, 'white- Tiot, 'well-'made, 'upstairs, 'apple-'pie etc. Stress usually falls on the semantically important element of a word. Compound words which are formed by two stems as noun-noun, adjective-noun etc., are usually called compound nouns, compound adjectives, compound adverbs etc. They often have even (level) stress as both components of a compound word are important semantically. E. gl 'rain 'fall, 'sun 'rise, 'mid'night, red-'skin, 'home-'sick, 'stead 'fast, 'nowa 'days, 'no'where, 'kind-'hearted, Tiot- 'tempered etc. The Morphological factor is determined by stressing some of the suffixes in word formation. It should be stated that an accentual pattern of a word is regarded one of the main characteristics of the phonetic structure of words. Stressed morphemes (basic or suffixal) of English have specific prosodic features. Owing to the semantic importance of suffixal morphemes, the latter elements in word final position may be stressed in polysyllabic words. The stressed suffixes of these types are: -ian, -ic (al), -ental, -mental, -ion, -ious, -eous, -ids, -ade, -ier, -esgue, - ette, -ique, -oon, -ее, -eer; physician: /fi'zijn/, politician /poli'tijan/, symbolic /simlDolik/, democratic /demo'kraetik, oriental /on'ental/, instrumental /instru'mental/, decision /di'si3n/, affection /a'fekjn/, religious /nlid3as/, courageous /k/i'rid3as/, tonsilitis /tanzilitis/, blockade /blkeid/, cavalier /kavalia/, grotesque /gra'tesk/, novelette /novilit/, intrique /in'trig/, unique /ju:'mk/, cartoon /ka:'tu:n/, employee /lmploi'i:/, pioneer /paia'nia/. Some of these words were borrowed from French and Latin. Usually it is difficult to distinguish semantic and morphological factors as morphemes are meaningful units and, therefore, they may be stressed. Though not all suffixes or suffixal morphemes may always be stressed in words which depends on the semantic weight of suffixes. Incidently, we should distinguish the semantic morphological factor of word-stress thanks to the close relationship between semantic and morphological factors. The semantic-morphological factor contributes to determining the stress placement in words which are distinguished by the place of stress, e. g. reform /ri'fo:m/ (improve) - reform /'ri'fo:m/ (form again), recollect /,п кэlekt/ (remember) - recollect /'rekolekt/ (collect again), overdevelop /'auva'divelap/, overbusy /'auvabizi/, to over look /auvaluk/, overcoat /'auvakaut/. In the given pairs of words the first of them has one stress while the second receives even (double) stress. The prefixes, which are semantically important, may also be stressed, e. g. anticlerical /'aentiklerikal/, decontrol /'dilcontrol/, ex-champion /'eks 'tjempian/, misspel /'mis'spel/, overead /'aua'ri:d/, pre-war /'pn'wo:/, ultra-modern /'Altra'modan/, undertake /'Anda'teik/. Some words may be contrasted by different position of stress. For example: conduct /kondakt/ - to conduct /kan'dAkt/, protest /'prautest/ - to protest /pro'test/, record /'reko:d/ - to record /nko:d/. Besides, the difference of the position of word stress, there are some changes owing to reduction and phonetic opposition between stressed and unstressed vowels /au/ - /а/, /е/ - /i/, /а - е/ may be observed in these words. Mixing the position of word stress in words, may lead to accentual interference as a result of which a foreign accent or pronunciation mistake will take place. The rhythmic factor of word stress is observed while singling out a certain syllable or syllables in accordance with rhythmic habits and tendency to alternate stressed and unstressed syllables in order to distribute stress contours in relatively equal times. Word stress in English falls on a certain syllable in relation initial, medial and final positions of a word. In many cases a syllable before primary stress is either unstressed or weakly stressed, a syllable once removed receives secondary stress, e. g. supernatural /sjupa'naetjral/, extravagant /ekstTA 'vaegant/, hypercritical /,Ьа1рэ,кгшкэ1/. Thus, the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables is rhythmically determined. Probably, the rhythmic factor helps make pronunciation easy, i.e. to economize speech effort. The rhythmic factor is associated with the prosodic structure of a word and therefore it is possible also to speak of a rhythmic-accentual factor of word stress. When a syllable or syllables of a word receive some degree of stress, the latter stresses make up a rhythm or rhythmic pattern. Rhythmic-accentual contrasts may distinguish words or grammatical forms of words, e. g. permit /'p3:mit/ (a noun) - permit /pa'mit/ (a verb), project /'prod3ekt/ - /pra,d3ekt/ (a verb) etc. Thus, the rhythmic- accentual structure of a word may be associated with the morphological factor, as parts of speech may be distinguished by their combination. The rhythmic-accentual structure is regarded as one of the components of the phonetic structure of a word. The Phonetic factor of word stress serves to single out one syllable from another by its sound structure i.e. the prominence or force of articulation rises sharply at the beginning, culminates in the syllabic, and tapers off towards the end. Hence, consonants preceding the syllabic are pronounced with greater force than those following it; the former are «strong» and the latter are weak». They are called prosodic allophones of consonants, which are observed in monosyllabic morphemes beginning and ending the identical consonants. These prosodic allophones with primary stress may be observed in such words as coke /кэик/ - cook.

**6-MAVZU. INTONATION. STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH. INTONATION PATTERNS. FUNCTIONS OF INTONATION.**

**Plan:**

1. **A constitutive function of intonation**
2. **A delimitative function of intonation**
3. **A distinctive (phonological) function of intonation**

Intonation is an essentual prosodic element of human speech. It shapes human speech phonetically and helps to express grammatical, semantic and emotional meanings of phrases or sentences. Intonation is a very complicated phenomenon and therefore its definition varies widely among linguists. The following definitions of intonation have been given by British linguists: «Intonation may be defined as the variations which take place in the pitch of the voice in connected speech, i.e. the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by the vibration of the vocal cords» (D. Jones)1. «By intonation we mean the rise and fall of the pitch of the voice when we speak» (L. Armstrong and I. Ward) 2. The distribution of intonation itself and its components depend on the situation or context. It is called the text-forming function of intonation. The phonological, phonostylistic and text- forming functions of intonation have not been deeply investigated and these types of scientific approaches are going to develop in modem linguistics. As to the place of intonation in transformational-generative grammar, it is not clear how intonation can operate in this theory1. As a prosodic unit intonation acts with all its components, it can operate in phrase together with the grammatical and lexical means of language. Intonation itself and its components perform four functions like other phonological units. (1) A constitutive function of intonation is expressed by its existence in an utterance through which intonation shapes a sentence phonetically. For example, Come! as a word and sense- group has its own grammatical form and intonation. The phrases Come here! or He will come tomorrow, constitute different grammatical (syntactic) structures and intonation. (2) A delimitative function of intonation is very closely connected with its constitutive function. Intonation, as a prosodic constituent of a phrase, may also delimitate parts within a phrase, and its end, through breaking up a sentence into sense-groups (pause-groups or intonation groups)1. By a sense-group we mean a word or a group of words forming the shortest possible unit in a sentence from the point of view of meaning, grammatical structure and intonation. E. g. 'Early in the morning it's 'always 'pleasantly cool. In this sentence there are two sense groups (a single vertical stroke (1) denotes a short pause inside a sentence). (3) A distinctive (phonological) function of intonation serves todistinguish the communicative types of sentences, e. g. He is a student may be pronounced by four different pitch contrasts. When it is pronounced by a low pitch at the end it means a normal, matter- of-fact report. When it has a mid ptch at the end of a sentence it indicates that the utterance is not finished or that the fact is like an afterthought, having significance for something said previously. If it is pronounced by a high pitch at the end it indicates mild doubt, as if he is a student or trying to remember he is a student. When it is pronounced by an extra-high pitch it indicates strong disbelief or surprise.

**7-MAVZU. THE ARTICULATORY AND THE ACOUSTIC ASPECTS OF THE ENGLISH SPEECH SOUNDS.**

**Plan:**

1. **The articulatory aspects of sounds.**
2. **The acoustic aspects of sounds.**

It was already stated that the vocal tract may be described as an apparatus for the conversion of muscular energy into acoustic energy. Sound is a physical or acoustic phenomenon generated by the activities of the vocal organs. A sound consists of waves which travel through the air at a speed of about 1,100 feet per second. The repeated movement - vibration creates a wave. Vi­ bration may be periodic or non-periodic and simple or complex. If the same vibration is repeated at regular intervals then the sound waves are periodical. On the contrary, the vibration repeated at ir­ regular intervals creates non-periodical sound waves. Periodic sound waves may be perceived as a musical tone or speech-tone. The non-periodic sound waves are perceived as a speech-noise. The movement of vibration at a certain distance is called a period or a cycle. The maximum distance of the curve from the point of rest till the last point reached by the vibration is called its **ampli­** **tude.** The frequency of vibration is determined by the specificqualities of the body in question (its weight, or in the case of vo­ cal cords, their tension; in the case of cavities, volume, shape, and size of the opening relative to the volume). The smaller opening of the cavity creates lower frequency. The larger opening of the cavity or higher tone forms greater frequency. **Frequency** is re­ sponsible for the pitch of the tone and amplitude determines in­ tensity. An increase of the amplitude brings greater intensity. Physical **intensity** is measured by the sound energy which passes through 1 sq. cm perpendicular to the direction of the vibration (measured in watts) in a unit of time. The intensity of a vibration may thus be made four times greater by doubling the amplitude or the frequency. The intensity is proportional to the square of both. Loudness is the term used for the intensity perceived which is measured in **db** - decibels. Different articulations bring different acoustic effects. The correlation between the various movements of the speech organs and the process of vibration can be determined by instrumental analysis. In modem phonetics on the results of instrumental re­ search all the articulatory - acoustic features of different lan­ guages have been classified into twelve pairs forming binary oppositions (the oppositions which contain two members like a - b). (As to this classification see the following chapters of this book). The way of hearing speech utterances is the object of the perceptual phonetics. It is a psychological perception which makes it possible to hear different noises which may be classified in terms of three features: **continuity, resonance and timbre.**

**Continuity.** The stops /p, t, k, g etc./ consist of momentarynoise. The glides last somewhat longer but cannot be drawn out at will (especially in English /h, j, w, r/, the short vowels and the second elements of the diphthongs). The continuants can be drawn out at will (spirants, nasals, /1/ and long vowels). The trills consist of a rapid sequence of taps and can also be drawn out at will (especially, the Scottish /г/ and the glottal catch which ac­ companies the fadeaway).

**Resonance.** The voiceless sounds consist of a silent noise.The vowels are generated by the musical tone without any ob­ struction. The voiced obstruents (stops and fricatives) are charac­ terized by buss.

Timbre. By the term timbre we mean the quality of the voice, specified by the harmonic overtones and resonance tones based on it. Auditorily it is called pitch and overall timbre. In terms of overall timbre, the vowels, liquids and nasals are either bright and thin (such as/i/), dark and full (such as /a:/) or dull and neutral (such as *hi).* The English /1/ has a bright variant initially in British English, but it is dark and full in most varieties of American English. The hisses *Is, zI* are bright and thin, the hushes /1 ,3 / bright and full, the spirants /f, 0/ dull and neutral.

Some linguists categorize timbre in terms of two dimen­ sions: grave (dull) - acute (bright), compact (full) - diffuse (thin).

The English stops may have burst variants (explosives) ini­ tially, snap variants (implosives) finally. The stops *It,* d/ have sin­ gle tap (flap) variants medially as in Betty - beddy in American English. In British English /г/ has a similar tap variant medially (as in bury) in the initial cluster /br/. Double stops consist of snap

* momentary silence + burst medially in British and Australian English. The snaps are rebased into a following vowel with a slight click. No release is audible before a following consonant as for *IkJ* in act, **fact, ticked, like** this. The voiceless bursts of Eng­ lish are known as aspirated and they are released into a weak white noise. The affricates */tj, dzl* are bursts released into a hushy noise. The glottalized stops have snaps in a final position in British Eng­ lish (that). As we have seen, the auditory aspect uses its own terms as dark, light, full, thin, neutral, burst, click, snap, etc. which may be interpreted in articulatory and acoustic terms. There are also some other facts of perception in longer utterances or segments realized in various pitch patterns and intonation con­ tours. The perceptual approach is of great theoretical and practical value. Theoretically it is very important to study scientifically how the language signal may be perceived by the listener. This problem is closely coordinated not only by the psychological facts of hearing, but the most important event lies on the neurological basis that is controlled by the brain through the complex nervous and sensory systems and also by muscular activity. The practical significance of the perceptual approach may be proved by the facts of mastering the pronunciation of a foreign language. Before trying to produce a foreign language the students should listen to them and perceive the differences between the sounds of their own language and those of the foreign language. Listening, in this case, becomes very important. The instructions in foreign lan­ guage pronunciation teaching usually begin with listening, than the coming identifycation of speech utterances, transcribing, lis­ tening and repeating and at last writing notes on the elements to be drilled1.

**8-MAVZU. THE PHONOLOGICAL ASPECT OF THE ENGLISH SPEECH SOUNDS.**

**Plan:**

* 1. **Contrast distribution**
  2. **Free variation**

Any segment of a language consists of a sound chain which is specified by some articulatory, acoustic and perceptual features. But not all the phonetic features function to distinguish lexical and grammatical forms. Some features serve to distinguish words, morphemes and phrases and some of them cannot serve this pur­ pose. Thus, it is the functions of distinction and also identification which is characteristic of all Unguistic units. According to their functions phonetic units - sounds, syllables, stress and intonation can be described linguistically and classified to some ranks, groups and subgroups. The theoretical study which sets up to ac­ count all the phonetic distinction of a language is called phonol­ ogy. Some linguists prefer the terms phonemics and phonematics. But the term phonology has become popular nowadays. Phono­ logy is not an autonomous and independent science. **Two elements (sounds) may be used in one and the same position and serve to distinguish the words. For example, bill /bil/**

* **till /til/, sight /sait/ - bight /bait/ - night /nait/ - right /rait/ - light /lait/ - might /mait/ etc.**

Using contrast distribution it is possible to establish the number of phonemes in a given language.

* 1. The elements (sounds) used in one and the same position and which cannot distinguish the meanings of words are considered to be in free variation. In such cases every sound manifests the free allo-phone of the phoneme. This type of distribution is known also as an equivalent distribution. For example, some speakers pronounce /e/ sound either half-close /e/ or half-open *Id* in one and the same position but it cannot distinguish the words.

4.Two various sounds may be used in one and the same po­ sition. In such cases one of the sounds represents the free allo­ phone of the other. For example, the word phonetics may be pronounced as /fonetiks/, /founetiks/ and /fanetiks/ where the

sounds *h i, h i* represent the free allophones of the phoneme /ou/.

In reality each of them is an allophone of the separate phoneme.

The distributional method is very important in phonological analysis of the sound structure. It is necessary to show also what clusters of sounds the pattern of a language admits. The branch of phonology which studies the possible clusters of sounds in words and morphemes is known as «phonotactics»1.

Using the statistical method it is possible to establish the ex­ act number of phonological oppositions in a language and the number of sound clusters in initial, medial and final positions of the words. For example, in English, out of a theoretically possible 11,000 initial three member consonantal clusters at the beginning of a syllable, only about 40 occur. Of 576 possible combinations of two consonants, only 137 are utilized by the language2. There are no initial three member consonantal clusters in Uzbek. Thus it is difficult to teach the Uzbek students the pronunciation of the initial three member consonantal clusters of English.

**9-MAVZU. STYLISTIC USE OF INTONATION.**

**Plan:**

Intonation is an essentual prosodic element of human speech. It shapes human speech phonetically and helps to express grammatical, semantic and emotional meanings of phrases or sen­ tences. Intonation is a very complicated phenomenon and there­ fore its definition varies widely among linguists. The following definitions of intonation have been given by British linguists: «In­ tonation may be defined as the variations which take place in the pitch of the voice in connected speech, i.e. the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by the vibration of the vocal cords» (D. Jones)1. «By intonation we mean the rise and fall of the pitch of the voice when we speak» (L. Armstrong and I. Ward)2.

The American linguist D. L. Bolinger defines intonation as «... the melodic line of speech, the rising and falling of the «fun­ damental» or singing pitch of the voice ...»3.

P. Ladefoged defines intonation as «the pattern of pitch changes»4. P. Lieberman regards intonation as «... the entire en­ semble of pitch contours, pitch levels and stress levels that occurs when a sentence is spoken»5.

From given definitions we can notice that intonation is re­ garded as pitch changes or speech melody and also stress levels which accompany an utterance. Speech melody perceived as pitch changes is one of the main components of intonation, but it is not equal to intonation. Some linguists include other components of intonation in their definition. For example, A.M . Peshkovskij defined intona­ tion as the indissoluble connection of both rhythm and melody1. These definitions have been given in a narrow sense.

A broad and adequate definition of intonation is given by V.A. Vassilyev who writes: «On the perceptual level, sentence in­ tonation is a unity of four components, formed by the communi­ catively relevant variations in: ( 1 ) voice pitch, or speech melody; (2)the prominence of words, or their accent; (3) the tempo (rate), rhythm and pausation of the utterance, and (4) voice - tamber, this complex unity serving to express adequately, on the basis of the proper grammatical structure and lexical composition of the sentence, the speaker's or writer's thoughts, volition, emotions, feelings and attitudes towards reality and contents of the sen­ tence»2. G.P. Torsuyev defines intonation as a complex combination of speech melody, distribution of stress in a sentence, tamber of voice and tempo of pronunciation, which serves as the most im­ portant means of expressing the meaning of an utterance 3.A.M . Antipova regards intonation as a complex combination of the following components: ( 1 ) speech .melody, (2 ) sentence stress, (3) time characteristics (duration, tempo and pausation), (4) rhythm and (5) tamber (the quality of voice) .

The latter three definitions of intonation include all the components of intonation and have been given in a very broad sense. We also shade these definitions. Intonation is a prosodic or suprasegmental characteristics of an utterance or phrase, and therefore it is possible to speak of the prosodic structure of a phrase. By the term «phrase or utterance» we mean the sentence realized phonetically as a unit of speech. Like other phonetic units intonation may be studied in four as­ pects: ( 1 ) articulatory (physiologically), (2 ) acoustically (physi­

cally), (3) perceptually (auditorially) and (4) functionally

1. text-form(linguistically). There is a close relationship between all these as­ pects of intonation. The functional aspect of intonation which deals with a linguistic analysis of it, namely phonological aspect of intonation, has not been studied thoroughly. This aspect is very important in linguistic structuring of intonation components and in establishing relations between the phonological, grammatical, lexical and stylistic levels of a language. M. Pomportl considers that intonation is studied by a special branch of phonetics, namely intonology, and suggests even In-tonological Typology as a part of universal typology of languages . Though we do not shade the term «Intonology», but admit the possibility of scientific investigation of intonation in re­ lation with linguistic levels and comparative - typological study of various intonation types in languages. Besides, it is possible to study intonational interference between the mother tongue and foreign language which has a theoretical and practical value. Any utterance may have communicative and expressive - emotional functions, which may be formed either by intonational or lexico-grammatical means. Any sound information is formed by intonation which also contributes to distinguish communica­ tive types of utterance. The expressive-emotional function of an utterance, which is determined by the division of sense-groups in a context or in a text, may also be formed by means of intonation. Various types of emotions expressed by intonation are studied by a special branch of phonetics, the so-called phonostylistics. A.M. Antipova calls it «intonational stylistics» which, being a branch of intonology, studies intonations of different functional styles2 of a language. The distribution of intonation itself and its components de­ pend on the situation or context. It is called the function of intonation. The phonological, phonostylistic and text-forming functions of intonation have not been deeply investigated and these types of scientific approaches are going to develop in modem linguistics. As to the place of intonation in transforma­ tional-generative grammar, it is not clear how intonation can op­ erate in this theory. As a prosodic unit intonation acts with all its components, it can operate in phrase together with the grammatical and lexical means of language. Intonation itself and its components perform four functions like other phonological units.
2. A constitutive function of intonation is expressed by its existence in an utterance through which intonation shapes a sen­ tence phonetically. For example, Come! as a word and sense-group has its own grammatical form and intonation. The phrases

*Come here!* or *He will come tomorrow,* constitute differentgrammatical (syntactic) structures and intonation.

1. A delimitative function of intonation is very closely connected with its constitutive function. Intonation, as a prosodic constituent of a phrase, may also delimitate parts within a phrase, and its end, through breaking up a sentence into sense-groups (pause-groups or intonation groups)1. By a sense-group we mean a word or a group of words forming the shortest possible unit in a sentence from the point of view of meaning, grammatical struc­ ture and intonation. E. g. *'Early in the morning it's 'always 'pleas­* *antly cool.* In this sentence there are two sense groups (a singlevertical stroke ( 1 ) denotes a short pause inside a sentence).
   1. A distinctive (phonological) function of intonation serves

to distinguish the communicative types of sentences, e. g. *He is a* *student* may be pronounced by four different pitch contrasts. Whenit is pronounced by a low pitch at the end it means a normal, matter-of-fact report. When it has a mid ptch at the end of a sentence it in­ dicates that the utterance is not finished or that the fact is like an af­ terthought, having significance for something said previously. If it is pronounced by a high pitch at the end it indicates mild doubt, as if *he is a student* or trying to remember *he is a student.* When it ispronounced by an extra-high pitch it indicates strong disbelief or surprise. In this case the distinctive function of intonation becomes clear through the pitch contrasts which have its distinctive function too. In the minimal pair «Is there any Miss Take here? - Is there any mistake here?» the distinctive function of intonation becomes clear through stress levels at the junction of mistake (one stress) and Miss Take (two stresses). The distinctie function of intonation and its components is under discussion in modem phonology.

A recognitive (identificatory) function of intonation may be proved by the fact that every language or dialect has a characteristic pattern of intonation which is manifested in all utter­ ances of speakers, though there may be some individual prosodic features in their pronunciation. Any phrase or utterance has its proper intonation, according to which it may be identified by all speakers. It is not possible, for example, to pronounce a declarative sentence by a high or extra-high pitch. If so, the recognitive func­ tion of intonation may be destroyed and a sentence pronounced by

a high pitch becomes an exclamatoiy or interrogative sentence, i.e. the communicative type of a sntence may be changed. To leam the right recognitive function of intonation is necessaiy in master­ ing a good pronunciation of a foreign language.

All the functions of intonation are in close relationship with each other. Wrong usage of one of these functions may bring about wrong interpretation of other functions. All four functions of intonation are characteristic also of its components as given examples illustrate.

Intonation, its components and functions exist not only in oral speech but in the written form of a language as well. In a written text the punctuation marks make the meaning of sentences clear to the reader. Besides words, word combinations and gram­ matical combinations used in written texts, the writer's idea, his emotions and feelings may be expressed by means of punctuation marks which visually express various intonation types within a sentence, e. g. the punctuation marks which are called «end stops», i.e. period (.), a question mark (?), exclamation mark (!) are used to mark the end of sentences and indicate the communi­ cative types of sentences through intonational delimitation. The internal punctuation marks: comma (,), semicolon (;), colon (:), dash (-), parenthesis ( ) are used to separate, to inclose or indicate the relation between elements within a sentence. They usually in­ dicate pauses, intonations expressing non-finality (the rising tone) or finality (the falling tone) and emphatic intonations. Punctuation marks with specialized uses: quatation marks («»), brackets ( ), ellipsis (...) and italics may also signal certain intonation delimita­ tions by means of pitch changes, stress levels, pauses.

The above example *He is a student* may be pronounced with different intonations (pitch variations) thanks to three final punc­

tuation marks - end stops: period signals the falling tone; the question mark indicates the rising tone and the exclamation mark requires to use a special type of intonation expressed by all its components. Probably, the relationship between the punctuation marks and intonation is universal in all languages. Such examples as *He is a student* in Russian *(Он - студент)* and Uzbek *(U —* *student)* have relatively the same intonations depending on theusage of the punctuation marks.

Some American linguists regard punctuation marks as «su­ prasegmental phonemes». We do not shade this idea but con­ sider that punctuation marks may be interpreted as symbols of prosodic units in written sentences. Punctuation marks contribute to distinguish the functions of intonation. Thanks to the usage of punctuation marks the constitutive, distinctive delimitative and recognitive functions of intonation become clear in a written text. Thus, punctuation marks are important signals in the text-forming function of intonation, which operates in a different way to the proper functions of intonation (constitutive, distinctive, delimita­ tive, recognitive). In any language intonation performs gramma­ tical and expressive functions, but in English the contrasts in into­ nation are not clearly lexical1. These functions of intonation belong to language functions as a whole. Intonation and syntax are complementary aspects of sentence structure and therefore, in­ tonation is partly grammatical and partly referential2.

**10-MAVZU. VARIETIES OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION.**

One of the vital features of literary language, which distin­ guish it from its dialects, is the existence of more or less uni­ formed norms. A **literary language** has its own lexical, grammatical, and orthographic and pronunciation norms. Every national language possesses two forms: **the written form,** which is the literary uniform of a language and **spoken form,** which is not uniform and characterized by the individual features of the speaker. English is represented in writing and printing by the twenty-six letters of the alphabet, a dozen of punctuation marks and such devices as capitals and italics. In the spoken form of English we evidently use about a hundred sounds and variations in pitch, stress, pause etc. Each sound is used with some modifi­ cations in actual speech: For example some people have a full /г/ and others a very slight indication of the sound. The pronuncia­ tion of words varies considerably among the different regions in which English is spoken, so that we can easily distinguish speak­ ers according to their pronunciation. However, there is no strict boundary between written and spoken forms of a language because some elements of the spoken form may be found in the written form. As to the dialects they are the linguistic varieties of the language used by some group of speech community only in the oral or spoken form and differ from the spoken literary form of a language in more or less de­ gree. Dialects may be distinguished from each other by their pro­ nunciation, grammar, lexicon and stylistics. A special branch of linguistics which studies the variability of a given language is called **dialectology.** Dialectology has a close relationship to history, geography and other sciences as dialects may be important in the formation of nations and any change in the process of mi­ gration and urbanization. The pronunciation features of dialects are studied by a special branch of phonetics, namely dialectologi-cal phonetics. It is possible to investigate the literary and dialect pronunciations of the same language. The literary language has its **orthoepic norm,** i.e. the sum of rules of the spoken form charac­terized by the unity of the sound material formed in the process of its historical development. By the term norm we mean more or less constant and stable feature of pronunciation, i.e. all the com­ ponents of the phonetic structure-phonemes, syllables, stress and intonation. Speaking about literary orthoepic norm of English, some linguists use the terms **standard English** or **uniform English,** the latter has already been used in this book, J. S. Kenyon cited the following idea advanced by A.L. James: “... speech is immeasur­ able and there is no absolute standard of pronunciation... It is quite evident that we are not entitled to conclude that there is only a simple standard of pronunciation and only one correct way of speaking English. There are varieties that are acceptable through­ out the country, and others are not”1. Sometimes “Good English” is distinguished from “Bad English” (“Vulgar English”). On the basis of its usage the following principal varieties of English are distinguished: 1) **Formal English** (Limited use) - more often written than spoken - speaking and writing for somewhat re­ stricted groups in formal situations; 2) **General English** (Unlim­ ited use) - both spoken and written - speaking and writing of educated people in their private or public affairs; 3) **Informal** **English** (Limited use) - more often spoken than written; 4) **Non­ standard English** (Limited use) - chiefly spoken - language notmuch affected by school instruction; often conspicuously local; not appropriate for public affairs or for use by educated people. According to the above classification P.G. Perrin and G.H. Smith came to the conclusion that Formal, General and Informal English make up Standard English, on the contrary, the term “Nonstan­ dard English” refers to the everday speech of many people as ... a  “variety or level of language in its own right”1. We cannot accept this idea and do not use the terms “Standard” or “Nonstandard” as we have already defined the notion “orthoepic norm” of pronunciation.

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| **2-modul. Ingliz tili nazariy grammatikasi**  **1-MAVZU. INTRODUCTION TO THEORITICAL GRAMMAR. THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF A LANGUAGE.**  Plan:  1. Language and speech levels  2. Primary and secondary levels  3.Units of levels  4. The difference between language and speech  Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:  1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone  2. morphological level: morpheme/morph  3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex  4. Syntax - minor: sentence  5. Syntax - major: text  Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries". "What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means". When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistic differentiates language units and speech units.  The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:  1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;  2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;  3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;  4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.  a) the order of words, b) the functional words, c) the stress and intonation, d) the grammatical inflections, e) sound change, f) suppletion. The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles. According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that “several actors acted upon some objects”. This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure. Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday... Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.  The man gave the boy the money yesterday.  The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.  The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.  The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.  Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.  "Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it. We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", “grammatical utterance”. The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language. All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure. All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words. Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence. Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.  The man landed the jet plane safely  N V A N D  Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes. Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language. So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a)sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes. The first is syntax and the second - morphology.  W. Francis: "The Structure of American English". The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning. An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning. Five Signals of Syntactic Structure  1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.  2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken  3. Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance  4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meaning  5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes  One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine…) are of this type. The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.  Lexical and Grammatical Meaning  In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:  desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d …  The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. Morphemes of the 1st type we’ll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.The elements like -s, -ed, -d are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes. Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g.  He will study, I shall go.  The meaning of shall, will considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of invite - invited - shall invite we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes -s,-ed.  **2-MAVZU. THE MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF A LANGUAGE. TYPES OF MORPHEMES.**  Plan:  1. What operation is called "Morphemic analysis?  2. Language and speech levels and their corresponding units  3. Morpheme-morph-allomorph  Types of morphemes from the point of view of their:  a) function  b) number correlation between form and meaning  There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris  "The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of "the same" element". The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:  Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.  Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they:  a) have the same meaning;  b) never occur in identical environments and  c) have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.  Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics  Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.  Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.  Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morphs or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.  Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.  Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping - requirements:  a) they have the same meaning;  b) they are in non-contrastive distribution;  c) the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.  Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities,choice must be based upon the following order of priority:  a) tactical simplicity  b) morphophonemic simplicity  c) conformity to canonical forms.  Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There’s a notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme. There may be another definition of the allomorphs: the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorph. Compare the above said with Harris’s opinion. Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morphs must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur). The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics. In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.  The Types of Morphemes.  Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:  1. functional  2. number correlation between form and content  **3-MAVZU. THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES.**  Plan:  1.What is categorization?  2.What linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?  3. What is "opposition"?  4. The types of grammatical categories.  Any research presupposes bringing into certain order the material being studied. The issue under the consideration is also an attempt to generalize the grammatical means of language.  There are many conceptions on the problem today. According to B. Golovin “a grammatical category is a real linguistic unity of grammatical meaning and the means of its material expression”. It means that in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be a grammatical meaning and grammatical means.M.Y. Blokh , explains it as follows: “As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical "form", a unity of form (i.e. material factor), and meanings (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system. More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms. The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so - called “grammatical oppositions”. The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question. The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there's a logical category of possession. The meaning of possession can be expressed in all the languages, compare: My book (English) - Моя книга (Russian) - Менинг китобим (Uzbek). As it is seen from the examples the meaning of possession in English and Russian is expressed, by the possessive pronouns (lexical means) while in Uzbek it can be expressed either by the help of a discontinuous morpheme (...нинг ...им) or by one overt morpheme (…им). This category is grammatical in Uzbek but lexical in the other two languages. Thus the universal logical categories can be expressed by grammatical and non - grammatical (lexical, syntactic) means. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means. The doctrines mentioned above one - side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don't have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages. One of the most consistent theories of the grammatical categories is the one that is suggested by L. Barkhudarov. According to his opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the following features:  - general grammatical meaning;  - this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;  - the particular meanings must be opposed to each - other:  - the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.  Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category.English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are necessary for a grammatical category:  1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;  2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;  3. singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;  4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:  singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means. Schematically this can be shown as follows:  Number  0 (s), (z), (iz)  singular plural    Another example. In English adjectives there's one grammatical category - the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?  1. It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison;  2. The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative;  3. They are opposed to each - other;  4. They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.  If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each - other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.  **4-MAVZU. PARTS OF SPEECH. THE NOTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH.**  Plan:  1.Brief history of grouping words to parts of speech  2.Contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech  3. Structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)  - notional and functional parts of speech  A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:  1. Pre - structural tendency;  2. Structural tendency;  3. Post - structural tendency;  1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their meaning, function and form. To this group of scientists H. Sweet (42), O. Jespersen , O. Curme , B. Ilyish and other grammarians can be included.  2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution. The representatives of the tendency are: Ch. Fries , W. Francis (30), A. Hill (44) and others.  3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya , L. Barkhudarov and Shteling and others. One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians. H. Sweet's classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)  I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles  II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection  As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head - word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of headwords. According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications. He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should he kept in view. He gives the following classification:  1. Substantives (including proper names)  2. Adjectives  In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns ".  3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)  4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")  5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions- coordinating and  subordinating - and interjections).  As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar. Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives. Ch. Fries' classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most  st nd  grammarians call noun and pronouns (1 clause), verb (2 clause), adjective and adverbs, though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms. The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:  1. Woggles ugged diggles  2. Uggs woggled diggs  3. Diggles diggled diggles  The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words -we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. So Fries comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern. All words that can occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.  Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:  Frame A  The concert was good (always)  Frame B  The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)  Frame C  The team went there  Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded): The concert was good  food  coffee  taste.....  The words of this list he called class I words.  The word “was” and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words. In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words. These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech. Functional words are identified by letters  Class A Words  the concert was good  the a/an every  no my our  one all both  that some John’s  All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners". The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology. Compare: «the difference between nouns and verbs lies not in what kinds of things they stand for, but in what kinds of frames they stand in: I saw Robert kill Mary. I witnessed the killing of Mary by Robert” Group B - modal verbs Group I - interrogative pr-ns and adverbs  Group C - n.p.not Group J - subordinating conj-s  Group D - adverbs of degree Group K- interjections  Group E - coordinating conj-s. Group L- the words yes and no  Group F - prepositions Group M - attention giving signals look, say, listen  Group G - the aux-v. do Group N - the word please  Group H - introductory there Group O - let us, let in request sentences.  The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:  1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.  2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.  3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:  The boys were given the money.  The boys have given the money.  Russian grammarians in classifying words into parts of speech keep to different concepts;  A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use. His word-groups are:  Notional words Function words  1. Nouns link - verbs  2. Adjectives prepositions  conjunctions  3. Numerals modifying function words  4. Pronouns (article, particle)  5. Adverbs only, even, not  6. Verbs  R. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria  1. Lexico - grammatical meaning of words  2. Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)  3. Grammatical categories of words.  4. Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)  5. Their function in a sentence.  Their Classification  1. Nouns 8. Modal words  2. Adjectives 9. Prepositions  3. Pronouns 10. Conjunctions  4. Numerals 11. Particles (just, yet, else, alone)  5. Verbs 12. Interjections  6. Adverbs 13. Articles  7. Adlinks (the cat. of state) 14. Response words (yes, no)  asleep, alive  As authors state the parts of speech lack some of those five criteria. The most general properties of parts of speech are features 1, 4 and 5. B. A. Ilyish distinguishes three criteria: 1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:  a) the method of combining the word with other ones  b) the function in the sentence.  a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure. B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points. 1. Nouns 7. Adverbs  2. Adjective 8. Prepositions  3. Pronoun 9. Conjunctions  4. Numerals 10. Particles    5. Statives (asleep, afraid) 11. Modal words  6. Verbs 12. Interjections  L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling . Their classification of words are based on four principles. But the important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning, grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).  1. Nouns 7. Verbs  2. Articles 8. Prepositions  3. Pronouns 9. Conjunctions  4. Adjectives 10. Particles  5. Adverbs 11. Modal words  6. Numerals 12. Interjection  We find another approach of those authors to the words of English.  All the words are divided into two main classes: notional words and function - words: connectives, determinatives  Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:  1. connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;  2. determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles. The consideration of conceptions of different grammarians shows that the problem of parts of speech is not yet solved. There's one point which is generally accepted: in M-n English there are two classes of words-notional and functional - which are rather distinct.  **5-MAVZU. THE FUNCTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH.**  Plan:  1.The difference between the notional and functional words  2.The different approaches of linguistics to this issue  3.The ways of classifying of functional parts of speech  Now, when we have viewed all the notional words we may get down to the study of structural or functional parts of speech. To this group of words traditionally prepositions, conjunctions, articles and some auxiliary words are referred. Some scholars include adverbs, link-verbs, and even modal-verbs (Fries). It is important to consider the conceptions of some pre-structural grammarians.  H. Sweet in the sentence "The earth is round" differs two types of words: full words and form words or empty words: earth and round are full words while the and is are form words. He states that the and is are "form words because they are words in form only ... they are entirely devoid of meaning". Is does not have a meaning of its own but is used to connect subject and predicate. Thus though it has no meaning of its own, independent meaning, it has a definite grammatical function - it is a grammatical form-word. But "the" has not even a grammatical function and serves only to show that earth is to be taken as terrestrical globe and therefore it is a part of the word as the derivational prefix un - in unknown. In treating form-words by Sweet one of the most valuable point is the following his conception. He states that very often a word combines the function of a form - word with something of the independent meaning of a full word. To this type of words he includes words like become in he became a prime minister. As full word it has the meaning of “change” and the function of the form - word is. The above sentence consists of "He changed his condition + he is a prime minister". Now his conception schematically may be shown as follows:  full words - intermediate stratum - form - word.  Facts like these bear the proof that it is difficult to draw a definite line between full words and form words. O. Jespersen : suggests that adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections should be called particles. He sees a parallel in the relation between an adverb and a preposition and the relation between intransitive and a transitive verb. According to his statement there is the same difference between the verbs in He sings, He plays and He sings a song, He plays the piano. "Yet in spite of these differences in verb no one assigns them to  different part of speech. Therefore why we should assign to different parts of speech words like on and since.  Put your cap on (adv.)  Put your cap on your head (preposition); and  I have not seen her since (adv.)  I have not seen her since I arrived (preposition)  Because of these facts they may be termed by one word, i.e. "Particles".  Function Words – 1  Some words in English have no inflectional or derivational ending. They are simply tools for putting other words together. They perform a function in the system – outside the system they have little or no meaning whatever. These words fall into categories determined only on the basis of their position in grammatical structures they enter into. They are referred to by the collective term function words. The categories of function words are often called closed classes because new ones are rarely, ever, added to them. The list of function words in English is firmly established. The relationship of function words to form class is often linked to that of mortar and bricks. Major Categories of Function Words – 1  1. Determiners: Function words which signal noun  They never appear except when followed by a noun and invariably signal its coming: a, the, an, possessive pr-ns  2. Auxiliary verbs: have and be. Modals are subcategories.  3.Qualifiers: work with both adj. and adv.: more and most, very, quite, rather, less (intensifiers)  Function Words – 2  4. Prepositions  5. Conjunctions: work as coordination of linguistic forms of syntactic units having equal value  6. Subordinators: Connect dependent clauses and include words like: because, after, as well as relative pronouns  7. Interrogatives: Operate in the formation of questions and include words like when, where, why, how and so on: as well as – the interrogative pronouns which, what, who  **6-MAVZU. PARTS OF SENTENCE. THE MAIN PARTS AND THE SECONDARY PARTS. PHASE STRUCTURE.**  A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker’s attitude to it. The classification of simple sentences is based on two principles:   1. According to the purpose of the utterance. 2. According to the structure.   According to the purpose of the utterance we distinguish four kinds of sentences.   * 1. The declarative sentence.   2. The interrogative sentence.   There are four kinds of questions: a) General question, b) Special questions,  c) Alternative questions, d)Disjunctive questions  3. The imperative sentence.  4. The exclamatory sentence.  In a sentence we distinguish the principal parts, secondary parts and independent elements. The principal parts of a sentence are the subject and the predicate . The secondary parts are the attribute, the object and the adverbial modifier.    **7-MAVZU. SYNTAX. THE SUBJECT MATTER OF SYNTAX. LINGUISTIC RELATIONS BETWEEN WORDS.**  Plan:  1.Subject - matter of syntax  2.Syntax-minor and syntax-major  3.The types of syntactical relations  a) coordination  b) subordination  c) predication: primary and secondary predication  - the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents  a) agreement  b) government  c) collocation  - word-combinations and their types  The Subject – matter of Syntax  It has been mentioned above that the syntactic level is divided into two: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech. The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called “sentence” due to the absence of the special term. Example: “An idea of John’s writing a letter” on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.  Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.  The basic unit of syntax - minor i.e. sentence often consists of some word -groups (or word  - combinations):  The roundness of the earth is known all over the world.  1 .The sentence consists of two distinct word - combinations: "the roundness of the earth" and "is known all over the world". The same word - combinations may be used without any change in other sentences. The teacher explained the pupils the roundness of the earth. This means that word - combinations can be studied as a separate unit.  2. In utterances there may be simple sentences like "It was dark", " It be g an to rain ". Sometimes they may be joined together, depending on the intensions of the speakers, as for example:  (a) It was dark, and it began to rain.  (b) When it was dark, it began to rain.  Though the structure of constituting sentences are identical when they are joined together the structure of joined units (a) and (b) are different. This means that such units (which are traditionally called composite or compound/complex sentences) may be also studied separately.Thus syntax - minor deals with simple sentences, with a smaller unit than the simple sentence i.e. word combinations and with the bigger unit than the simple sentence - composite sentences. In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text -the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeniously for both language and speech units.  The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Word.  There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. 1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.  a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common –ing ending);  b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem “ask” is common)  2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech. Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.  Types of Syntactic Relation. One of the most important problems of syntax is the classification and criteria of distinguishing of different types of syntactical connection. L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination, predication. Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on. The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test. Example:  1) A tall boy came in.  2) A boy came in.  3) Tall came in.  This shows that the head-word is "a boy" while "tall" is adjunct, since the sentence (3) is unmarked from the English language view point. While sentence (2) is marked as it has an invariant meaning with the sentence (1).  Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:  4) Pens and pencils were purchased.  5) Pens were purchased.  6) Pencils were purchased.  Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are  independent: coordination is proved. Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.  7) He came ...  8) \*He ...  9) \* ... came or  10) I knew he had come  11) \* I knew he  12) \* I knew had come  Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.  H. Sweet distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens: and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:  13) I see him, here "him" is in the objective case-form. The transitive verbs require the personal pronouns in this case.  14) I thought of him. “him” in this sentence is governed by the preposition “of”. Thus, “see” and “of” are the words that governs while “him” is a governed word. B. Ilyish (15) also distinguishes two types of relations between words: a gree m ent by which he means "a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinated". Further he states: "the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small. It is restricted to two pronouns-this and that ..." government ("we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself-that is the difference between agreement and government")  e.g. Whom do you see  This approach is very close to Sweet's conception.  E. Kruisinga (36) considers two types of word-groups: close and loose.  I. Close group - when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. There may be verb groups like running quickly, to hear a noise and nouns groups: King Edward, my book  II. Loose group - when each element is comparatively independent of the other members: men and woman; strict but just and so on.  Thus, if we choose the terms suggested by Barkhudarov L.S., then we may say all grammarians mentioned here are unanimous as to the existence in English the subordination and coordination bonds. In addition to these two bonds Barkhudarov adds the predication. So when speaking on the types of syntactic connections in English we shall mean the three bonds mentioned.As one can see that when speaking about syntactic relations between words we mention the terms coordination, subordination, predication, agreement and government. It seems that it is very important to differenciate the first three terms (coordination, subordination and predication) from the terms agreement and government, because the first three terms define the types of syntactical relations from the standpoint of dependence of the components while the second ones define the syntactic relations from the point of view of the correspondence of the grammatical forms of their components. Agreement and government deals with only subordination and has nothing to do with coordination and predication. Besides agreement and government there is one more type of syntactical relations which may be called collocation when head and adjunct words are connected with each-other not by formal grammatical means (as it is the case with agreement and government but by means of mere collocation, by the order of words and by their meaning as for example: fast food, great day, sat silently and so on).  **8-MAVZU. SENTENCE. TYPES OF SENTENCE. SENTENCE STRUCTURE. SIMPLE SENTENCE.**  Plan:  1.Definition of sentence  2.The types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements  3.The problem of one-member sentences  4. The problem of elliptical sentences  There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.  Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.  «Предложение – минимальная синтаксическая конструкция, используемая в актах речевой коммуникации, характеризующаяся предикативностью и реализующая определенную структурную схему»  “The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose”. The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: “The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition” “A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it. “В отличие от слова или словосочетания, которые выражают лишь различные понятия, предложения выражают относительно законченные мысли и тем самым используются как единицы общения между людьми; произнося (или изображая на письме) предложения, люди что-то сообщают, выясняют, побуждают друг другу к выполнению действия.  The train moved out of the city.  Are you ready?  Put down the book.  Для того чтобы сообщение о том или ином факте, явлении был полным, законченным, требуется указать каким образом данный факт, явление, событие и т.д. относится к реальной действительности, существует ли оно на самом деле или же мыслится как возможное предполагаемое, воображаемое, необходимое и т.д., т.е. необходимо выразить модальность сообщения. Модальность непременно имеется в любом предложении». «Важнейшим средством грамматического оформления предложения является законченность интонации». Thus, concluding the above mentioned conceptions, we can say that in any act of communication there are three factors: 1. The act of speech;  2. The speaker;  3. Reality (as viewed by the speaker).  B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya state that these factors are variable since they change with every act of speech. They may be viewed from two viewpoints: 1) from the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts of communication 2) they are variable because they change in every act of speech.  Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person and reality. The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation is expressed by certain grammatical and lexical means. Any act of communication presupposes existence of the speaker and the hearer. The meaning of person is expressed by the category of person of verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexico-grammatically by words: I, you, he... Reality is treated differently by the speaker and this attitude of the speaker is expressed by the category of mood in verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexically (may, must, probably...) According to the same authors the three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity. Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it. Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity. Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the predication.  My father used to make nets and sell them.  My mother kept a little day-school for the girls.  Nobody wants a baby to cry.  A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world. You might say, it’s a room filled with love. Thus, by sentence we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary predication and that has a certain intonation pattern.  The Types of Sentences  There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some of them. B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles:  1) types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative.  2) according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types of sentences: simple and composite.  Ch. Fries gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into Communicative and Non-communicative.  The Communicative utterances are in their turn divided into 3 groups:  I. Utterances regularly eliciting “oral” responses only:  A) Greetings. B) Calls. C) Questions.  II. Utterances regularly eliciting "action" responses, sometimes accompanied by one of a limited list of oral responses: requests or commands.  III. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse statements.  L. Barkhudarov (3) compares source (kernel) sentences with their transforms, he distinguishes several types of sentences from their structural view-point. His classification will represent binary oppositions where the unmarked member is the source kernel sentence and marked one is the transformed sentence.  The most important oppositions within the limits of simple sentences are the following two:  1. Imperative (request) and non-imperative sentences.  2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.  Summarizing the issue about the classification of sentences in the English language, we can say that this can be done from different points of view. But the most important criteria so are as follows: 1. the criterion of the structure of sentences  2. the criterion of the aim of the speaker  3. the criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.  From the point of view of the first criterion sentences fall under two subtypes: simple and composite. The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one.  According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker sentences fall under declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence we differentiate elliptical and non-elliptical sentences. Below we shall consider these types of sentence.  Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker.  The declarative sentences: This type of sentence may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin (kernel sentences).  - they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.  - they usually have the falling an intonation  - usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.  Interrogative Sentence  Interrogative sentences differ from the declarative or interrogative ones by some their specific features. There are two structural types of interrogative sentences in Modern English - general questions (yes- or no- questions) and special (or wh-) questions. Both of them are characterized by having partial inversion.  Are we staying here?  Where are we staying?  Besides, the first one has a special (rising) intonation pattern. The second one (wh-question) has interrogative words. But the intonation pattern of wh-questions is identical with that of the affirmative sentences. And it is important to point out that the interrogative sentences require answers (if they are not rhetorical ones).  Exclamatory Sentence.  The peculiar features of these sentences are:  1. exclamatory sentences usually express some sort of emotion, feeling or the spirit of the person who pronounces it;  2. in their structure they have such introductory words as what and how:  Ex. What a lovely night! How beautiful it is here!  3. they are always in the declarative form;  4. there’s usually no inversion;  5. they are pronounced with a falling intonation;  Imperative Sentences  The imperative sentences are opposed to non-imperative ones because.  1. In imperative sentences the predicate is used in only one form-in the imperative one, while in non-imperative sentences predicate may be used in any form except the imperative.  2. In imperative sentences no modal verb is used.  3. The imperative sentences are most often directed to the second person.  4. The subject of the imperative sentences are almost always represented by the zero alternant of you, that is, elliptically.  5. The imperative sentences urge the listener to perform an action or verbal response.  The above said is quite sufficient to characterize the structure of imperative sentences to be specific and distinct from that of the structure of non-imperative sentences. Elliptical Sentences  The problem of elliptical sentences has been and still is one of the most important and at  the same time difficult problems of syntax.The problem is solved by different linguists in different way. According to H. Kruisinga's concept “Any noun that is used to call a person may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word. Some words regularly form a sentence, such as “yes” or “no”'; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be alone to form a complete sentence, but again in connection with another sentence only...”As we stated above elliptical sentences are also the result of transformation of kernel sentences. Since transforms are derived from kernel sentences they must be considered in connection with the latter. L. Barkhudarov looks upon the sentences like «Вечер», «Утро» and so on as two-member sentences. Really, if we isolate such utterances from the language system it will not be divisible. If an investigator wants to be objective he cannot neglect the language system. Any unit of any language is in interdependence of the other units of the language. Since the overwhelming majority of sentences are two-member ones as e.g. «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the above-mentioned utterances are also two-member ones. In sentences «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the predicates are expressed explicitly, while in «Вечер», «Утро» the predicates are expressed by zero alternants of the verb «быть». M. Blokh is conception is very close to this .The classification of elliptical sentences may be based on the way of their explication. By explication we understand the replacement of the zero alternant of this or that word by the explicit one. There are two kinds of explication:1. Syntagmatically restored elliptical sentences - when the explicit alternant of the elliptical sentence is found in the same context where the elliptical sentence is:One was from Maine; the other from California.  If you have no idea where Clive might be, I certainly haven't. (Nancy Buckingam).  2. Paradigmatically restored elliptical sentence - when the explicit alternant of the zero form is not found in the context where the ellipsis is used but when it is found in similar language constructions, e.g.  Stop and speak to me. (Galsworthy)  You listen to me, Horace. (Steinback)  One -member Sentence  “A sentence is the expression of a self- contained and complete thought”. Quite often the terms are applied to linguistic forms lack completeness in one or more respects. It will of course be readily agreed that sentences like “All that glitters is not gold” and “Two multiplied by two are four”, are formally and notionally complete and self-contained. But in everyday intercourse utterances of this type are infrequent in comparison with the enormous number which rely upon the situation or upon the linguistic context - to make their intention clear. In the extract Strove asked him if he had seen Strickland. “He is ill”, he said. “Didn’t you know?” – “Seriously?” – “Very, I understand”, to Fries “Seriously” is a sentence - equivalent. They all seem to be a complete communication. But it can not be denied that each of them, either through pronouns (he, him) or through omissions, depend heavily on what has been said immediately before it is spoken; in fact the last three would be unthinkable outside a linguistic context. Properly speaking, therefore, omissions must be said to effect connection between sentences.Sentences with syntactic items left out are natural, for omissions are inherent in the very use of language. “In all speech activities there are three things to be distinguished: expression, suppression, and impression. Expression is what the speaker gives, suppression is what the speaker does not give, though he might have given it, and impression is what the hearer receives”. Grammarians have often touched upon omissions of parts of sentences. But it is difficult to find an opinion which is shared by the majority of linguists. When considering the types of sentences some grammarians recognize the existence of two-member, one-member and elliptical sentences. The two-member sentences are sentences which have the subject and the predicate. However, language is a phenomenon where one cannot foresay the structure of it without detailed analysis. There are sentences which cannot be described in terms of two-member sentences. We come across to sentences which do not contain both the subject and the predicate. “There's usually one primary part and the other could not even be supplied, at least not without a violent change of the structure of the sentence", (llyish) Fire! Night.  Come on!  As Ilyish puts it, it is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not be termed subject in some case (as in Fire! Night...) or predicate in some other (Come on!; Why not stay here?) There are grammarians who keep to such a conception. Russian Academician V.V. Vinogradov considers that grammatical subject and predicate are correlative notions and that the terms lose their meaning outside their relation to each other. He suggests the term “main part”.  Thus, one member sentence is a sentence which has no separate subject and predicate but one main only instead. B. Ilyish (15) considers some types of such sentences:  1) with main part of noun (in stage directions);  Night. A lady's bed-chamber ... .  2) Imperative sentences with no subject of the action mentioned:  Come down, please.  Infinitive sentences are also considered to be one special type of one-member sentences. In these sentences the main part is expressed by an infinitive. Such sentences are usually emotional:  Oh, to be in a forest in May!  Why not go there immediately?  B.A. Ilyish states that these sentences should not be considered as elliptical ones, since sentences like:Why should not we go there immediately? - is stylistically different from the original one. By elliptical sentence he means sentence with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context.  **9-MAVZU. COMPOUND SENTENCE. COMPLEX SENTENCE. COMPOSITE SENTENCE.**  Plan:  1.The difference between simple and composite sentences  2.The types of composite sentences:  a) compound  d) complex  c) mixed (compound-complex) sentences  The word "composite" is used by H. Poutsma (39) as a common term for both the compound and complex sentences. There are three types of composite sentences in Modern English:  1. The compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses with no dependent one.  2. The complex sentence contains one dependent clause and one or more independent clauses. The latter usually tells something about the main clause and is used as a part of speech or as a part of sentence. J. The compound-complex sentence combines the two previous types. The compound-complex sentences are those which have at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause in its structure: Blair found herself smiling at him and she took the letter he held out to her.That there are three types of composite sentences in languages is contemporary approach to this issue. Historically not all the grammarians were unanimous in this respect. According to it H. Sweet there are structurally two types of sentences: simple and complex. “Two or more sentences may be joined together to form a single complex sentence … In every complex there is one independent clause, called the principal clause together with at least one dependent clause, which stands in the relation of adjunct to the principal clause. The dependent clause may be either coordinate or subordinate”.  Examples:  Principal clause  1. You shall walk, and I will ride.  Coordinate clause  Co-complex  Principal clause  2. You are the man I want.  Subordinate clause  Sub-complex  As one can see in H. Sweets conception there’s no place for compound sentences since even so-called “co-complex” there’s subordination. In this paper we shall classify the composite sentences into three types as has been mentioned above.  Compound Sentences  The compound sentence was not felt to be a sentence proper. There were at least three methods, as L. Iophic and Chahoyan state, employed by the grammarians to find a way out of this difficulty: (1) to explain it away by the complete independence and the possibility of isolating each member of a compound sentence without any change of its meaning or intonation; by employing new terms to express more exactly the grammatical peculiarity of this combination of sentences. The terms “double”, “triple” and “multiple” sentences were used by E. Kruisinga in “A Hand-book of Present day English” and H.R. Stokoe (41). (3) by excluding this concept from the structural classification of sentences. The analysis of compound sentences show that clauses of a compound sentence are usually connected more closely than independent sentences. According to M. Blokh “in these sentences the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i.e. equipotent” (p.296). But more close examination of these type of sentences shows that:  1. The order of clauses is fixed.  1.1. He came at six and we had dinner together.  1.2. The two women understood one another very well, but Paul seemed to be left outside this conversation.  1.3. Every drawer in every room had been taken out, the contents spilled, the bed had been ripped apart, pictures were off their hooks and (they) were lying on the floor. One cannot change order of the clauses in these sentences.  2. Between clauses of compound sentences there exist certain semantic relations. And these relations are defined by conjunctions and connectives:  2.1. Harmony or agreement (copulative relation):  Her lips trembled and she put up her hand as if to steady them with her fingers.  2.2. Contrast or opposition. This relation is usually expressed by adversative conjunctions but, yet: The conjunctions are not numerous but they are of very frequent occurrence. 2.3. The choice or alternation (disjunctive conjunction- or): Is that historically true or is it not?  2.4. Reason or consequence (or conclusion) for, so... E.g.  He had apparently been working, for the table was littered with papers.  There's no car available, so I shall go on foot.  Complex Sentence.  Linguists explain the complex sentences as units of unequal rank, one being categorically dominated by the other. In terms of the positional structure of the sentence it means that by subordination one of the clauses (subordinate) is placed in a dependent position of the other (principal). This latter characteristic has an essential semantic implication clarifying the difference between the two types, of polypredication in question. As a matter of fact, a subordinate clause, however important the information rendered by it might be for the whole communication, presents it as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause, i.e. as something completely premeditated and prepared even before its explicit expression in the utterance .  The Types of Complex Sentences  The subordinate clauses are classified according to the two criteria: meaning and combinability. The clauses of a complex sentence form the unity, a simple sentence in which some part is replaced by a clause.The subject clauses are used in the function of a primary part of the sentence. The peculiarity of the subject clause is its inseparability from the principal clause. It is synsemantic; it can't be cut off from the rest of the sentence.  What he says is true.  The predicative clause fulfills the function of the notional predicate (the function of the predicative).  e.g. The thing is what we should do the next.  The Adverbial clauses serve to express a variety of adverbial relations: action quality. Mike acted as though nothing had happened.  Everybody should love her as he did.  Some more complex sentences:  What the newspapers say may be false (subject clause).  I don't remember what his name is. (object)  He thought that it might well be. (object)  The lot that is on the corner needs moving. (attributive)  He is a man whom I have always admired. (attributive)  When Bill decided to leave, everyone expressed regret. (adverbial clause of time)  **10-MAVZU. INDIRECT AND REPRESENTED SPEECH.**   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | |  |  | | --- | --- | |  |  |   There are three ways of reproducing actual speech: a) repetition of the exact utterance as it was spoken *(direct speech),*b) con­version of the exact utterance into the relater's mode of expression *(indirect speech),*c) representation of the actual utterance by a second person, usually the author, as if it had been spoken, whereas it has not really been spoken but is only represented in the author's words *(represented speech).* There is a device which conveys to the reader the unuttered or inner speech of the character, presenting his thoughts and feelings. This device is termed represented speech. The representation of the actual utterance through the author's language is called *uttered repre­sented speech,*and the representation of the thoughts and feelings of the character -*unuttered*or *inner represented speech.*The term *direct speech*is used to distinguish the words of the character from the author's words. Direct speech is a quotation. It is in­troduced by a verb like *say, utter, declare, reply, exclaim, shout, cry, yell, gasp, babble, chuckle, murmur, sigh, call, beg, implore, comfort, assure, protest, object, command, admit*. All these words help to indicate the intonation with which the sentence was actually uttered Direct speech is always marked by inverted commas, as any quotation: "You want your money back, I suppose," *said*George with a sneer "Of course I do—I always did, didn't I? - *says*Dobbin. Direct speech is used in the publicistic style as a quotation. The introductory words in this case are usually the follow­ing: *as... has it, according to..*.. It is used to depict a character through his speech. We have *indirect speech*when the actual words of a character pass through the author's mouth in the course of his narrative and undergo certain changes. The intonation of indirect speech does not differ from the rest of the author's narrative. "Marshal asked the crowd to disperse and urged responsible diggers to prevent any disturbance which would prolong the tragic force of the rush for which the publication of inaccurate information was chiefly responsible." There are rules according to which direct speech can be converted into indirect. They indicate what changes must be introduced into the utterance due to change in the situation. Thus the sentence: "Your mother wants you to go upstairs immediately" corresponds to "Tell him to come upstairs immediately. "When direct speech is converted into indirect, the author not interprets in his own way the manner in which the direct speech was uttered. Indirect speech does not reproduce the actual emotional colouring of the direct speech and may distort it unrecogniza­bly. In order to convey the actual utterances of characters in emotive prose, a new way to re­present direct speech came into being— *represented speech.* Represented speech is form of utterance which conveys the actual words of the speaker through the mouth of the writer but retains the pecu­liarities of the speaker's mode of expression. Represented speech exists in two varieties: 1) **uttered represented speech** and 2) **unuttered or inner represented speech.** **Uttered Represented Speech** *Uttered represented speech*demands that the tense should be switched from present to past and that the personal pronouns should be changed from 1st and 2nd person to 3rd person as in indirect speech, but the syntactical structure of the utterance does not change. *"Could he*bring a reference from where he now Bias? *He could,"* "A maid came in now with a blue gown very thick and soft. *Could she do anything for Miss Freeland? No, thanks, she could not, only, did she know where Mr. Freeland's room was?”* This manner of inserting uttered represented speech within the au­thor's narrative is not common. "His heart was, besides, almost broken already; and his spirits were so sunk, that he could say nothing for himself but acknowledge the whole, and, like a criminal in despair, threw himself upon mercy; concluding, 'that though he must own himself guilty of many follies and inadvertencies, he hoped he had done nothing to deserve what would be to him the greatest punishment in the world.'" Here again the introductory 'concluding' does not bring forth direct speech but is a natural continuation of the author's narrative. The only indication of the change is the inverted commas. | |

**3-modul.Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi**

**1-MAVZU. LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE**

1. **The object of Lexicology**
2. **The theoretical and practical value of english lexicology**

**3.The connection of lexicology with phonetics, stylistics, grammar and other branches of linguistics**

Lexicology (from Gr *lexis* ‘word’ and *logos* ‘learning’) is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language. The term v o c a b u l a-r y is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. The term word denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word therefore is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

Thus, in the word *boy* the group of sounds [bOI] is associated with the meaning ‘a male child up to the age of 17 or 18’ (also with some other meanings, but this is the most frequent) and with a definite grammatical employment, i.e. it is a noun and thus has a plural form — *boys,* it is a personal noun and has the Genitive form *boy’s* (e. g. *the boy’s mother),* it may be used in certain syntactic functions.

The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as general lexicology. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally referred to as language universals. Special lexicology devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language.

It goes without saying that every special lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology, and the latter forms a part of general linguistics. Much material that holds good for any language is therefore also included, especially with reference to principles, concepts and terms. The illustrative examples are everywhere drawn from the English language as spoken in Great Britain.

A great deal has been written in recent years to provide a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described. This relatively new branch of study is called contrastive lexicology. Most obviously, we shall be particularly concerned with comparing English and Russian words.

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements, forms the object of historical lexicology or etymology. This branch of linguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, and investigates the linguistic and extra-linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. In the past historical treatment was always combined with the comparative method. Historical lexicology has been criticised for its atomistic approach, i.e. for treating every word as an individual and isolated unit. This drawback is, however, not intrinsic to the science itself. Historical study of words is not necessarily atomistic. In the light of recent investigations it becomes clear that there is no reason why historical lexicology cannot survey the evolution of a vocabulary as an adaptive system, showing its change and development in the course of time.

Descriptive lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system. The descriptive lexicology of the English language deals with the English word in its morphological and semantical structures, investigating the interdependence between these two aspects. These structures are identified and distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of their elements.

It will, for instance, contrast the word *boy* with its derivatives: *boyhood, boyish, boyishly,* etc. It will describe its semantic structure comprising alongside with its most frequent meaning, such variants as ‘a son of any age’, ‘a male servant’, and observe its syntactic functioning and combining possibilities. This word, for instance, can be also used vocatively in such combinations as *old boy, my dear boy,* and attributively, meaning ‘male’, as in *boy-friend.*

Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.

Meaning relations as a whole are dealt with in semantics — the study of meaning which is relevant both for lexicology and grammar.

The distinction between the two basically different ways in which language may be viewed, the historical or diachronic (Gr *dia* ‘through’ and *chronos* ‘time’) and the descriptive or synchronic (Gr *syn* ‘together’, ‘with’), is a methodological distinction, a difference of approach, artificially separating for the purpose of study what in real language is inseparable, because actually every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development. The distinction between a synchronic and a diachronic approach is due to the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913).1 Indebted as we are to him for this important dichotomy, we cannot accept either his axiom that synchronic linguistics is concerned with systems and diachronic linguistics with single units or the rigorous separation between the two. Subsequent investigations have shown the possibility and the necessity of introducing the historical point of view into systematic studies of languages.

Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops together with the development of society, therefore language and its vocabulary must be studied in the light of social history. Every new phenomenon in human society and in human activity in general, which is of any importance for communication, finds a reflection in vocabulary. A word, through its meaning rendering some notion, is a generalised reflection of reality; it is therefore impossible to understand its development if one is ignorant of the changes in social, political or everyday life, production or science, manners or culture it serves to reflect. These extra-linguistic forces influencing the development of words are considered in historical lexicology.

Although the important distinction between a diachronic and a synchronic, a linguistic and an extralinguistic approach must always be borne in mind, yet it is of paramount importance for the student to take into consideration that in language reality all the aspects are interdependent and cannot be understood one without the other. Every linguistic investigation must strike a reasonable balance between them.

**2. The theoretical and practical value of English lexicology**

The importance of English lexicology is based not on the size of its vocabulary, however big it is, but on the fact that at present it is the world’s most widely used language. One of the most fundamental works on the English language of the present — “A Grammar of Contemporary English” by R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik (1978) — gives the following data: it is spoken as a native language by nearly three hundred million people in Britain, the United States, Ireland, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and some other countries. The knowledge of English is widely spread geographically — it is in fact used in all continents. It is also spoken in many countries as a second language and used in official and business activities there. This is the case in India, Pakistan and many other former British colonies. English is also one of the working languages of the United Nations and the universal language of international aviation. More than a half world’s scientific literature is published in English and 60% of the world’s radio broadcasts are in English. For all these reasons it is widely studied all over the world as a foreign language.

The theoretical value of lexicology becomes obvious if we realise that it forms the study of one of the three main aspects of language, i.e. its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system. The theory of meaning was originally developed within the limits of philosophical science. The relationship between the name and the thing named has in the course of history constituted one of the key questions in gnostic theories and therefore in the struggle of materialistic and idealistic trends. The idealistic point of view assumes that the earlier forms of words disclose their real correct meaning, and that originally language was created by some superior reason so that later changes of any kind are looked upon as distortions and corruption.

The materialistic approach considers the origin, development and current use of words as depending upon the needs of social communication. The dialectics of its growth is determined by its interaction with the development of human practice and mind. Words serve as names for things, actions, qualities, etc. and by their modification become better adapted to the needs of the speakers. This proves the fallacy of one of the characteristic trends in modern idealistic linguistics, the so-called Sapir-Whorf thesis according to which the linguistic system of one’s native language not only expresses one’s thoughts but also determines them. This view is incorrect, because our mind reflects the surrounding world not only through language but also directly.

Lexicology came into being to meet the demands of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of lexicography, standardisation of terminology, information retrieval, literary criticism and especially of foreign language teaching.

Its importance in training a would-be teacher of languages is of a quite special character and cannot be overestimated as it helps to stimulate a systematic approach to the facts of vocabulary and an organised comparison of the foreign and native language. It is particularly useful in building up the learner’s vocabulary by an effective selection, grouping and analysis of new words. New words are better remembered if they are given not at random but organised in thematic groups, word-families, synonymic series, etc.

A good knowledge of the system of word-formation furnishes a tool helping the student to guess and retain in his memory the meaning of new words on the basis of their motivation and by comparing and contrasting them with the previously learned elements and patterns.

The knowledge, for instance, of the meaning of negative, reversative and pejorative prefixes and patterns of derivation may be helpful in understanding new words. For example such words as *immovable* a, *deforestation* n and *miscalculate* v will be readily understood as ‘that cannot be moved’, ‘clearing land from forests’ and ‘to calculate wrongly’.

By drawing his pupils’ attention to the combining characteristics of words the teacher will prevent many mistakes.1 It will be word-groups falling into patterns, instead of lists of unrelated items, that will be presented in the classroom.

A working knowledge and understanding of functional styles and stylistic synonyms is indispensable when literary texts are used as a basis for acquiring oral skills, for analytical reading, discussing fiction and translation. Lexicology not only gives a systematic description of the present make-up of the vocabulary, but also helps students to master characteristics or distribution — structural patterns in which the words occur and their lexical collocations. the literary standards of word usage. The correct use of words is an important counterpart of expressive and effective speech.

An exact knowledge of the vocabulary system is also necessary in connection with technical teaching means.

Lexicology plays a prominent part in the general linguistic training of every philologist by summing up the knowledge acquired during all his years at the foreign language faculty. It also imparts the necessary skills of using different kinds of dictionaries and reference books, and prepares for future independent work on increasing and improving one’s vocabulary.

**3. The connection of lexicology with phonetics, stylistics, grammar and other branches of linguistics**

The treatment of words in lexicology cannot be divorced from the study of all the other elements in the language system to which words belong. It should be always borne in mind that in reality, in the actual process of communication, all these elements are interdependent and stand in definite relations to one another. We separate them for convenience of study, and yet to separate them for analysis is pointless, unless we are afterwards able to put them back together to achieve a synthesis and see their interdependence and development in the language system as a whole.

The word, as it has already been stated, is studied in several branches of linguistics and not in lexicology only, and the latter, in its turn, is closely connected with general linguistics, the history of the language, phonetics, stylistics, grammar and such new branches of our science as sociolinguistics, paralinguistics, pragmalinguistics and some others.1

The importance of the connection between lexicology and phonetics stands explained if we remember that a word is an association of a given group of sounds with a given meaning, so that *top* is one word, and *tip* is another. Phonemes have no meaning of their own but they serve to distinguish between meanings. Their function is building up morphemes, and it is on the level of morphemes that the form-meaning unity is introduced into language. We may say therefore that phonemes participate in signification.

Word-unity is conditioned by a number of phonological features. Phonemes follow each other in a fixed sequence so that [pit] is different from [tip]. The importance of the phonemic make-up may be revealed by the substitution test which isolates the central phoneme of *hope* by setting it against *hop, hoop, heap* or *hip.*

An accidental or jocular transposition of the initial sounds of two or more words, the so-called spoonerisms illustrate the same

Pragmalinguistics — the branch of linguistics concerned with the relation of speech and its users and the influence of speech upon listeners.

Discrimination between the words may be based upon stress: the word ‘*import* is recognised as a noun and distinguished from the verb *im'port* due to the position of stress. Stress also distinguishes compounds from otherwise homonymous word-groups: ‘*blackbird : :* ‘*black* ‘*bird.* Each language also possesses certain phonological features marking word-limits.

Historical phonetics and historical phonology can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy. When sound changes loosen the ties between members of the same word-family, this is an important factor in facilitating semantic changes.

The words *whole, heal, hail,* for instance, are etymologically related.2 The word *whole* originally meant ‘unharmed’, ;unwounded’. The early verb *whole* meant 4to make whole’, hence ‘heal’. Its sense of ‘healthy’ led to its use as a salutation, as in *hail!* Having in the course of historical development lost their phonetic similarity, these words cannot now exercise any restrictive influence upon one another’s semantic development. Thus, *hail* occurs now in the meaning of ‘call’, even with the purpose to stop and arrest (used by sentinels).

Meaning in its turn is indispensable to phonemic analysis because to establish the phonemic difference between [ou] and [o] it is sufficient to know that [houp] means something different from [hop].

All these considerations are not meant to be in any way exhaustive, they can only give a general idea of the possible interdependence of the two branches of linguistics.

Stylistics, although from a different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, connotations, synonymy, functional differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues. For a reader without some awareness of the connotations and history of words, the images hidden in their root and their stylistic properties, a substantial part of the meaning of a literary text, whether prosaic or poetic, may be lost.

Thus, for instance, the mood of despair in O. Wilde’s poem “Taedium Vitae” (Weariness of Life) is felt due to an accumulation of epithets expressed by words with negative, derogatory connotations, such as: *desperate, paltry, gaudy, base, lackeyed, slanderous, lowliest, meanest.*

An awareness of all the characteristic features of words is not only rewarded because one can feel the effect of hidden connotations and imagery, but because without it one cannot grasp the whole essence of the message the poem has to convey.

The difference and interconnection between grammar and lexicology is one of the important controversial issues in linguistics and as it is basic to the problems under discussion in this book, it is necessary to dwell upon it a little more than has been done for phonetics and stylistics.

A close connection between lexicology and grammar is conditioned by the manifold and inseverable ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexico-grammatical characteristics of the word class to which they belong. Words seldom occur in isolation. They are arranged in certain patterns conveying the relations between the things for which they stand, therefore alongside with their lexical meaning they possess some grammatical meaning. Сf. *head of the committee* and *to head a committee.*

The two kinds of meaning are often interdependent. That is to say, certain grammatical functions and meanings are possible only for the words whose lexical meaning makes them fit for these functions, and, on the other hand, some lexical meanings in some words occur only in definite grammatical functions and forms and in definite grammatical patterns.

For example, the functions of a link verb with a predicative expressed by an adjective cannot be fulfilled by every intransitive verb but are often taken up by verbs of motion: *come true, fall ill, go wrong, turn red, run dry* and other similar combinations all render the meaning of ‘become sth’. The function is of long standing in English and can be illustrated by a line from A. Pope who, protesting against blank verse, wrote: *It is not poetry, but prose run mad.1*

On the other hand the grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. A well-known example is the same verb *go* when in the continuous tenses, followed by *to* and an infinitive (except *go* and *come),* it serves to express an action in the near and immediate future, or an intention of future action: *You're not going to sit there saying nothing all the evening, both of you, are you?* (Simpson)

Participle II of the same verb following the link verb *be* denotes absence: *The house is gone.*

In subordinate clauses after *as* the verb *go* implies comparison with the average: ... *how a novel that has now had a fairly long life, as novels go, has come to be written* (Maugham). The subject of the verb *go* in this construction is as a rule an inanimate noun.

The adjective *hard* followed by the infinitive of any verb means ‘difficult’: *One of the hardest things to remember is that a man’s merit in one sphere is no guarantee of his merit in another.*

Lexical meanings in the above cases are said to be grammatically conditioned, and their indicating context is called syntactic or mixed. The point has attracted the attention of many authors.1

The number of words in each language being very great, any lexical meaning has a much lower probability of occurrence than grammatical meanings and therefore carries the greatest amount of information in any discourse determining what the sentence is about.

W. Chafe, whose influence in the present-day semantic syntax is quite considerable, points out the many constraints which limit the co-occurrence of words. He considers the verb as of paramount importance in sentence semantic structure, and argues that it is the verb that dictates the presence and character of the noun as its subject or object. Thus, the verbs *frighten, amuse* and *awaken* can have only animate nouns as their objects.

The constraint is even narrower if we take the verbs *say, talk* or *think* for which only animate human subjects are possible. It is obvious that not all animate nouns are human.

This view is, however, if not mistaken, at least one-sided, because the opposite is also true: it may happen that the same verb changes its meaning, when used with personal (human) names and with names of objects. Compare: *The new girl gave him a strange smile* (she smiled at him) and *The new teeth gave him a strange smile.*

These are by no means the only relations of vocabulary and grammar. We shall not attempt to enumerate all the possible problems. Let us turn now to another point of interest, namely the survival of two grammatically equivalent forms of the same word when they help to distinguish between its lexical meanings. Some nouns, for instance, have two separate plurals, one keeping the etymological plural form, and the other with the usual English ending *-s.* For example, the form *brothers* is used to express the family relationship, whereas the old form *brethren* survives in ecclesiastical usage or serves to indicate the members of some club or society; the scientific plural of *index,* is usually *indices,* in more general senses the plural is *indexes.* The plural of *genius* meaning a person of exceptional intellect is *geniuses, genius* in the sense of evil or good spirit has the plural form *genii.*

The ties between lexicology and grammar are particularly strong in the sphere of word-formation which before lexicology became a separate branch of linguistics had even been considered as part of grammar. The characteristic features of English word-building, the morphological structure of the English word are dependent upon the peculiarity of the English grammatical system. The analytical character of the language is largely responsible for the wide spread of conversion1 and for the remarkable flexibility of the vocabulary manifest in the ease with which many nonce-words2 are formed on the spur of the moment.

This brief account of the interdependence between the two important parts of linguistics must suffice for the present. In future we shall have to return to the problem and treat some parts of it more extensively.

**2-MAVZU. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AS A VOCABULARY SYSTEM**

**1. Ways of enriching vocabulary**

**2. The classification of the English vocabulary**

**- Morphological grouping**

**- Thematic and ideographic groups**

**- Terminological systems**

**- Different types of non-semantic groupings.**

**1. Ways of enriching vocabulary**

By the *vocabulary* of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for vocabulary is the stock of words.

The vocabulary of the language is not homogeneous (однородный). It is and adaptive system constantly adjusting itself to the changing conditions of human communication and cultural surroundings.

The number of words in a language is not constant and the increase is usually greater than the leak out (утечка). This process may be obtained (получен) by it results that is neologisms (1rd).

Productive word formation patterns are the most effective means of enreaching vocabulary:

1) Affixation (electronics, psycho-linguistics)

2) Conversion (a sputnik – to sputnik). It is a process of forming new words by the changing the part of speech without any morphemic changes.

3) Back-derivation (to laze from lazy). With morphemic changes.

4) Shortening (laboratory - lab). By reducing (cutting) part of a word.

Third. Semantic extension of words (приобретение словом ещё одного значения) is a powerful source of enreaching a vocabulary. It consists in splitting (расщепление) of polysemy (многозначность) that results in appearance of new vocabulary units (homonyms). “Heel – the traitor (хитрец) has lost all connections with the heel – the back part of human feel.”

Fourth. Borrowing – is active only in the field of scientific terminology. “Blitzkrieg, protein). In the course of time it is accepted into the words stock of the language and being often used it stops to be considered new or else it may not be accepted and vanish from the vocabulary.

When we consider the lexical system of a language as an adaptive system developing for many centuries. We have to contrast the innovations with words that dropped from the language (Obsolete words – устаревшие) or survive only in special contexts (archaisms and historisms). Archaisms are words that were once common but now are replaced by synonyms (betwixt is replaced between).

When the thing named is no longer used its name become a historism (Phaeton – фаэтон-автомобиль)

**2. The classification of the English vocabulary.**

1. Morphological and lexico-grammatical grouping:

On the morphological level the words are subdivided into 4 groups according to their morphological structure (the number and type of morphemes which compose (составлять, образовывать) them):

a) Root words (ex. Dog, hand) состоящая из 1 корня

b) Derivatives (производные(Handy, handful)

c) Compound words (ex. Handball, handbag)

d) Compound dericatives (Left-handed) (помимо 2 корней ещё и суффиксы)

Another type of traditional lexical grouping is word families (этимологически родственные слова). The words are grouped here according to the root-morpheme (Handy, handsome, handicraft) , according to the common suffix or prefix (troublesome, gladsome, gruesome).

Thematic and ideographic groups. The basis of thematic grouping is not only linguistic (that is words belong to the same part of speech) but also extra linguistic (that means that the words are associated because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality, (Ex. Thematic – color terms, military terms and medical terms)

All the elements of thematic groups remain within the limits of the same part of speech. When grammatical meaning is not taken into consideration we obtain the so-called ideographic groups. Words are classed here according to their signification that is the system of logical notions (ex. Light (noun), bright (adj), shine (verb) are united into one ideographic group as they are all connected with a notion of light. (Слова в идеографической не принадлежат к одной част речи, но связаны с каким-то одним феноменом).

Third classification, Terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part of every language vocabulary. Terms are words or word groups used to name a notion, characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture. These words (terms) are monosemantic, have no contextual meaning and are free from emotional coloring, Terms are not separates from the rest of vocabulary. With the development of civilization many special notions become known to the layman (обыватель) and form part and parcel (неотъемлемая часть) of everyday speech. (vitamin, computer).

Fourth classification. Different types of non-semantic groupings. The simplest non-semantic grouping is the alphabetical organization of written words. It is of great practical value as it is the most universal way of searching for the necessary word, but its theoretical value is almost null because no property of the word can be predicted from the letter the word begins with.

The rhyming group contain the words arranged according to the similarity of their ends. Such dictionaries are intended mostly for poets.

It’s based on the length of words. There’s a number of words they contain, It may be useful for communication, engineering, automatic reading of messages and correction of mistakes.

Next group is based on a statistical analysis of frequency of words. These figures show important correlations (взаимосвязь) between quantitative and qualitative characteristic of lexical units.

**English vocabulary as a system**  
Learning objectives: after you have studied the lecture you should be able:  
1. To define vocabulary as a system.  
2. To speak about: a) morphological grouping;  
b) lexico-grammatical grouping  
c) thematic and ideographic organization;  
d)synonymic grouping (including antonyms).  
3. To describe the notion of semantic field, including terminology.  
Literature to be studied:  
1. Seminars in English lexicology. By Mednikova, pp. 51-53.  
2. A course in Modern English lexicology. By Ginzburg R. and others.  
3. The English Word. By Arnold I.V. pp. 199-213.

Some foreign scholars claim that in contrast to Grammar, the vocabulary of a language is not systematic, but *chaotic.*  
 In Russian linguistics lexicology exists as an independent discipline, as a part of the curriculum in our Universities. Russian lexicologists have worked out a comprehensive review of different types of word-groupings suggested in modern linguistics, both in the country and abroad. A short *survey*of formal and semantic types of groupings with a word-stock will help you in obtaining an idea of the lexical system in general.  
 *One of the earliest*and most obvious non-semantic grouping is the alphabetical organization of the word-stock, which is represented in most dictionaries. It is of great practical value in the search for the necessary word, but its theoretical value is almost *null,*because no other property of the word can be predicted from the letter or letters the word begins with.  
 **Morphological groupings.**  
 On the morphological level words are divided into four groups according to their morphological structure:  
1) *root*or *morpheme words*(dog, hand);  
2) *derivatives,*which contain no less than two morphemes (dogged (ynpямый), doggedly; handy, handful);  
3) *compound words*consisting of not less than two free morphemes (dog-cheap-"very cheap", dog-days - "hottest part of the year"; handbook, handball)  
4) *compound derivatives*(dog-legged - "crooked or bent like a dog's hind leg", left-handed).  
 This grouping is considered to be the basis for lexicology.  
 *Another type*of traditional lexicological grouping as known as *word-families*such as: hand, handy, handicraft, handbag, handball, handful, hand-made,handsome, etc.

A very important type of non-semantic grouping for isolated lexical units is based on a statistical analysis of their frequency. Frequency counts carried out for practical purposes of lexicology, language teaching and shorthand show important correlations between quantative and qualitative characteristics of lexical units, the most frequent words being polysemantic and stylistically neutral. The frequency analysis singles out two classes:  
1) *notional words;*  
*2) form (or functional) words.*  
 Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word-stock, according to the recent counts given for the first 1000 most frequently occurring words they make up 93% of the total number.  
 All notional lexical units are traditionally subdivided into parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. Nouns numerically make the largest class - about 39% of all notional words; verbs come second - 25% of words; they are followed by adjectives - 17% and adverbs - 12%.  
 *Form or functional words -*the remaining 7% of the total vocabulary - are prepositions, articles, conjunctions, which primarily denote various relations between notional words. Their grammatical meaning dominates over their lexical meaning. They make a specific group of about 150 units.   
 **Lexico-grammatical grouping.**  
 By a lexico-grammatical group we understand a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, a common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possibly a characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning.  
 Lexico-grammatical groups should not be confused with parts of speech. For instance, *audience*and *honesty*belong to the same part of speech but to different lexico-grammatical groups because their lexico-grammatical meaning is different.  
 **Common Denominator of Meaning, Semantic Fields.**  
 Words may also be classified according to the concepts underlying their meaning. This classification is closely connected with the theory *of semantic fields.*By the term "semantic fields" we understand closely knit sectors of vocabulary each characterized by a common concept. The words *blue, red, yellow, black,*etc. may be described as making up the semantic field of colours, the words *mother, father, sister, cousin,*etc. - as members of the semantic field of kinship terms, the words joy, *happiness, gaiety, enjoyment,*etc. as belonging to the field of pleasurable emotions, and so on.  
 The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component - the concept of colours or the concept of kinship, etc. This semantic component common to all members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning. All members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and determine the meaning of its neighbours and is semantically delimited and determined by them. It follows that the word meaning is to a great extent determined by the place it occupies in its semantic field.  
 It is argued that we cannot possibly know the exact meaning of the word if we do not know the structure of the semantic field to which the word belongs, the number of the members and the concepts covered by them, etc. The meaning of the word *captain,*e.g. cannot be properly understood until we know the semantic field in which this term operates - *the army, the navy,*or *the merchant service.*It follows that the meaning of the word *captain*is determined by the place it occupies among the terms of the relevant rank system. In other words we know what *captain*means only if we know whether his subordinate is called *mate or first officer*(merchant service), *commander*(navy) or *lieutenant*(army).  
 Semantic dependence of the word on the structure of me field may be also illustrated by comparing members of analogous conceptual fields in different languages. Comparing, e.g. kinship terms in Russian and in English we observe that the meaning of the English term *mother-in-law*is different from either the Russian *тёща* or *свекровь,*as the English term covers the whole area which in Russian is divided between the two words. The same is true of the members of the semantic field of colours (cf. *blue -*синий, голубой), of human body (cf. *hand, arm -*рука) and others.  
 The theory of semantic field is severely criticized by Soviet linguists mainly on philosophical grounds as some of the proponents of the semantic-field theory hold the idealistic view that language is a kind of self-contained entity standing between man and the world of reality (Zwischenwelt). The followers of this theory argue that semantic fields reveal the fact that human experience is analysed and elaborated in a unique way, differing from one language to another. Broadly speaking they assert that people speaking different languages actually have different concepts, as it is through language that we see the real world around us. In short, they deny the primacy of matter forgetting that our concepts are formed not only through linguistic experience, but primarily through our actual contact with the real world. We know what *hot*means not only because we know the word *hot,*but also because we burn our fingers when we touch something very hot. A detailed critical analysis of the theory of semantic fields is the subject-matter of general linguists. Here we are concerned with the theory only as a means of semantic classification of vocabulary items.  
 Two more points should be discussed in this connection. Firstly, semantic groups may be very extensive and may cover big conceptual areas, e.g. *man-universe,*etc. There may be, however, comparatively small lexical groups of words linked by a common denominator of meaning. The words *bread, cheese, milk, meat,*etc. make up the semantic field with the concept of food as the common denominator of meaning. Such smaller lexical groups seem to play a very important role in determining individual meanings of polysemantic words in lexical contexts. Analysing polysemantic verbs we see that the verb *take,*e.g. in combination with the lexical group denoting means of transportation is synonymous with the verb *go (take the tram, the bus,*etc.). When combined with members of another lexical group possessing another semantic denominator, the same verb is synonymous with *to drink (to take tea, coffee,*etc.). Such word-groups are often used not only in scientific lexicological analysis, but also in practical class-room teaching. In a number of textbooks we find words with some common denominator of meaning listed under the headings *Flower, Fruit, Domestic Animals,*and so on.  
 In other words **lexical**or **semantic field**is the organization of related words and expressions into a system which shows their relationship to one another.  
 For example, kinship terms such as father, mother, sister, brother, uncle, aunt belong to a lexical field whose relevant features include generation, sex, membership of the father's or mother's side of the family, etc.  
 The absence of a word in a particular place in a lexical field of a language is called a **lexical gap.**  
 For example, in English there is no singular noun that covers both cow and bull as hoarse covers stallion and mare.  
 **Common Contextual Associations. Thematic Groups**.  
 Another type of classification almost universally used in practical class-room teaching is known as *thematic grouping.*Classification of vocabulary items into thematic groups is based on the *co-occurrence*of words in certain repeatedly used contexts.  
 In linguistic contexts co-occurrence may be observed on different levels. On the level of word-groups the word *question,*e.g., is often found in collocation with the verbs *raise, put forward, discuss,*etc., with the adjectives *urgent, vital, disputable*and so on. The verb *accept*occurs in numerous contexts together with the nouns *proposal, invitation, plan*and others.  
 As a rule, thematic groups deal with contexts on the level of the sentence (or utterance). Words in thematic groups are joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking words, e.g. *tree-grow-green; journey-train-taxi-bags-ticket or sun-shine-brightly-blue-sky,*is due to the regular co-occurrence of these words in similar sentences. Unlike members of synonymic sets or semantic fields, words making up a thematic group belong to different parts of speech and do not possess any common denominator of meaning.  
 Contextual associations formed by the speaker of a language are usually conditioned by the context of situation which necessitates the use of certain words. When watching a play, e.g., we naturally speak of the actors who act the main parts, of good (or bad) staging of the play, of the wonderful scenery and so on. When we go shopping it is usual to speak of the prices, of the goods we buy, of the shops, etc. *(In practical language learning thematic groups are often listed under various headings, e.g. At the Theatre, At School, Shopping, and are often found in text-books and courses of conversational English).*  
 **Thematic and ideographic organization of a vocabulary**.  
 It is a further subdivision within the lexico-grammatical grouping. The basis of grouping is not only *linguistic*but also extra-linguistic. The words are associated because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality, e.g., terms *of kinship.*Names of parts of the human body, colour terms, etc.  
 *The ideographic groupings*are independent of classification into parts of speech, as grammatical meaning is not taken into consideration. Words and expressions are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e. to their system of logical notions. These subgroups may compare nouns, verbs adjectives and adverbs together, provided they refer to the same notion. Under alphabetical order the words which in the human mind go close together (father, brother, uncle, etc.) are placed in various parts of a dictionary. So, some lexicographers place such groups of lexical units in the company they usually keep in every day life, in our minds. These dictionaries are called ideographical or ideological.  
 *Synonymic grouping*is a special case of lexico-grammatical grouping based on semantic proximity of words belonging to the same part of speech. Taking up similarity of meaning and contrasts of phonetic shape we observe that every language in its vocabulary has a variety of words kindred (родственный) or similar in meaning but distinct in morphemic composition, phonetic shape and usage. These words express the most delicate shades of thought, feelings and are explained in the dictionaries of synonyms.  
 *Antonyms*have been traditionally defined as words of opposite meaning. Their distinction from synonyms is semantic polarity. The English language is rich in synonyms and antonyms, their study reveals the systematic character of the English vocabulary.  
 Special terminology.  
 Sharply defined extensive semantic fields are found in terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part of every language vocabulary. A *term*is a word or word-group used to name a notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, e.g., linguistics, cybernetics, industry, culture, informatics. Almost every system of terms is nowadays fixed and analyzed in numerous special dictionaries of the English language. *?*  
 Hyponymy (включение).  
 Another type of paradigmatic relation is *hyponymy.*The notion of hyponymy is traditional enough; it has been long recognized as one of the main-principles in the organization of the vocabulary off all languages. For instance, *animal*is a *generic*term as compared to the *specific*names: wolf, dog, mouse. Dog, in its tern, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as bull-dog, collie, poodle.  
 In other words, this type of relationship means the "inclusion" of a more specific term in a more general term, which has been established by some scientists in terms of logic of classes\*. For example, the meaning of *tulips*is said to be included in the meaning of "flower", and so on.  
 So, the *word-stock*is not only a sum total of all the words of a language, but a very complicated set of various relationships between different groupings, layers, between the vocabulary as a whole and isolated individual lexical units.

**3-MA’RUZA. THE ETYMOLOGY OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY**

**1. Words of native origin and their characteristics**

**2. Ways of borrowing into English**

**3. Criteria and assimilation of borrowings**

**4. Special type of borrowings**

**1. Words of native origin and their characteristics**

The native element of the English Vocabulary is composed of words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the fifth century by the Germanic tribes (племена): the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, and some words coined (образован) in English later.

They are subdivided into:

1. Words of the Indo-European stock;

2. Words of the common Germanic stock;

3. English words proper

The words having parallels in the vocabularies of different Indo-European languages form the oldest layer. Ex. English – star, German – Stern, Latin – Stella, Greek – Aster.

The words of Indo-European stock (IES) fall into definite semantic group:

1. Terms of kingship (родства): father, mother, daughter.

2. Natural phenomena (Sun, Moon, star, wind, storm)

3. Names of animals and birds (horse, goose)

4. Parts of human body (heart, eye)

5. Qualities and properties (old, young, cold)

6. Common actions (come, sit, stand)

A much bigger part of the native vocabulary is formed by words of the common Germanic stock, that is words having parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, and Icelandic. Ex. En: Summer and winter – Germ: Sommer/Winter)

The English elements proper is specifically English having no cognates in other languages. Ex. Lady, always, girl, lord, daisy, boy.

**2. Ways of borrowing into English**.

A loan word or a borrowing is a words taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language..

Borrowings can enter the languages in 2 ways:

1. Through oral speech (by immediate contact between peoples)

2. Through written speech (by indirect contact through books)

Oral borrowings took place mainly in the early periods of history (old borrowings from Latin: inch, mill, street). They are usually short and undergo more changes in the act of adoption.

Written speech (French belles-lettres) – preserve their spelling, They are often rather long and their assimilation is a laborious process.

**3. Criteria and assimilation of borrowings**

The criteria of borrowings are:

1. Certain pronunciation and spelling (psychology – Greek, machine – French)

2. Unusual morphological structure and grammatical forms (ex. Pl. bacteria Sg. Bacterium – Latin)

3. Specific lexical meaning (ex,. Pagoda, rickshaw – Chinese)

Borrowed words are assimilated in 3 main ways:

1. Phonetic assimilation comprising changes in the sound, form and stress (ударение). Ex. Germ. Spitz / English Spitz.

2. Grammatical assimilation causing the loss of former grammatical categories and affixes and the acquirement (приобретение) of new paradigms (ex. Latin – Botanicus was turned into English Botanical)

3. Semantic assimilation comprising adjustment (приспособление) to the system of meaning of the vocabulary (ex. Gay was borrowed from French with several meaning noble of birth, bright shining, multicolored. Now it means joyful or high-spirited.

According to the degree of assimilation loan words fall into 3 groups:

1. Completely assimilated words that follow all morphological, phonological and orthographical standards of the receiving language (French ‘pain’ is readily combined with native affixes ‘pained, painful, painless)

2. Partially assimilated words:

- Not assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to a certain country (ex. Sombrero)

- Not assimilated grammatically (ex. Borrowings from Lating/Greek: formula/ae)

- Not assimilated phonetically (prestige, memoir – French)

- Not assimilated graphically (ex. The final silent ‘t’ in ballet – French)

3. Barbarisms – words from other languages used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way for which there are corresponding English equivalents (ex. Chaos, adios).

**4. Special types of borrowings**.

The changes which a loan word had to undergo depending on the date of its penetration are the main cause for the existence of the so-called etymological doublets.

Etymological doublets are pairs of words, which have one and the same original form, but which have acquired different forms and even different meaning during the course of linguistic development. (ex. The words shirt and skirt etymologically descend from the same root. Shirt is a native words, skirt is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonetic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance (сходство), which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: they both denote articles of clothing.

Words of identical origin can accrue in several languages as the result of simultaneous or successive (последовательный) borrowings from one ultimate source, these words are called international words (ex., gene, antibiotic).

Alongside (наряду) loan words proper we distinguish translation loans and semantic loans.

Translation loans are words borrowed not in the same phonemic shape they have been functioned in their own language, but after undergoing the process of translation (ex., wall newspaper from Russian стенная газета)

The semantic loan denotes the development of a new meaning in an English word due to the influence of a related word in another language.

**4-MA’RUZA. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORDS**

**1. The morphological structure of a word. Morphemes. Types of morphemes. Allomorphs.**

**2. Structural types of words.**

**3. Principles of morphemic analysis.**

**4. Derivational level of analysis. Stems. Types of stems. Derivational types of words.**

**1. The morphological structure of a word. Morphemes. Types of Morphemes.  Allomorphs.**

There are two levels of approach to the study of **word- structure**: the level of **morphemic analysis** and the level of **derivational**or word-formation analysis.Word is the principal and basic unit of the language system, the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis. It has been universally acknowledged that a great many words have a composite nature and are made up of morphemes, the basic units on the morphemic level, which are defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language units.

The term **morpheme** is derived from **Greek morphe** “form ”+ **-eme**. The Greek suffix **–eme** has been adopted by linguistic to denote the smallest unit or the minimum **distinctive feature**.The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. A form in these cases a recurring discrete unit of speech. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of single morpheme. Even a cursory examination of the morphemic structure of English words reveals that they are composed of morphemes of different types: root-morphemes and affixational morphemes. Words that consist of a root and an affix are called derived words or derivatives and are produced by the process of word building known as affixation (or derivation).

**The root-morpheme** is the lexical nucleus of the word; it has a very general and abstract lexical meaning common to a set of semantically related words constituting one word-cluster, e.g. (to)**teach, teacher, teaching**. Besides the lexical meaning root-morphemes possess all other types of meaning proper to morphemes except the part-of-speech meaning which is not found in roots.**Affixational morphemes** include inflectional affixes or inflections and derivational affixes.

**Inflections** carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms.

**Derivational affixes** are relevant for building various types of words. They are lexically always dependent on the root which they modify. They possess the same types of meaning as found in roots, but unlike root-morphemes most of them have the part-of-speech meaning which makes them structurally the important part of the word as they condition the lexico-grammatical class the word belongs to. Due to this component of their meaning the derivational affixes are classified into affixes building different parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs. Roots and derivational affixes are generally easily distinguished and the difference between them is clearly felt as, e.g., in the words **helpless, handy, blackness, Londoner, refill**, etc.: the root-morphemes **help-, hand-, black-, London-, fill-,** are understood as the lexical centers of the words, and *–****less, -y,      -ness, -er, re-***are felt as morphemes dependent on these roots.  Distinction is also made of free and bound morphemes.

**Free morphemes** coincide with word-forms of independently functioning words. It is obvious that free morphemes can be found only among roots, so the morpheme **boy-** in the word **boy** is a free morpheme; in the word **undesirable** there is only one free morpheme **desire-**; the word **pen-holder** has two free morphemes **pen-**and **hold-**. It follows that **bound morphemes** are those that do not coincide with separate word- forms, consequently all derivational morphemes, such as ***–ness, -able, -er*** are bound. Root-morphemes may be both free and bound. The morphemes**theor-** in the words **theory, theoretical,**or **horr-** in the words**horror, horrible, horrify; Angl-**in **Anglo-Saxon; Afr-** in **Afro-Asian** are all bound roots as there are no identical word-forms.It should also be noted that morphemes may have different phonemic shapes. In the word-cluster **please** **, pleasing** **, pleasure** **, pleasant** the phonemic shapes of the word stand in complementary distribution or in alternation with each other. All the representations of the given morpheme, that manifest alternation are called**allomorphs**/or morphemic variants/ of that morpheme.The combining form allo- from Greek allos “other” is used in linguistic terminology to denote elements of a group whose members together consistute a structural unit of the language (allophones, allomorphs). Thus, for example, **-ion/ -tion/ -sion/ -ation** are the positional variants of the same suffix, they do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. They are considered as variants of one and the same morpheme and called its **allomorphs**.

**Allomorph** is defined as a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and so characterized by complementary description.

**Complementary distribution**is said to take place, when two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment.Different morphemes are characterized by **contrastive distribution**, i.e. if they occur in the same environment they signal different meanings. The suffixes –**able** and **–ed**, for instance, are different morphemes, not allomorphs, because adjectives in **–able** mean “ capable of beings”.Allomorphs will also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initials of the stem with which they will assimilate.Two or more sound forms of a stem existing under conditions of complementary distribution may also be regarded as allomorphs, as, for instance, in long **a**: length **n**.

**2. Structural types of words**.

The morphological analysis of word- structure on the morphemic level aims at splitting the word into its constituent morphemes – the basic units at this level of analysis – and at determining their number and types. The four types (root words, derived words, compound, shortenings) represent the main structural types of Modern English words, and conversion, derivation and composition the most productive ways of word building. According to the number of morphemes words can be classified into **monomorphic** and **polymorphic**.

**Monomorphic** or **root-words** consist of only one root-morpheme, e.g. **small, dog, make, give,** etc. All polymorphic word fall into two subgroups: **derived words**and **compound words** – according to the number of root-morphemes they have. Derived words are composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes, e.g. **accept**able, out**do**, dis**agree**able, etc. Compound words are those which contain at least two root-morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant. There can be both root- and derivational morphemes in compounds as in **pen-holder, light-mindedness**, or only root-morphemes as in **lamp-shade, eye-ball**, etc.

These structural types are not of equal importance. The clue to the correct understanding of their comparative value lies in a careful consideration of: 1)the importance of each type in the existing wordstock, and 2) their frequency value in actual speech. Frequency is by far the most important factor. According to the available word counts made in different parts of speech, we find that derived words numerically constitute the largest class of words in the existing wordstock; derived nouns comprise approximately 67% of the total number, adjectives about 86%, whereas compound nouns make about 15% and adjectives about 4%. Root words come to 18% in nouns, i.e. a trifle more than the number of compound words; adjectives root words come to approximately 12%.But we cannot fail to perceive that root-words occupy a predominant place. In English, according to the recent frequency counts, about 60% of the total number of nouns and 62% of the total number of adjectives in current use are root-words. Of the total number of adjectives and nouns, derived words comprise about 38% and 37% respectively while compound words comprise an insignificant 2% in nouns and 0.2% in adjectives. Thus it is the root-words that constitute the foundation and the backbone of the vocabulary and that are of paramount importance in speech. It should also be mentioned that root words are characterized by a high degree of collocability and a complex variety of meanings in contrast with words of other structural types whose semantic structures are much poorer. Root- words also serve as parent forms for all types of derived and compound words.

**3. Principles of morphemic analysis.**

In most cases the morphemic structure of words is transparent enough and individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word. The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of **Immediate**and **Ultimate Constituents**.

This method is based on the binary principle, i.e. each stage of the procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents. Each Immediate Constituent at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to Ultimate Constituents. A synchronic morphological analysis is most effectively accomplished by the procedure known as the analysis into Immediate Constituents. ICs are the two meaningful parts forming a large linguistic unity. The method is based on the fact that a word characterized by morphological divisibility is involved in certain structural correlations. To sum up: as we break the word we obtain at any level only ICs one of which is the stem of the given word. All the time the analysis is based on the patterns characteristic of the English vocabulary. As a pattern showing the interdependence of all the constituents segregated at various stages, we obtain the following formula: **un+ { [ ( gent- + -le ) + -man ] + -ly}** Breaking a word into its Immediate Constituents we observe in each cut the structural order of the constituents .A  diagram presenting the four cuts described looks as follows: **1.    un- / gentlemanly2.    un- / gentleman / – ly3.    un- / gentle / – man / – ly4.    un- / gentl / – e / – man / – ly**A similar analysis on the word-formation level showing not only the morphemic constituents of the word but also the structural pattern on which it is built. The analysis of word-structure at the morphemic level must proceed to the stage of Ultimate Constituents. For example, the noun friendliness is first segmented into the ICs: [frendlı-] recurring in the adjectives**friendly-**looking and friendly and [-nıs] found in a countless number of nouns, such as **unhappiness, blackness, sameness,** etc. the IC [-nıs] is at the same time an UC of the word, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning. Any further division of ***–ness***would give individual speech-sounds which denote nothing by themselves. The IC [frendlı-] is next broken into the ICs [-lı] and [frend-] which are both UCs of the word. Morphemic analysis under the method of Ultimate Constituents may be carried out on the basis of two principles: the so-called**root-principle** and **affix principle**.

According to the affix principle the splitting of the word into its constituent morphemes is based on the identification of the affix within a set of words, e.g. the identification of the suffix ***–er***leads to the segmentation of words **singer, teacher, swimmer**into the derivational morpheme **– *er***and the roots **teach- , sing-, drive-.**According to the root-principle, the segmentation of the word is based on the identification of the root-morpheme in a word-cluster, for example the identification of the root-morpheme **agree-** in the words **agreeable, agreement, disagree.**

As a rule, the application of these principles is sufficient for the morphemic segmentation of words.However, the morphemic structure of words in a number of cases defies such analysis, as it is not always so transparent and simple as in the cases mentioned above. Sometimes not only the segmentation of words into morphemes, but the recognition of certain sound-clusters as morphemes become doubtful which naturally affects the classification of words. In words like **retain, detain, contain** or**receive, deceive, conceive, perceive** the sound-clusters [rı-], [dı-] seem to be singled quite easily, on the other hand, they undoubtedly have nothing in common with the phonetically identical prefixes  ***re-, de-***as found in words **re-write, re-organize, de-organize, de-code**. Moreover, neither the sound-cluster [rı-] or [dı-], nor the [-teın] or [-sı:v] possess any lexical or functional meaning of their own. Yet, these sound-clusters are felt as having a certain meaning because [rı-] distinguishes **retain**from **detain** and [-teın] distinguishes **retain**from **receive**.It follows that all these sound-clusters have a differential and a certain distributional meaning as their order arrangement point to the affixal status of ***re-, de-, con-, per-***and makes one understand -**tain**and –**ceive**as roots.

The differential and distributional meanings seem to give sufficient ground to recognize these sound-clusters as morphemes, but as they lack lexical meaning of their own, they are set apart from all other types of morphemes and are known in linguistic literature as pseudo- morphemes. Pseudo- morphemes of the same kind  are also encountered in words like **rusty-fusty.**

**4.  Derivational level of analysis. Stems. Types of Stems. Derivational types of word.**

The morphemic analysis of words only defines the constituent morphemes, determining their types and their meaning but does not reveal the hierarchy of the morphemes comprising the word. Words are no mere sum totals of morpheme, the latter reveal a definite, sometimes very complex interrelation. Morphemes are arranged according to certain rules, the arrangement differing in various types of words and particular groups within the same types. The pattern of morpheme arrangement underlies the classification of words into different types and enables one to understand how new words appear in the language. These relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words are known as **derivative or word- formation relations**.

The analysis of derivative relations aims at establishing a correlation between different types and the structural patterns words are built on. The basic unit at the derivational level is the **stem**.**The** **stem** is defined as that part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm, thus the stem which appears in the paradigm (to) **ask** ( ), **asks, asked, asking**is **ask-;**thestem of the word **singer**( ), **singer’s, singers, singers’**is **singer-.** It is the stem of the word that takes the inflections which shape the word grammatically as one or another part of speech. The structure of stems should be described in terms of IC’s analysis, which at this level aims at establishing the patterns of typical derivative relations within the stem and the derivative correlation between stems of different types. There are three types of stems: simple, derived and compound.

**Simple stems**are semantically non-motivated and do not constitute a pattern on analogy with which new stems may be modeled. Simple stems are generally monomorphic and phonetically identical with the root morpheme. The derivational structure of stems does not always coincide with the result of morphemic analysis. Comparison proves that not all morphemes relevant at the morphemic level are relevant at the derivational level of analysis. It follows that bound morphemes and all types of pseudo- morphemes are irrelevant to the derivational structure of stems as they do not meet requirements of double opposition and derivative interrelations. So the stem of such words as **retain, receive, horrible, pocket, motion,**etc. should be regarded as simple, non- motivated stems.

**Derived stems**are built on stems of various structures though which they are motivated, i.e. derived stems are understood on the basis  of the derivative relations between their IC’s and the correlated stems. The derived stems are mostly polymorphic in which case the segmentation results only in one IC that is itself a stem, the other IC being necessarily a derivational affix. Derived stems are not necessarily polymorphic.

**Compound stems**are made up of two IC’s, both of which are themselves stems, for example **match-box, driving-suit, pen-holder,** etc. It is built by joining of two stems, one of which is simple, the other derived.In more complex cases the result of the analysis at the two levels sometimes seems even to contracted one another.**The derivational types of words** are classified according to the structure of their stems into **simple, derived** and**compound** words.

Derived words are those composed of one root- morpheme and one or more derivational morpheme.

Compound words contain at least two root- morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant.

**Derivational compound**is a word formed by a simultaneous process of composition and derivational. **Compound words** **proper** are formed by joining together stems of word already available in the language.

**5-MA`RUZA. SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD. CHANGES IN SEMANTIC STRUCTURE**

**1.The problem of word meaning**

**2. The main semantic processes**

**1.The problem of word meaning**

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

There are different approaches to the problem of word meaning: 1) The **referential**, or **denotational approach** is characterized by the thought that (тем что) the essence (суть) of meaning lies in the interconnection and interdependence between: the word as the sound form, the referent, and the concept. Here **meaning** is the realization of the concept/notion by means of a definite language system. 2)The **functional**, or **contextual approach** is characterized by the idea that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. Thus, **meaning** is understood as the function of linguistic signs, or their use in context.

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

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

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

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

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

The **main component of L.m**. are:

1. the **denotational meaning** of words is the same for all the speakers. It is the realization of the concept by means of the given language.
2. The **pragmatic aspect** of l.m. is the part of meaning, that conveys information on the situation of communication: information on the ‘time and space’ relationship of the participants, information on the participants in the given language community, information on the register of communication.
3. The **connotational meaning** conveys the speaker’s attitude toward what he is speaking about. There are 4 main types of connotations: a) The **emotional**connotation expresses human emotions and feelings (e.g. daddy, father); b) The **evaluative** connotation expresses approval or disapproval (e.g. agent and spy, planning and scheming=planning secretly); c) The **intensifying** connotation adds emphasis (усиление) to the meaning. (e.g. enormous, huge, tremendous=very); d) The **stylistic** connotation determines the functional speech style characteristic of the word usage (dad-father-parent; colloquial-neutral-bookish).

**Polysemy** is the abbility of a word to have more than one m-g. The causes of the development of polysemy in Eng. are:1) the great amount of monosyllabic root words; 2) an abundance of words of long duration, which in the course of time were used to express more new m-gs thus becoming highly polysemantic. Monosemantic words, i.e. words which have only one m-g form. They are mostly names of birds (blackbird, swallow), animals (walrus, weasel), fishes (ruff, perch) & special terms (systole, phoneme). The bulk of Eng. words are polysemantic, i.e. they have several m-gs. The m-g in speech is contextual. In a definite context any polysemantic word expresses only one m-g. A word in one of its m-g in which it is used in speech is called a lexico-semantic variant of a word. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word presents a set of interrelated & interdependent lexico-semantic variants. WE distinguish on the synchronic level: - the basic (major) & the minor; - the central & the marginal; -direct & transferred(figurative); -. Every LSV is connected with the major m-g due to the existence of the common semantic components/ semes. The seme is the smallest further indivisible unit of m-g, the smallest un it of the plan of content. The analysis of the m-g into these components, or semes, is called the **componential analysis**.

So far we have been discussing the concept of meaning, different types of word-meanings and the changes they undergo in the course of the historical development of the English language. When analysing the wordmeaning we observe, however, that words as a rule are not units of a single meaning. Monosemantic words, i.e. words having only one meaning are comparatively few in number, these are mainly scientific terms, such –as hydrogen, molecule and the like. The bulk of English words are p o l y s e m a n t i c , that is to say possess more than one meaning.

The actual number of meanings of the commonly used words ranges from

five to about a hundred. In fact, the commoner the word the more meanings it has.

The word table, e.g., has at least nine meanings in Modern English: 1. a piece of furniture; 2. the persons seated at a table; 3. *sing.* the food put on a table, meals; 4. a thin flat piece of stone, metal, wood, etc.; 5. *pl.* slabs of stone; 6. words cut into them or written on them (the ten tables); 2 7. an orderly arrangement of facts, figures, etc.; 8. part of a machine-tool on which the work is put to be operated on; 9. a level area, a plateau. Each of the individual meanings can be described in terms of the types of meanings discussed above. We may, e.g., analyse the eighth meaning of the word table into the part-of-speech meaning — that of the noun (which presupposes the grammatical meanings of number and case) combined with the lexical meaning made up of two components The denotational semantic component which can be interpreted as the dictionary definition (part of a machine-tool on which the work is put) and the connotational component which can be identified as a specific stylistic reference of this particular meaning of the word table (technical terminology). Cf. the Russian *планшайба, стол станка.*

In polysemantic words, however, we are faced not with the problem of analysis of individual meanings, but primarily with the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word.

If polysemy is viewed diachronically, it is understood as the growth and development of or, in general, as a change in the semantic structure of the word. Polysemy in diachronic terms implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones. Then the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be roughly formulated as follows: did the word always possess all its meanings or did some of them appear earlier than the others? are the new meanings dependent on the meanings already existing? and if so what is the nature of this dependence? can we observe any changes in the arrangement of the meanings? and so on. In the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemantic word table we find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary meaning is ‘a flat slab of stone or wood’, which is proper to the word in the Old English period (*OE*. tabule from *L.* tabula); all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later than the primary meaning, The terms s e c o n d a r y and d e r i v e d meaning are to a certain extent synonymous. When we describe the meaning of the word as “secondary” we imply that it could not have appeared before the primary meaning was in existence. When we refer to the meaning as “derived” we imply not only that, but also that it is dependent on the primary meaning and somehow subordinate to it. In the case of the word table, e.g., we may say that the meaning ‘the food put on the table’ is a secondary meaning as it is derived from the meaning ‘a piece of furniture (on which meals are laid out)’.

It follows that the main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word. Polysemy may also arise from homonymy. When two words become identical in sound-form, the meanings of the two words are felt as making

up one semantic structure. Thus, the human ear and the ear of corn are from the diachronic point of view two homonyms. One is etymologically related to *L.* auris, the other to *L.* acus, aceris. Synchronically, however, they are perceived as two meanings of one and the same word. The ear of corn is felt to be a metaphor of the usual type (cf. the eye of the needle, the foot of the mountain) and consequently as one of the derived or, synchronically, minor meanings of the polysemantic word ear.1 Cases 1 In dictionaries ear *(L.* auris) and ear *(L.* acus, aceris) are usually treated as two homonymous words as dictionary compilers as a rule go by etymological criterion.

The words of different languages which are similar or identical in lexical meaning, especially in the denotational meani ng a r e t er med c o r r e l a t e d w o r d s. The wording of the habitual question of English learners, e.g. “What is the English for *стол?”,* and the answer “The English for *стол* is ‘table'” also shows that we take the words table *стол* to be correlated. Semantic correlation.

**2. The main semantic processes**.

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

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

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

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

**6-MA`RUZA. Homonyms. The sources of homonyms. The classification of homonyms**

**1. Definition of homonyms**

**2. Classifications of homonyms**

**3. Sources of homonymy**

**1 . Definition of homonyms**

Homonyms are words identical in sound and spelling or at least in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning and distribution. The term is derived from Greek (homos – the same, onoma – name, i.e. the same name combined with the difference of meaning.

E.g. bank: 1) a shore, a river bank; 2) a financial institution;

Ball: 1) any spherical body; 2) a large dancing party.

Homonyms exist in many languages but in English this language phenomenon is especially frequent, mostly in monosyllabic words (nearly 90 % of homonyms).

**2.Classifications of homonyms**

The most widely accepted classification is that recognising homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.   
 Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling (back, ball, bark).   
 Homophones are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning (air- heir, arms- alms- милостыня, buy- by).   
 Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but identical in spelling (bow - [bou], [bau]).   
 According to Prof. Smirnitsky homonyms fall into: full homonyms and partial homonyms. Full homonyms are words representing the same category of parts of speech and having the same paradigm (match - game match - a stick for burning smth.).   
 Partial are subdivided into:   
 - simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms ( belong to one part of speech, there's one identical form in a paradigm which is never the same form. (to found- to establish; found - Past indefinite from to find) .   
 - complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms ( different part of speech, one identical form in a paradigm) (rose(n) - rose (v))  
 - partial lexical homonyms ( of the same part of speech identical only in their corresponding forms) to lie (lay, lain) , to lie (lied, lied) to can (canned, canned)   
can ( could )  
 The third classification is based on the similarity of the paradigms (grammatical forms each homonym possesses). E.g. match-matches: match – matches, such homonyms are called full. Homonyms that coincide in one or two members (not in all members) of their paradigms are called partial. E.g. to lie- lying-lied – lied : to lie-lying- lay-lain ; left : to leave-leaving-left-left.

**3. Sources of homonymy.**

There are several sources of homonymy.

1. Phonetic changes. In the course of the language development two or more words that were pronounced differently may develop identical sound form, e.g. knight-night, sea-see, write-right.
2. Borrowing. A borrowed word may duplicate in form a native word or another borrowing, e.g. write (native) – rite(Latin ritus), fair (adj, native) – fair (noun, French),bank (shore, native)-bank (institution, Italian).
3. Wordbuilding:
   1. conversion, e.g. pale-to pale, water –to water, comb-to comb;
   2. shortening, e.g. fan – fan (from fanatic), van – from vanguard and from caravan;
   3. sound imitation, e.g. bang – to bang; mew –mew- mew.
4. Splitting polysemy, e.g. board. It is difficult to establish exact criteria by which disintegration of polysemy could be detected.

The knowledge of etymology and other languages will help to supply the missing links. The imprecision of the criteria is recorded in the data of different dictionaries which often contradict each other. E.g. board is represented as two homonyms in Muller’s dictionary, as three homonyms in Arakin’s dictionary and as one polysemantic word in Hornby’s dictionary.

**7-MA`RUZA. HOMONYMY AND POLYSEMY**

**1. What is polysemy**

**2. What is homonymy**

**3. Difference between homonymy and polysemy**

**1. What is polysemy**

Polysemy and Homonymy are two similar concepts in linguistics. Both of them refer to words having multiple meanings. **Polysemy refers to the coexistence of many possible meanings for a word or phrase. Homonymy refers to the existence of two or more words having the same spelling or pronunciation but different meanings and origins.**

This is the main difference between polysemy and homonymy

**1. What is Polysemy**

Polysemy refers to words or phrases with different, but related meanings. A word becomes polysemous if it can be used to express different meanings. The difference between these meanings can be obvious or subtle. It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a word is polysemous or not because the relations between words can be vague and unclear. But, examining the origins of the words can help to decide whether a word is polysemic or homonymous.

The following sentences contain some examples of polysemy.

*He drank a glass of milk.*

*He forgot to milk the cow.*

*The enraged actor sued the newspaper.*

*He read the newspaper.*

*His cottage is near a small wood.*

*The statue was made out of a block of wood.*

*He fixed his hair.*

*They fixed a date for the wedding.*

Although the meanings of the underlined word pairs only have a subtle difference. The origins of the words are related. Such words are generally listed in dictionaries under one entry; numbers may be used to denote the subtle differences.

**2. What is Homonymy**

Homonymy refers to two unrelated words that look or sound the same. Two or more words become homonyms if they either sound the same ([homophones](http://pediaa.com/difference-between-homophones-and-homonyms/)), have the same spelling ([homographs](http://pediaa.com/difference-between-homographs-and-homophones/)), or if they both homophones and homographs, but do not have related meanings. Given below are some examples of homonyms:

Stalk

– The main stem of a herbaceous plant

– Pursue or approach stealthily

Sow

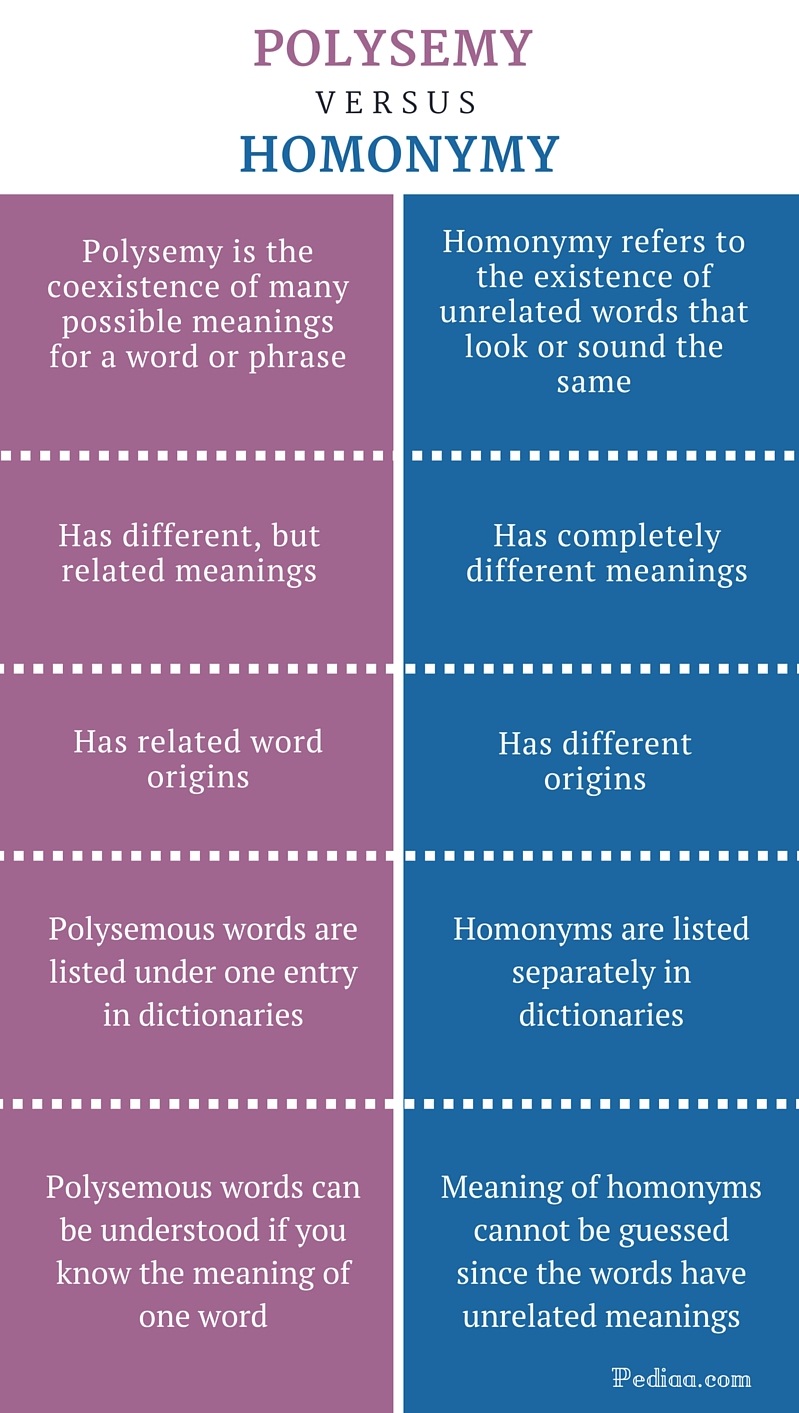
– adult female pig

– to plant seeds in a ground

The above two examples are both written and read alike; they have the same spellings and sounds. Some words do not have the same spellings, but they share same the same pronunciation. For example, *Read vs Reed, Right vs Write, Pray vs Prey.*

3. Difference between polysemy and homonymy

**Polysemous** words can be understood if you know the meaning of one word.

The meaning of **homonymous** words cannot be guessed since the words have unrelated meanings.

**8-MA`RUZA. Criteria of synonymity and classification of synonyms**

**1. Definition of synonyms**

**2. Classification of synonyms**

**3. Criteria of synonymity**

**1. Definition of synonyms**

Synonymy is one of the most controversial points in linguistics. Roughly we may say that when two or more different words are associated with the same or nearly the same denotative meaning, the words are synonyms.

Sometimes criterion of interchangeability has been applied to definition of synonyms. Accordingly, synonyms have been defined as words, which are interchangeable in at least some contexts without any considerable changes in denotative meaning. This criterion, however, has been much criticized. If all synonyms were interchangeable, they would become useless ballast in the language. Even those synonyms that seem to be interchangeable and are called total by Academician Vinogradov, still differ in their distribution, use, etc. e.g. cosmonaut is used in reference to European spacemen and astronaut – to American ones. Or offer is followed by a noun while suggest – by a gerund. So the prevailing majority of synonyms are partial.

Synonyms are united into synonymous rows. In each row there is one word, which presents a kind of centre of the group of synonyms. Its semantic structure is usually simple. This is the dominant synonym characterized by:

* high frequency of usage;
* broad combinability;
* broad general meaning;
* lack of connotations.

E.g. in the row: to look-to stare-to glare-to gaze-to peer-to peep-to glance-to glimpse-etc. the dominant synonym is the word to look.

**2. Classification of synonyms**

Synonyms can be classified as stylistic and ideographic. Stylistic synonyms differ in their stylistic connotations, e.g. father-parent-daddy; stomach-belly. Ideographic synonyms may differ in the following connotations:

* degree or intensity, e.g. to like-to admire –to live – to adore- to worship; to surprise – to astonish- to amaze- to astound;
* duration, e.g. to glance- to stare ; to say – to talk ;
* manner, e.g. to stagger – to trot – to pace – to march, etc.;
* cause, e.g. to shiver –to shudder ; to blush – to redden ;
* emotive connotation, e.g. alone – lonely;
* evaluative connotation, e.g. well-known – famous- celebrated- notorious, etc.

We can also single out contextual synonyms that are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions, e.g Go and *buy* some bread – Go and *get*some bread.

I cannot *stand* it any longer – I cannot *bear* it any longer. These words are not synonyms outside the specified contexts.

**9-MAʻRUZA. DEFINITION OF ANTONYMS. CLASSIFICATION OF ANTONYMS**

**1. Definition of antonyms**

**2. Semantic classification of antonyms**

**- contradictories**

**- contraries**

**- incompatibles**

**3. Morphological classifications of antonyms**

**1. Definition of antonyms**

**Antonyms** – a class of words grouped together on the basis of the semantic relations of opposition. Antonyms are words belonging to one part of speech sharing certain common semantic characteristics and in this respect they are similar to such semantic classes as synonyms, lexical sets, lexico-semantic groups. (**lexical sets** (предметные или тематические группы) - words denoting different things correlated on extralinguistic grounds: *lion, tiger, leopard, puma, cat* refer to the lexical set of “the animals of the cat family’; words describing different sides of one and the same general notion are united in a **lexico-semantic group**: group denoting “physical movement” – *to go, to turn, to run*). There exist different classifications of antonyms.

Structurally, antonyms can be divided into antonyms of the same root (1), e.g. *to do – to undo, cheerful – cheerless*, and antonyms of different roots (2), e.g. *day – night, rich – poor*.

**2. Semantic classification of antonyms**

Semantically, antonyms may be classified into contradictories, contraries and incompatibles.

1. **Contradictories** represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like, for example, *dead – alive, single – married*. Contradictory antonyms are mutually opposed, they deny one another. Contradictories form a privative binary opposition, they are members of two-term sets. To use one of the words is to contradict the other and to use “not” before one of them is to make it semantically equivalent to the other: *not dead = alive; not single = married*.

2. **Contraries**are antonyms that can be arranged into a series according to the increasing difference in one of their qualities. The most distant elements of this series will be classified as contrary notions. Contraries are **gradable antonyms,** they are polar members of a gradual opposition which may have intermediate members. This may be observed in *cold – hot* and *cool – warm* which are intermediate members. Thus, we may regard as antonyms not only *cold* and *hot*but also *cold* and *warm*. Contrary antonyms may also be considered in terms of degrees of the quality involved. Thus, water may be *cold*or *very cold*, and water in one glass may be *colder* than in another glass.

3. **Incompatibles** are antonyms which are characterized by the relations of exclusion. Semantic relations of incompatibility exist among antonyms with a common component of meaning and may be described as the reverse of hyponymy. For example, to say *morning* is to say *not afternoon*, *not evening, not night*. The use of one member of this set implies the exclusion of the other members of the set. Incompatibles differ from contradictories as incompatibles are members of the multiple-term sets while contradictories are members of two-term sets. A relation of incompatibility may be also observed between colour terms since the choice of *red,* for example, entails the exclusion of *black, blue, yellow*, etc.

**According to the character of semantic opposition:**

**Antonyms proper** (contrary antonyms) are antonyms which possess the following characteristics:

-they are gradable, i.e. there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set, e.g. *cold – cool – tepid – warm – hot*; *never – seldom – sometimes – often – always*;

-they are capable of comparison, e.g. *good – better – best* vs. *bad – worse – worst*;

-they can be modified by such intensifiers as *very*, *slightly*, *extremely*, *fairly*, *rather* etc., e.g. *huge – very big – BIG – quite big – medium-sized – quite small – SMALL – very small – tiny*;

-they do not deny one another, e.g. *She is not beautiful* **≠***She is ugly*;

-they refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm, e.g. *a big mouse* vs *a small elephant.*

**Contradictory antonyms** (complementary antonyms) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another, e.g. *male – female*; *married – single*; *asleep – awake*; *same – different*. Their features:

-not gradable;

-truly represent oppositeness of meaning;

-cannot be used in the comparative or superlative degree;

-the denial of one member of such antonymic opposition always implies the assertion of the other, e.g. *not dead – alive.*

**Conversive antonyms** (conversives) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles, e.g. *husband – wife*; *teacher – pupil*; *to buy – to sell*; *to lend – to borrow*; *to precede – to follow*. These antonyms are mutually dependent on each other and one item presupposes the other.

**Vectorial antonyms** (directional antonyms) are words denoting differently directed actions, features, e.g. *to rise – to fall*; *to arrive – to depart*; *to marry – to divorce*; *to learn – to forget*; *to appear – to disappear.*

**3. Morphological and semantic classifications of antonyms**.

Morphological classification of antonyms by V. N. Komissarov (*Dictionary of English Antonyms*):

**root antonyms** (absolute antonyms) are antonyms having different roots, e.g. *clean – dirty*; *late – early*; *day – night*;

**derivational antonyms**are antonyms having the same root but different affixes, e.g. *to fasten – to unfasten*; *flexible – inflexible*; *useful – useless*.

**10-MA`RUZA. SEMANTIC SYSTEM IN ENGLISH. NEOLOGISMS, ABSOLETE AND ARCHAIC WORDS**

**1. Semantic system in English**

**2. Neologisms**

**3. Obsolete words**

**4. Archaic words**

**1. Semantic system in English**

The **adaptive system approach** to vocabulary is still in its infancy, but it is already possible to hazard an interim estimate of its significance. Language as well as other adaptive systems, better studied in other branches of science, is capable of obtaining information from the extra-linguistic world and with the help of feedback makes use of it for self-optimisation. If the variation proves useful, it remains in the vocabulary. The process may be observed by its results, that is by studying new words or neologisms. New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. Sometimes a new name is introduced for a thing or notion that continues to exist, and the older name ceases to be used. The number of words in a language is therefore not constant, the increase, as a rule, more than makes up for the leak-out.

**2. Neologysms**

New words and expressions or neоlоgisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all-important and concern some social relationships, such as a new form of state, e. g. *People’s Republic,* or something threatening the very existence of humanity, like *nuclear war.* Or again the thing may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (e. g. *roll-neck).* In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing language material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones.

A **neologism** (/niːˈɒlədʒɪzəm/; is the name for a relatively new or isolated term, word, or phrase that may be in the process of entering common use, but that has not yet been accepted into mainstream language.[1][2] Neologisms are often directly attributable to a specific person, publication, period, or event. **Neolexia** ("new word", or the act of creating a new word) is a synonym. **Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language**

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meanings of old ones, e. g. *aerobic, black hole, computer, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, quasar, tape-recorder, supermarket* and so on.

As a general rule neologisms are at first clearly motivated. An exception is shown by those based on borrowings or learned coinages which, though motivated at an early stage, very soon begin to function as indivisible signs. A good example is the much used term *cybernetics* ‘study of systems of control and communication in living beings and man-made devices’ coined by Norbert Wiener from the Greek word *kyberne-tes* ‘steersman’+suffix *-ics.*

There are, however, cases when etymology of comparatively new words is obscure, as in the noun *boffin* ‘a scientist engaged in research work’ or in *gimmick* ‘a tricky device’ — an American slang word that is now often used in British English.

In the course of time the new word is accepted into the word-stock of the language and being often used ceases to be considered new, or else it may not be accepted for some reason or other and vanish from the language. The fate of neologisms is hardly predictable: some of them are short-lived, others, on the contrary, become durable as they are liked and accepted. Once accepted, they may serve as a basis for further word-formation: *gimmick, gimmickry, gimmicky. Zip* (an imitative word denoting a certain type of fastener) is hardly felt as new, but its derivatives — the verb *zip* *(zip from one place to another),* the corresponding personal noun *zipper* and the adjective *zippy* — appear to be neologisms.

**A neologism can be:**

A completely new word (e.g., oversharers)

A new combination of existing words (e.g., digital detox)

A new meaning for an existing word (e.g., sick)

**Examples of Neologisms**

The following are examples of neologisms at the time of writing (2014):

**Oversharers**: People who post too much information (which is often boring or embarrassing) about themselves on line.

**Digital Detox**: Abstaining from electronic devices to re-engage with the physical world, typically to lower stress levels.

**Sick**: Good.

**Examples of Old "Neologisms"**

The following former neologisms have been formally accepted into mainstream language (this usually means appearing in a respectable dictionary). As a result, they can no longer be classified as neologisms.

* **D'oh!**: An exclamation meaning damn (usually after a mistake by the speaker).
* **Wicked**: Good or cool.
* **To Google**: To look up information on the internet.

Note: The term "old neologism" is an [oxymoron](http://www.grammar-monster.com/glossary/oxymoron.htm) (i.e., a self-contained contradiction).

**Examples of Neologisms under Transition**

The following neologisms can be considered under transition. In other words, they are still neologisms, but it is likely they will be accepted into mainstream language soon.

* **Metrosexual**: A heterosexual man who likes the interests traditionally associated with women or homosexual men (e.g., shopping, fashion, his appearance) .
* **Noob**: A person new to an online gaming community.
* **Staycation**: A vacation at home or near home (usually due to financial constraints preventing a holiday abroad).
* **Troll**: A person who posts obnoxious comments to an online community.

When we consider the lexical system of a language as an adaptive system developing for many centuries and reflecting the changing needs of the communication process, we have to contrast the innovations with words that dropped from the language (**obsolete** words) or survive only in special contexts (archaisms and historisms).

**3. OBSOLETE WORDS -Obsolete** indicates that a term is no longer in active use, except, for example, in literary quotation. **Obsolete** may apply to a word regarded as no longer acceptable or useful even though it is still in existence.

The meaning of these temporal labels can be somewhat different among dictionaries and thesauri. **Obsolete** indicates that a term is no longer in active use, except, for example, in literary quotation. **Obsolete** may apply to a word regarded as no longer acceptable or useful even though it is still in existence. Obsolete words and phrases are not easily understood by a modern reader, and obsolete senses of current terms.” *Obsolete word* is a temporal label commonly used by [lexicographers](https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-a-lexicographer-1691121) (that is, editors of [dictionaries](https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-a-dictionary-1690450)) to indicate that a [word](https://www.thoughtco.com/word-english-language-1692612) (or a particular form or sense of a word) is no longer in active use in speech and writing.

As Knud Sørensen points out, "it sometimes occurs that words which have become obsolete in Britain continue to be current in the United States (compare [Amer. Engl.](https://www.thoughtco.com/american-english-ame-1688982) *fall* and [Brit. Engl.](https://www.thoughtco.com/british-english-bre-1689039) *autumn*)" (*Languages in Contact and Contrast*, 1991).

FOLLOWING ARE SOME EXAMPLES OF **OBSOLETE WORDS**:

**ILLECEBROUS** "Illecebrous [ill-less-uh-brus] an **obsolete word**meaning 'attractive, alluring.' From a Latin word meaning 'to entice.'" (Erin McKean, *Totally Weird and Wonderful Words*. Oxford University Press, 2006)

**MAWK** "The underlying meaning of *mawkish* is 'maggotish.' It was derived from a now **obsolete word** *mawk*, which meant [literally](https://www.thoughtco.com/literal-meaning-language-1691250) 'maggot' but was used [figuratively](https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-a-figurative-meaning-1690792) (like *maggot* itself) for a 'whim' or 'fastidious fancy.' Hence *mawkish* originally meant 'nauseated, as if repelled by something one is too fastidious to eat.' In the 18th century the notion of 'sickness' or 'sickliness' produced the present-day sense 'over-sentimental.'" (John Ayto, *Word Origins*, 2nd ed. A & C Black, 2005)

**MUCKRAKE** "*Mudslinging* and *muckraking*--two words commonly connected with the pursuit of an elected office and the flotsam the campaigns leave in their wake. "Voters seem fairly familiar with the term used to describe malicious or scandalous attacks against opponents, but the latter 'm' word may be new for some people. It is an **obsolete word** describing a tool used to rake muck or dung and used in reference to a character in John Bunyan’s classic *Pilgrim’s Progress* [1678]--'the Man with the Muck-rake' who rejected salvation to focus on filth." (Vanessa Curry, "Don’t Muck It Up, and We Won’t Rake It." *The Daily Herald*[Columbia, TN], April 3, 2014)|

**SLUBBERDEGULLION** [Slubberdegullion](http://www.dictionary.com/browse/slubberdegullion) is "n: a slobbering or dirty fellow, a worthless sloven," 1610s, from *slubber* "to daub, smear, behave carelessly or negligently" (1520s), probably from Dutch or Low German (cf. *slobber*(v)). Second element appears to be an attempt to imitate French; or perhaps it is French, related to Old French *goalon* "a sloven." "Century Dictionary speculates the*-de-* means 'insignificant' or else is from *hobbledehoy*."

**SNOUTFAIR** Snoutfair is a person with a handsome countenance (literally, a fair snout). Its origins are from the 1500s.

**LUNTING** [Lunting](https://www.urbandictionary.com/define.php?term=Lunting)means to walk while smoking a pipe. Lunting is also the emantion of smoke or steam from a tobacco pipe, or the flame used to light a fire, torch, or pipe, The word *lunting* originated in the 1500s "from either the Dutch word 'lont' meaning a slow match or fuse or the Middle Low German 'lonte' meaning a wick.

**WITH SQUIRREL** *With squirrel* is a euphemism that means pregnant. It originated in the Ozark Mountains in the early 20th century.

**CURGLAFF** [Curglaff](http://www.dsl.ac.uk/entry/snd/curglaff)is commonly felt by people in northern climes -- it is the shock that one feels when first plunging into cold water. The word curglaff originated from Scotland in the 1800s. (Also spelled *curgloff*).

**GROAK** To [groak](https://www.merriam-webster.com/words-at-play/words-for-things-you-wish-people-wouldnt-do/groak) (verb) is to watch someone longingly while they are eating, in the hope that they will give you some of their food. The origin is possibly Scottish.

**COCKALORUM** [Cockalorum](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/cockalorum) is a little man who has an over-inflated opinion of himself and thinks himself more important than he is; also, boastful speech. The origin of *cockalorum* may be from the from the obsolete Flemish word *kockeloeren*of the 1700s*,* meaning "to crow."

**SUBJECTIVE JUDGMENTS: *GRIEFSOME* IN THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY (OED)**

- "*Griefsome* was . . . labelled **obsolete** during the writing of the first edition of the [*OED*](https://www.thoughtco.com/learn-a-new-word-every-day-sites-1689709). A few months later, however, one of the editors used *griefsome* in drafting the definition of *grievesomeness* ('the quality or condition of being griefsome'), as a draft proof still records. Here, intuition and usage failed to coincide; paradoxically *griefsome* was both obsolete (according to the label it had been given) and current (according to the usage of one of the editors).

**4. ARCHAIC WORDS**

The word *archaism* is derived from the Greek word *archaïkós*meaning “ancient.”

The label **archaic** is used for words that were once common but are now rare. **Archaic** implies having the character or characteristics of a much earlier time.

The word stock of a language is in an increasing state of change. In every period in the development of a literary language one can find words which will show more or less apparent changes in their meaning or usage, from full vigour, through a moribund state, to death, i.e. complete disappearance of the unit from the language.

We’ll distinguish 3 stages in the aging process of words:

1) the beginning of the aging process when the word becomes rarely used. Such words are called obsolescent, i.e. they are in the stage of gradually passing out of general use;

2) The second group of archaic words are those that have already gone completely out of use but are still recognized by the English speaking community. These words are called obsolete.

3) The third group, which may be called archaic proper, are words which are no longer recognized in modern English, words that were in use in Old English and which have either dropped out of the language entirely or have changed in their appearance so much that they have become unrecognizable.

There is another class of words which is erroneously classed as archaic, historic words. Words of this type never disappear from the language.

Archaic words are used in historical novels, in official and diplomatic documents, in business letters, legal language, etc. Archaic words, word-forms and word combinations are also used to create an elevated effect.

I. What is Archaism?

To be*afeared* used to mean not *to be scary*, but *to be afraid*. And how many people today understand that the word *wherefore* in “wherefore art thou Romeo” means *why* not *where*? How many people still say *shan’t* (shall not) instead of *won’t*? Perhaps in Britain, only. These words, which are so old that they have gone out of [style](https://literaryterms.net/style/), or few people know what they mean, are examples of *archaisms*.

**II. Examples of Archaism**

Because archaisms are, by definition, no longer used much, here are a few examples from Shakespeare and legal [jargon](https://literaryterms.net/jargon/), with their meanings explained:

*Example 1*

*This above all: to thine own self be true.*

This often quoted line from Shakespeare’s *Hamlet*has an archaism—*thine*—as well as *archaic* sentence structure. The modern translation would be: *This above all: be true to yourself.*

*Example 2*

*Do you bite your thumb at us, sir?*

A modern response to this question would be, “Do I *what*?” This line is also from Shakespeare. The expression “to bite one’s thumb” at someone once meant to bite and flick one’s thumb towards someone, which was an offensive and insulting gesture.

*Example 3*

The language of lawyers and laws is filled with archaisms such as *heretofore, hereunto, thereof*, etc.

Often used in Shakespearean studies, this phrase may be translated to: *The lady solemnly declares too much, I think.*

This last example calls attention to the fact that although archaisms are not used much anymore, they *are*used.  If a word or phrase is not used at all anymore, in any context, it is not an archaism; it is obsolete.

III. The Importance of Using Archaisms

Archaisms exist, naturally, because language is always changing through the years unless artificially held back. Shakespeare’s English–Elizabethan English—evolved into the many dialects of modern English.  Archaisms are most important because they remain in use in certain limited fields of activity—especially law, government, and religion—the most conservative and traditional areas of activity in our world.  But archaisms can also be used by anyone anytime in speech or writing, to create an atmosphere of antiquity, and also, to give one’s language a feeling of official-ness, royalty, or religious authority.

**IV. Examples of Archaisms in Literature**

Archaisms are prominent in classic literature because literature has to be old before it can become classic, and the older a work of literature becomes, the older its words become. What’s less predictable is when a modern author uses archaisms with a certain purpose. *Example 1. If a body catch a body coming through the rye…*

**11-MA`RUZA. WORD FORMATION AND WAYS OF WORD FORMATION**

**1. Word formation**

**2. Ways of word formation**

* **compounding**
* **derivation**
* **affixation**
* **blending**
* **clipping**
* **acronyms**
* **other ways**

**Word formation**

Word-formation tries to explain the processes through which we can create new word forms. We’ve already seen some of these at work when we looked at morphemes and word classes, but now we’ll investigate them a little more closely, initially using exploratory methods again, rather than just looking at long lists of morphemes and listing their functions.

As far as morphological processes in word-formation are concerned, we can distinguish between a variety of major types, briefly introduced and summarised in the table below:

| Major types of word formation processes | |
| --- | --- |
| Process | Function |
| affixation | changing words by adding morphemes in the front or the back of a free morpheme or base; sub-divided into *prefigation* & *suffigation* |
| zero-derivation | changing the word class without changing the word shape |
| compounding | creating new words by combining (mainly) free morphemes |
| backformation | creating new words from phrases |
| clipping & blending | abbreviating or ‘fusing’ words into new ones. |
| acronym formation | using initials to create short words |

**2. Ways of word formation**

**Compounding**  
 Compounding forms a word out of two or more root morphemes. The words are called compounds or compound words.

In Linguistics, compounds can be either native or borrowed.

Native English roots are typically free morphemes, so that means native compounds are made out of independent words that can occur by themselves. Examples: *mailman* (composed of free root *mail* and free root *man*), *mail carrier, dog house, fireplace, fireplug* (a regional word for 'fire hydrant'), *fire hydrant, dry run, cupcake, cup holder, email, e-ticket, pick-up truck, talking-to*

Some compounds have a preposition as one of the component words as in the last 2 examples.

In Greek and Latin, in contrast to English, roots do not typically stand alone. So compounds are composed of bound roots. Compounds formed in English from borrowed Latin and Greek morphemes preserve this characteristic. Examples include *photograph*, *iatrogenic*, and many thousands of other classical words.

Note that compounds are written in various ways in English: with a space between the elements; with a hyphen between the elements; or simply with the two roots run together with no separation. The way the word is written does not affect its status as a compound. Over time, the convention for writing compounds can change, usually in the direction from separate words (e.g. email used to be written with a hyphen. In the 19th century, today and tomorrow were sometimes still written *to-day* and *to-morrow*. The *to* originally was the preposition *to* with an older meaning 'at [a particular period of time]'. *Clock work* changed to *clock-work* and finally to one word with no break (*clockwork*). If you read older literature you might see some compound words that are now written as one word appearing with unfamiliar spaces or hyphens between the components.

Another thing to note about compounds is that they can combine words of different parts of speech. The list above shows mostly noun-noun compounds, which is probably the most common part of speech combination, but there are others, such as adjective-noun (*dry run*, *blackbird*, *hard drive*), verb-noun (*pick-pocket*, *cut-purse*, *lick-spittle*) and even verb-particle (where 'particle' means a word basically designating spatial expression that functions to complete a literal or metaphorical path), as in *run-through*, *hold-over*. Sometimes these compounds are different in the part of speech of the whole compound vs. the part of speech of its components. Note that the last two are actually nouns, despite their components.

Some compounds have more than two component words. These are formed by successively combining words into compounds, e.g. *pick-up truck*, formed from *pick-up* and *truck*, where the first component, *pick-up* is itself a compound formed from *pick* and *up.* Other examples are *ice-cream cone*, *no-fault insurance* and even more complex compounds like*top-rack dishwasher safe*.

There are a number of subtypes of compounds that do not have to do with part of speech, but rather the sound characteristics of the words. These subtypes are not mutually exclusive.

**Rhyming compounds** (subtype of compounds)

These words are compounded from two rhyming words. Examples: *lovey-dovey, chiller-killer*

There are words that are formally very similar to rhyming compounds, but are not quite compounds in English because the second element is not really a word--it is just a nonsense item added to a root word to form a rhyme. Examples:

*higgledy-piggledy, tootsie-wootsie*

This formation process is associated in English with child talk (and talk addressed to children), technically called hypocoristic language.

Examples: *bunnie-wunnie, Henny Penny, snuggly-wuggly, Georgie Porgie, Piggie-Wiggie*

Another word type that looks a bit like rhyming compounds comprises words that are formed of two elements that almost match, but differ in their vowels. Again, the second element is typically a nonsense form:

*pitter-patter, zigzag, tick-tock, riffraff, flipflop*

**Derivation** Derivation is the creation of words by modification of a root without the addition of other roots. Often the effect is a change in part of speech.

**Affixation** (Subtype of Derivation)  
The most common type of derivation is the addition of one or more affixes to a root, as in the word *derivation* itself. This process is called affixation, a term which covers both prefixation and suffixation.

**Blending**  
 Blending is one of the most beloved of word formation processes in English. It is especially creative in that speakers take two words and merge them based not on morpheme structure but on sound structure. The resulting words are called blends.

Usually in word formation we combine roots or affixes along their edges: one morpheme comes to an end before the next one starts. For example, we form *derivation* out of the sequence of morphemes de+riv+at(e)+ion. One morpheme follows the next and each one has identifiable boundaries. The morphemes do not overlap.

But in blending, part of one word is stitched onto another word, without any regard for where one morpheme ends and another begins. For example, the word *swooshtika* 'Nike swoosh as a logo symbolizing corporate power and hegemony' was formed from *swoosh* and *swastika*. The *swoosh* part remains whole and recognizable in the blend, but the *tika* part is not a morpheme, either in the word *swastika* or in the blend. The blend is a perfect merger of form, and also of content. The meaning contains an implicit analogy between the *swastika* and the *swoosh*, and thus conceptually blends them into one new kind of thing having properties of both, but also combined properties of neither source. Other examples include *glitterati* (blending *glitter* and *literati*) 'Hollywood social set', *mockumentary* (*mock* and *documentary*) 'spoof documentary'.

The earliest blends in English only go back to the 19th century, with wordplay coinages by Lewis Carroll in Jabberwocky. For example, he introduced to the language *slithy*, formed from *lithe* and *slimy*, and *galumph*, (from *gallop* and *triumph*. Interestingly *galumph* has survived as a word in English, but it now seems to mean 'walk in a stomping, ungainly way'.

Some blends that have been around for quite a while include *brunch* (breakfast and lunch), *motel* (motor hotel), *electrocute* (electric and execute), *smog* (smoke and fog) and cheeseburger (cheese and hamburger). These go back to the first half of the twentieth century. Others, such as *stagflation* (stagnation and inflation), *spork* (spoon and fork), and *carjacking* (car and hijacking) arose since the 1970s.

Here are some more recent blends I have run across:

*mocktail* (mock and cocktail) 'cocktail with no alcohol'  
*splog* (spam and blog) 'fake blog designed to attract hits and raise Google-ranking'  
*Britpoperati* (Britpop and literati) 'those knowledgable about current British pop music'

**Clipping**  
 Clipping is a type of abbreviation of a word in which one part is 'clipped' off the rest, and the remaining word now means essentially the same thing as what the whole word means or meant. For example, the word *rifle* is a fairly modern clipping of an earlier compound *rifle gun*, meaning a gun with a rifled barrel. (*Rifled* means having a spiral groove causing the bullet to spin, and thus making it more accurate.) Another clipping is *burger*, formed by clipping off the beginning of the word *hamburger*. (This clipping could only come about once *hamburg+er* was reanalyzed as *ham+burger*.)

**Acronyms**  
 Acronyms are formed by taking the initial letters of a phrase and making a word out of it. Acronyms provide a way of turning a phrase into a word. The classical acronym is also pronounced as a word. *Scuba* was formed from *self-contained underwater breathing apparatus*. The word *snafu* was originally WW2 army slang for Situation Normal All Fucked Up. Acronyms were being used more and more by military bureaucrats, and soldiers coined *snafu* in an apparent parody of this overused device. Sometimes an acronym uses not just the first letter, but the first syllable of a component word, for example *radar*, RAdio Detection And Ranging and *sonar*, SOund Navigation and Ranging. Radar forms an analogical model for both *sonar* and *lidar*, a technology that measures distance to a target and and maps its surface by bouncing a laser off it. There is some evidence that *lidar* was not coined as an acronym, but instead as a blend of *light* and *radar*. Based on the word itself, either etymology appears to work, so many speakers assume that *lidar* is an acronym rather than a blend.

A German example that strings together the initial syllables of the words in the phrase, is *Gestapo* , from GEheime STAats POlizei 'Sectret State Police'. Another is *Stasi*, from STAats SIcherheit 'State Security'. Acronyms are a subtype of initialism. Initialisms also include words made from the initial letters of a Phrase but NOT pronounced as a normal word - it is instead pronounced as a string of letters. Organzation names aroften initialisms of his type.

Examples: NOW (National Organization of Women), US or U.S., USA or U.S.A. (United States), UN or U.N. (United Nations), IMF (International Monetary Fund), Some organizations ARE pronounced as a word: UNICEF, MADD (Mothers Against Drunk Driving)

The last example incorporates a meaning into the word that fits the nature of the organization. Sometimes this type is called a Reverse Acronym or a Backronym.

These can be thought of as a special case of acronyms.

Memos, email, and text messaging (text-speak) are modes of communication that give rise to both clippings and acronyms, since these word formation methods are designed to abbreviate. Some acronyms:

NB - Nota bene, literally 'note well'. Used by scholars making notes on texts. (A large number of other scholarly acronyms from Latin are used, probably most invented in the medieval period or Renaissance, not originally in Latin)  
BRB - be right back (from 1980s, 90s)  
FYI - for your information (from mid 20th century)   
LOL - laughing out loud (early 21st century) - now pronounced either /lol/ or /el o el/; has spawned compounds like *Lolcats*).   
ROFL - rolling on the floor laughing  
ROFLMAO - rolling on the floor laughing my ass off

**Reanalysis**  
 Sometimes speakers unconsciously change the morphological boundaries of a word, creating a new morph or making an old one unrecognizable. This happened in *hamburger*, which was originally *Hamburger steak* 'chopped and formed steak in the Hamburg style, then *hamburger (hamburg + er)*, then *ham + burger*

**Folk etymology**

A popular idea of a word's origin that is not in accordance with its real origin.

Many folk etymologies are cases of reanalysis in which the word is not only reanalysis but it changes under the influence of the new understanding of its morphemes. The result is that speakers think it has a different origin than it does.

**Analogy**   
 Sometimes speakers take an existing word as a model and form other words using some of its morphemes as a fixed part, and changing one of them to something new, with an analogically similar meaning. *Cheeseburger* was formed on the analogy of *hamburger*, replacing a perceived morpheme *ham* with *cheese*. *carjack* and *skyjack* were also formed by analogy.

**Novel creation**  
 In novel creation, a speaker or writer forms a word without starting from other morphemes. It is as if the word if formed out of 'whole cloth', without reusing any parts.

Some examples of now-conventionalized words that were novel creations include *blimp*, *googol* (the mathematical term),*bling*, and possibly *slang*, which emerged in the last 200 years with no obvious etymology. Some novel creations seem to display 'sound symbolism', in which a word's phonological form suggests its meaning in some way. For example, the sound of the word *bling* seems to evoke heavy jewelry making noise. Another novel creation whose sound seems to relate to its meaning is *badonkadonk*, 'female rear end', a reduplicated word which can remind English speakers of the repetitive movement of the rear end while walking.

**Creative respelling**  
 Sometimes words are formed by simply changing the spelling of a word that the speaker wants to relate to the new word. Product names often involve creative respelling, such as *Mr. Kleen*.

**12-MA’RUZA. AFFIXATION AND ITS SUBDIVISIONS. CONVERSION**

**1. Affixation and its subdivisions**

**- prefixation**

**- suffixation**

**- other**

**2. Conversion**

**1. Affixation and its subdivisions**

Affixation is the general process of attaching bound – rather than free – morphemes to a base. We can sub-divide the morphemes occurring in affixation processes further into the following types, based on their positions of attachement:

* prefixes attach at the beginning: *{im}*+{poss}{ible}, *{un}*+{able}
* suffixes attach at the end: {act}+*{ress}*, {baron}+*{ess}*
* circumfixes consist of two parts, a prefix and a suffix: Germ. *{ge}*+{geb}+*{en}*; both need to attach to create the final form
* infixes ‘attach’ (i.e. get inserted) in the middle: {ab}{so+*{blood}{y}*+lute}{ly}

To fully understand the word formation options affixation covers, we need to distinguish between its two major functions, the *inflectional* and the *derivational* one. While inflection, as we have seen, allow us to relate words to one another on the *syntagmatic* level, i.e. indicating what kinds of roles they perform on the clause level, how they combine with other words, or what kind of tense/aspect they may express, derivation makes it possible to create new words from old ones, either by changing their word class or modifying/‘specifying’ their meanings. In terms of their *productivity*, inflection has clearly diminished over time, whereas derivation still remains productive.

Although many affixes appear to have a relatively clearly defined function, recognising affix functionality is not always straightforward. Often what may superficially look like a specific affix (or a root) with a certain meaning may either be part of a longer unit, or not constitute an affix at all. Furthermore, we also encounter the same problem we saw earlier on (for instance with the {s} morpheme), i.e. that one and the same form may actually be multi-functional in representing a number of different meanings. In order to be able to understand this problem better, as well as to explore the potential functions of pre- and suffixes, let’s investigate some presumed pre- or suffixes by removing them and observing whether this whether may lead to potential misinterpretations.

**A) Suffixation**

- is characteristic of noun and adjective formation

- a suffix usually changes not only the lexical meaning of a word but also its grammatical meaning or its word class, e.g. to *bake – baker, beauty – beautiful*

* **Noun-forming suffixes:**

-or: actor, visitor, director

-er/eer: speaker, engineer, opener

-ist: scientist, satirist, journalist

-ess: hostess, stewardess, actress

-ty/ity: cruelty, purity, stupidity

-ure/ture: failure, exposure, mixture

-dom: freedom, kingdom,

-age: passage, marriage, postage

-ance/ence: appearance, preference

-hood: likelihood, brotherhood, neighbourhood

-ing: reading, opening, beginning

-ion/sion/tion/ition/ation: operation, permission, description

-ness: kindness, goodness, wilingness

-y/ery: difficulty, enquiry, robbery, slavery

-ship: partnership, membership, kinship

-ment: government, development, movement

-t: complaint, restraint

* **Adjective-forming suffixes:**

-able/ible: comfortable, fashionable, sensible

-ic/atic: atomic, heroic, systematic

-ful: beautiful, helpful, careful

-y: bloody, dirty, sunny

-less: useless, homeless, careless

-al/ial/tial: personal, influential, preferential

-ive/ative/itive: active, creative, sensitive

-ant/ent: pleasant, different, excellent

-en: wooden, golden, woollen

-like: childlike, ladylike

-ing: amusing, interesting, charming

-ous: dangerous, famous, mysterious

-ish: bookish, childish, foolish

-ly: friendly, lovely, manly

* **Verb-forming suffixes**:

-ize/ise: civilize, modernize

-ify/fy/efy: simplify, glorify

-en, deepen, sharpen, lengthen

* **Adverb-forming suffixes**:

-ly: formally, calmly, easily

-ward/wards: homeward, afterwards, backwards

-wise/ways: clockwise, otherwise, sideways

-fold: twofold, threefold

**B) Prefixation**

* a prefix usually changes or concretizes the lexical meaning of a word and only rarely parts of speech, e. g.*write – rewrite,**smoker – non-smoker*
* Prefixes are sometimes used to form new verb: *circle – encircle, large – enlarge* etc.
* **Negation or opposition:**

un-: unable, unfair, unpack, unzip

dis-: disagreeable, dislike

a-: amoral, atypical

in-: informal, inexperience

im-: (before b, m, p) impossible, immoral

il-: (before l) illegal, illogical

ir-: (before r) irregular, irrational

non-: nonsmoker, non-scientific

de-: decode, defrost, devalue

* **Repetition, making it possible:**

re-: reread, rebuild, reunited

en-/em-: enrich, enlarge, embitter

* **Degree, measure or size:**

super-: supersonic, superhuman

semi-: semi-final, semidetached

hyper-: hyperactive, hypersensitive

ultra-: ultrahigh, ultraviolet

over-: overtime, overpopulated

* **Time and place, order, relation:**

post-: post-war, postpone, postgraduate

inter-: international, intercontinental

pre-: pre-war, prehistoric, prearrange

ex-: ex-president, ex-husband, ex-film-star

* **Number and numeral relation:**

bi-: bilateral, bilabial

uni-: unisex, unicycle, unilateral

auto-: autobiography, autopump, auto-suggestion

multi-: multinational, multi-storey, multilingual

* **Attitude, collaboration, membership:**

anti-: antisocial, antiwar, antifreeze

counter-: counter-offensive, counter-revolution

pro-: pro-English, pro-vice-chancellor

* **Pejoration:**

mis-: misinform, mislead, misuse

pseudo-: pseudo-scientific, pseudo-intellectual

**2. Conversion**

The process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with a different distribution characteristic but without adding any de­rivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of the derived words are homonymous, is variously called **con­version**, zero derivation, root formation, transposition or functional change.

The essence of the phenomenon may be illustrated by the following example: *His voice silenced everyone else*(Snow). The word *silence*ex­ists in the English language as a noun, and a verb may be formed from the same stem without adding any affix or without changing the stem in any other way, so that both basic forms are homonymous. Their dis­tribution on the other hand is quite different. In our example *silence*not only takes the functional verbal suffix *-ed*but occupies the position of a verbal predicate having *voice*as a subject and *everyone else*as its object. Its lexico-grammatical meaning is also that of a verb. The dif­ference between *silence*n and *silence*v is morphological, syntactic and semantic: the original and the resulting word are grammatically differ­ent; a new paradigm is acquired and the syntactic functions and ties are those of a verb. Compare also: *silence one's critics; silence enemy guns.*

The term basic formas used in the above definition means the word form in which the notion denoted is expressed in the most abstract way. For nouns it is the Common case singular, for verbs, the Infinitive.

Each of the five terms given above for the type of the word-formation process itself, i.e. conversion, zero derivation, root formation, transpo­sition or functional change, has its drawbacks.

The term conversion is in a way misleading as actually noth­ing is converted: the original word continues its existence alongside the new one. As to zero derivation, it does not permit us to distinguish this type from sound interchange *(food*n — *feed*v) where no derivative morpheme is addecj either. The term root formation is not always suitable as the process can involve not only root words, but also words containing affixes and compounds (as was the case with the word *silence*above; compare also *audition*v, *featherbed*v). The terms functional change or transposition imply that the process in question concerns usage, not word-formation. This immediate­ly brings us into an extremely controversial field.

Accepting the term functional change one must admit that one and the same word can belong to several parts of speech simultaneously. The majority of the Soviet linguists are convinced of the impossibility of a word belong­ing at the same time to several parts of speech, because this contradicts the basic definition of a word as a system of forms.1 In what follows the term conversion will be used in preference to the other four, because in spite of its deficiencies it is more widely accepted to denote this word-forming process.

As a type of word-formation, conversion exists in many languages. "What is specific for the English vocabulary is not its mere presence, but its intense development.

The study of conversion in present-day English is of great theoret­ical interest, as nowhere, perhaps, are the interdependence of vocabu­lary and grammar and the systematic character of language so obviously displayed. Studying it, one sees the dependence of word-building types on the character of word structure already frequent in the language.

The main reason for the widespread development of conversion in present-day English is no doubt the absence of morphological elements serving as classifying signals, or, in other words, of formal signs marking the part of speech to which the word belongs. The fact that the sound pattern does not show to what part of speech the word belongs may be illustrated by the following table.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Words | Parts of speech in which they occur | | | | |
| Noun | Verb | Adjective | Adverb | Other parts of speech |
| back home silence round | **+ + + +** | **+ +** | **+**  **+ +** | **+ +** | **+**  **+ +** |

**13- MA’RUZA. WORD COMBINATION IN MODERN ENGLISH**

**1. Word combinations, word groups and set combinations**

**2. Traditional word combinations**

**3. Classification of word combinations**

**1. Word combinations, word groups and set combinations**

Every utterance is a patterned, rhythmed and segmented sequence of signals. On the lexical level these signals building up the utterance are not exclusively words. Alongside with separate words speakers use larger blocks consisting of more than one word. Words combined to express ideas and thoughts make up word-groups.

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

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

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

Free word-groups of syntactically connected notional words within a sentence, which by itself is not a sentence. This definition is recognised more or less universally in this country and abroad. Though other linguistics define the term word-group differently - as any group of words connected semantically and grammatically which does not make up a sentence by itself. From this point of view words-components of a word-group may belong to any part of speech, therefore such groups as the morning, the window, and Bill are also considered to be word-groups (though they comprise only one notional word and one form-word).

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

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

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

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

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

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

The lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups are interdependent and inseparable. The inseparability of these two semantic components in word-groups can be illustrated by the semantic analysis of individual word-groups in which the norms of conventional collocability of words seem to be deliberately overstepped. For instance, in the word-group all the sun long we observe a departure from the norm of lexical valency represented by such word-groups as all the day long, all the night long, all the week long, and a few others. The structural pattern of these word-groups in ordinary usage and the word-group all the sun long is identical. The generalised meaning of the pattern may be described as "a unit of time". Replacing day, night, week by another noun the sun we do not find any change in the structural meaning of the pattern. The group all the sun long functions semantically as a unit of time. The noun sun, however, included in the group continues to carry its own lexical meaning (not "a unit of time") which violates the norms of collocability in this wordgroup. It follows that the meaning of the word-group is derived from the combined lexical meanings of its constituents and is inseparable from the meaning of the pattern of their arrangement. Two basic linguistic factors which unite words into word-groups and which largely account for their combinability are lexical valency or collocability and grammatical valency.

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

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

There can be cases of synonymic groups where one synonym would have the widest possible range of соllосаbility (like shake which enters combinations with an immense number of words including earth, air, mountains, сonvictions, beliefs, spears, walls, souls, tablecloths, bosoms, carpets etc.) while another will have the limitation inherent in its semantic structure (like wag which means < to shake a thing by one end >, and confined to rigid group of nouns - tail, finger, head, tongue, beard, chin). There is certain norm of lexical valency for each word and any intentional departure from this norm is qualified as a stylistic device, e.g.: tons of words, a life ago, years of dust.

**2. Traditional word combinations**

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

1.V+N combinations. E.G.: deal a blow, bear a grudge, take a fancy etc

2.V+ preposition +N: fall into disgrace, go into details, go into particular, take into account, come into being etc.

3. V + Adj.: work hard, rain heavily etc.

4. V + Adj.: set free, make sure, put right etc.

5. Adj. + N.: maiden voyage, ready money, dead silence, feline eyes, aquiline nose, auspicious circumstances etc.

6. N + V: time passes / flies / elapses, options differ, tastes vary etc.

7. N + preposition + N: breach of promise, flow of words, flash of hope, flood of tears.

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

The grammatical valency of words may be different. The range of it is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to. This statement, though, does not entitle to say that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is identical. E.g.: the two synonyms clever and intelligent are said to posses different grammatical valency as the word clever can fit the syntactic pattern of Adj. + preposition at + N clever at physics, clever at social sciences, whereas the word intelligent can never be found in exactly the same syntactic pattern.

**3. Classification of word combinations**

Unlike frequent departures from the norms of lexical valency, departures from the grammatical valency norms are not admissible unless a speaker purposefully wants to make the word group unintelligible to native speakers. Thus, the main approaches towards word - groups classification are as follows:

1. According to the criterion of distribution word-groups are classified into: endocentric e.g. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word group; exocentric e.g. having the distribution different from that of either of its members. Here component words are met syntactically substituable for the whole word group. E.g.: red flower - the word group whose distribution does not differ from the distribution of its head word, the noun flower. As in I gave her a red flower. I gave her a flower; E.g.: Side by side, by leaps and bounds.

2. According to the syntactic pattern word-groups are classified into: predicative They knew; Children believe; Weather permitting; coordinative say or die; come and go; subordinative a man of property, domesticated animals.

3. According to the part of speech the head word belongs to subordinative free word groups may fail into: nominal stone, wall, wild, life, adjectival necessary to know, kind to people, verbal work hard, go smoothly, adverbial very fluently, rather sharply, very well, so quickly. numerical five of them, hundreds of refugees; pronominal some of them, all of us, nothing to do; statival: fast ,asleep, full, aware.

Word-groups may be also analyzed from the point of view of their motivation. Word groups may be described as lexically motivated if the combined lexical meaning of the group is deducible from the meaning of its components. The degrees of motivation may be different and range from complete motivation to lack of it. Free word - groups, however, are characterised by complete motivation, as their components carry their individual lexical meanings.

**14- MA’RUZA. PHRASEOLOGY IN MODERN ENGLISH. PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS WITH DIFFERENT COMPONENTS**

**1. The notion of phraseological units**

**2. Set phrases and idioms**

**3. Classification of phraseological units**

**4. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and clichés**

**1. The notion of phraseological units**

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

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

**Idiomaticity** is the quality of phraseological unit, when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts.

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

In lexicology there is great ambiguity of the terms phraseology and idioms. Opinions differ as to how phraseology should be defined, classified, described and analysed. The word "phraseology has very different meanings in our country and in Great Britain or the United States.

In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V.V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (A.I. Smirnitsky), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I.V.Arnold). N.N. Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact. O.S. Ahmanova insists on the semantic integrity of such phrases prevailing over the structural separateness of their elements. A.V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability.

**2. Set phrases and idioms**

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

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

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

The term "**word-equivalent"** stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words.

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

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

In a free phrase the semantic correlative ties are fundamentally different. The information is additive and each element has a much greater semantic independence where each component may be substituted without affecting the meaning of the other: *cut bread, cut cheese, eat bread.* Information is additive in the sense that the amount of information we had on receiving the first signal, i.e. having heard or read the word *cut,* is increased, the listener obtains further details and learns what is cut. The reference of *cut* is unchanged. Every notional word can form additional syntactic ties with other words outside the expression. In a set expression information furnished by each element is not additive: actually it does not exist before we get the whole. No substitution for either *cut or figure* can be made without completely ruining the following: *I had an uneasy fear that he might cut a poor figure beside all these clever Russian officers* (Shaw). *He was not managing to* ***cut*** *much of a figure* (Murdoch). The only substitution admissible for the expression *cut a poor figure* concerns the adjective.

Semantic approach stresses the importance of idiomaticity, functional - syntactic inseparability, contextual - stability of context combined with idiomaticity.

In his classification of V.V. Vinogradov developed some points first advanced by the Swiss linguist Charles Bally. The classification is based upon the motivation of the unit, i.e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its component parts. The degree of motivation is correlated with the rigidity, indivisibility and semantic unity of the expression, i.e with the possibility of changing the form or the order of components, and of substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of phraseological units are suggested, **phraseological combinations, phraseological unities, and phraseological fusions.**

The Phraseological Collocations (Combinations), are partially motivated, they contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand, meet the necessity, meet the requirements.*

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

Phraseological fusions, completely non-motivated word-groups, (e.g. *tit for tat),* represent as their name suggests the highest stage of blending together. The meaning of components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole, by its expressiveness and emotional properties. Phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages.

Semantic stylistic features contracting set expressions into units of fixed context are simile, contrast, metaphor and synonymy. For example: *as like as two peas, as оld as the hills and older than the hills* (simile); *from beginning to end, for love or money, more or less, sooner or later* (contrast); a *lame duck, a pack of lies, arms race, to swallow the pill, in a nutshell* (metaphor); *by leaps and bounds, proud and haughty* (synonymy). A few more combinations of different features in the same phrase are: *as good as gold, as pleased as Punch, as fit as a fiddle* (alliteration, simile); *now or never, to kill or cure* (alliteration and contrast). More rarely there is an intentional pun: *as cross as two sticks* means 'very angry'. This play upon words makes the phrase jocular.

There are, of course, other cases when set expressions lose their metaphorical picturesqueness, having preserved some fossilised words and phrases, the meaning of which is no longer correctly understood. For instance, the expression *buy a pig in a poke* may be still used, although *poke* 'bag' (cf. *pouch, pocket)* does not occur in other contexts. Expressions taken from obsolete sports and occupations may survive in their new figurative meaning. In these cases the euphonic qualities of the expression are even more important. A muscular and irreducible phrase is also memorable. The muscular feeling is of special importance in slogans and battle cries. *Saint George and the Dragon for Merrie England,* the medieval battle cry, was a rhythmic unit to which a man on a horse could swing his sword. The modern *Scholarships not battleships!* can be conveniently scanned by a marching crowd.

N.N. Amosova's approach is contextological. She defines phraseological units as units of fixed context. Fixed context is defined as a context characterised by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components, and a peculiar semantic relationship between them. Units of fixed context are subdivided into phrasemes and idioms. Phrasemes are always binary: one component has a phraseologically bound meaning, the other serves as the determining context *(small talk, small hours, small change).* In idioms the new meaning is created by the whole, though every element may have its original meaning weakened or even completely lost: *in the nick of time* 'at the exact moment'. Idioms may be motivated or demotivated. A motivated idiom is homonymous to a free phrase, but this phrase is used figuratively: *take the bull by the horns* 'to face dangers without fear. *In the nick of time* is demotivated, because the word *nick* is obsolete. Both phrasemes and idioms may be movable (changeable) or immovable.

A.V. Koonin's classification is based on the functions of the units fulfil in speech. They may be nominating *(a bull in a china shop),* interjectinal (*a pretty kettle of fish),* communicative *(familiarity breeds contempt),* or nominating-communicative *(pull somebody's leg).* Further classification into subclasses depends on whether the units are changeable or unchangeable, whether the meaning of the one element remains free, and, more generally, on the interdependence between the meaning of the elements and the meaning of the set expression.

Formal classification distinguishes set expressions that are nominal phrases: *the root of the trouble;* verbal phrases: *put one's best foot forward;* adjectival phrases: *as good as gold; red as a cherry;* adverbial phrases*. from head to foot;* prepositional phrases: *in the course of;* conjunctional phrases: as *long as, on the other hand,* interjectional phrases: *Well, I never!*

A stereotyped sentence also introduced into speech as a ready-made formula which may be illustrated by: *Never say die!* 'never give up hope', *take your time* 'do not hurry.

**3. Classification of phraseological units**

This classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but also the functioning of the whole, thus, *tooth and nail* is not a nominal but an adverbial unit, because it serves to modify a verb *(e.* g. *fight tooth and nail).*

Within each of these classes a further subdivision is as follows:

a) Set expressions functioning like nouns:

N+N: *maiden name* 'the surname of a woman before she was married'; *brains trust* 'a committee of experts' N's+N: *cat's paw* 'one who is used for the convenience of a cleverer and stronger person' (the expression comes from a fable in which a monkey wanting to eat some chestnuts that were on a hot stove, but not wishing to burn himself while getting them, seised a cat and holding its paw in his own used it to knock the chestnuts to the ground) Ns'+N: *ladies' man* 'one who makes special effort to charm or please women'. N+prp+N: *the arm of the law, skeleton in the cupboard.* N+A: *blight errant* (the phrase is today applied to any chivalrous man ready to help and protect oppressed and helpless people). N+and+N: *lord and master* 'husband'; *all the world and his wife.* A+N: *high tea* 'an evening meal which combines meat or some similar extra dish with the usual tea'. N+ subordinate clause: *ships that pass in the night* 'chance acquaintances'.

b) Set expressions functioning like verbs: V+N: *take advantage*

V+and+V: *pick and choose*

V+(one's)+N+(prp): *snap one's fingers at*

V+one+N: *give one the bird* 'to fire smb'

V+subordinate clause: *see how the land lies* 'to discover the state of affairs'.

c) Set expressions functioning like adjectives: A+and+A: *high and mighty*

(as)+A+as+N: *as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter*

d) Set expressions functioning like adverbs: N+N: *tooth and nail*

prp+N: *by heart, of course* adv+prp+N: *once in a blue moon* prp+N+or+N: *by hook or by crook* cj+clause: *before one can say Jack Robinson*

e) Set expressions functioning like prepositions: prp+N+prp: *in consequence of*

f) Set expressions functioning like interjections: these are often structured as

imperative sentences: *Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)!*

Phraseological stability is based upon:

a) the stability of use;

b) the stability of meaning;

c) lexical stability;

d) syntactic stability;

e) rhythmic characteristics, rhyme and imagery.

**4. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and cliches**.

The place of proverbs, sayings and familiar quotations with respect to set expressions is a controversial issue. A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions, because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made. Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with set expressions is that they often form the basis of set expressions. E. g. *the last straw breaks the camel's back: the last straw; a drowning man will clutch at a straw: clutch at a straw; it is useless to lock the stable door when the steed is stolen: lock the stable door.*

As to familiar quotations, they are different from proverbs in their origin. They come from literature and become part of the language, so that many people using them do not even know that they are quoting, and very few could accurately name the play or passage on which they are drawing even when they are aware of using a quotation from W. Shakespeare.

The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous — they have contributed enormously to the store of the language. Very many come from "Hamlet", for example: *Something is rotten in the state of Denmark; Brevity is the soul of wit; The rest is silence; Thus conscience does make cowards of us all; There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio.*

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered cliches. The term is used to denote such phrases as have become hackneyed and stale. Being constantly and mechanically repeated they have lost their original expressiveness. The following are perhaps the most generally recognised: *the acid test, ample opportunities, astronomical figures, the arms of Morpheus, to break the ice, the irony of fate,* etc.

**15- MA’RUZA. THE STYLISTIC DIFFERENTIATION OF THE VOCABULARY SYSTEM OF MODERN ENGLISH**

**1. Common standard colloquial words**

**2. Specific literary vocabulary**

**3. Special colloquial vocabulary**

**1. Common standard colloquial words**

Common colloquial words are always more emotionally coloured than literary ones. They are used ininformal communication. Both literary and colloquial words have their upper and lower ranges. The lower range of literary wordsapproaches the neutral layer and has a tendency to pass into that layer. The upper range of the colloquial layer can easily pass into the neutral layer too. The lines of demarcation between common colloquial and neutral andcommon literary and neutral are blurred. Here we may see the process of interpenetration of the stylistic layers.The stylistic function of the different layers of the English Vocabulary depends in many respects on their interaction when they are opposed to one another. It is interesting to note that anything written assumes agreater degree of significance than what is only spoken. If the spoken takes the place of the written or viceversa, it means that we are faced with a stylistic device.

**2. Specific literary vocabulary**

**a) Terms**

Terms are generally associated with a definite branch of science and therefore with a series of other terms belonging to that particular branch of science. They know no isolation; they always come in clusters, either in atext on the subject to which they belong, or in special dictionaries which, unlike general dictionaries, make acareful selection of terms. All these clusters of terms form the nomenclature, or system of names, for theobjects of study of any particular branch of science.Terms are characterized by a tendency to be monosemantic and therefore easily call forth the requiredconcept. Terms may appear in scientific style, newspaper style, publicistic style, the belles-lettres style, etc.Terms no longer fulfill their basic function, that of bearing an exact reference to a given notion or concept. Thetheir function is either to indicate the technical peculiarities of the subject dealt with, or to make somereferences to the occupation of a character whose language would naturally contain specialwords andexpressions. A term has a stylistic function when it is used to create an atmosphere or to characterize a person.

**b) Poetic and highly literary words**

First of all poetic words belong to a definite style of language and perform in it their direct function. If encountered in another style of speech, they assume a new function, mainly satirical, for the two notions, poetryand prose, have been opposed to each other from time immemorial.Poetic language has special means of communication, i.e. rhythmical arrangement, some syntactical peculiarities and certain number of special words. The specific poetic vocabulary has a marked tendency todetach itself from the common literary word stock and assume a special significance. Poetic words claim to be,as it were, of higher rank.Poetic words and ser expressions make the utterance understandable only to a limited number of readers. Itis mainly due to poeticisms that poetical language is sometimes called poetical jargon.

**c) Archaic words**

The word stock of a language is in an increasing state of change. In every period in the development of aliterary language one can find words which will show more or less apparent changes in their meaning or usage,from full vigour, through a moribund state, to death, i.e. complete disappearance of the unit from the language.We’ll distinguish 3 stages in the aging process of words: 1) the beginning of the aging process when the word becomes rarely used. Such words are called obsolescent, i.e. they are in the stage of gradually passing out of general use; 2) The second group of archaic words are those that have already gone completely out of use butare still recognized by the English speaking community. These words are called obsolete. 3) The third group,which may be called archaic proper, are words which are no longer recognized in modern English, words thatwere in use in Old English and which have either dropped out of the language entirely or have changed in their appearance so much that they have become unrecognizable.There is another class of words which is erroneously classed as archaic, historic words. Words of this typenever disappear from the language.Archaic words are used in historical novels, in official and diplomatic documents, in business letters, legallanguage, etc. Archaic words, word-forms and word combinations are also used to create an elevated effect.

**d) Barbarisms and foreign words**

Barbarisms are words of foreign origin which have not entirely been assimilated into the English language.They bear the appearance of a borrowing and are felt as something alien to the native tongue. The greatmajority of the borrowed words now form part of the rank and file of the English vocabulary. There are somewords which retain their foreign appearance to greater or lesser degree. These words, which are called  barbarisms, are also considered to be on the outskirts of the literary language. Most of them have correspondingEnglish synonyms. Barbarisms are not made conspicuous in the text unless they bear a special load of stylisticinformation.Foreign words do not belong to the English vocabulary. In printed works foreign words and phrases aregenerally italicized to indicate their alien nature or their stylistic value. There are foreign words which fulfill aterminological function. Many foreign words and phrases have little by little entered the class of words named barbarisms and many of these barbarisms have gradually lost their foreign peculiarities, become more or lessnaturalized and have merged with the native English stock of words.Both foreign words and barbarisms are widely used in various styles of language with various aims, aimswhich predetermine their typical functions. One of these functions is to supply local color. Barbarisms andforeign words are used in various styles of writing, but are most often to be found in the style of belles-lettresand the publicistic style.

**e) literary coinages**

Every period in the development of a language produces an enormous number of new words or newmeanings of established words. Most of them do not live long. They are coined for use at the moment of speech, and therefore possess a peculiar property – that of temporariness. The given word or meaning holdsonly in the given context and is meant only to “serve the occasion”. However, a word or a meaning once fixedin writing may become part and parcel of the general vocabulary irrespective of the quality of the word.The coining of new words generally arises with the need to designate new concepts and also with the need toexpress nuances of meaning called forth by a deeper understanding of the nature of the phenomenon inquestion. There are 2 types of newly coined words: 1) those which designate new-born concepts, may be namedterminological coinages or terminological neologisms; 2) words coined because their creators seek expressiveutterance may be named stylistic coinages or stylistic neologism. Neologisms are mainly coined according to the productive models for word-building in the given languages.Most of the literary coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding.

**3. Special colloquial vocabulary**

**a) Slang**

The term slang is ambiguous and obscure. The “New Oxford English Dictionary” defines slang as follows:1) the special vocabulary used by any set of persons of low or disreputable character; language of a low andvulgar type…; 2) the cant or jargon of a certain class or period; 3) language of highly colloquial typeconsidered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or current wordsemployed in some special sense.In England and USA slang is regarded as the quintessence of colloquial speech and therefore stands aboveall the laws of grammar.

**b) Jargonisms**

Jargon is a recognized term for a group of words that exist in almost every language and whose aim is to preserve secrecy within one or another social group. Jargonisms are generally old words with entirely newmeanings imposed on them. Most of the jargonisms of any language are absolutely incomprehensible to thoseoutside the social group which has invented them. They may be defined as a code within a code. Jargonisms aresocial in character. In England and in the USA almost any social group of people has its own jargon. There is acommon jargon and special professional jargons. Jargonisms do not always remain on the outskirts of theliterary language. Many words entered the standard vocabulary.

**c) Professionalisms**

Professionalisms are the words used in a definite trade, profession or calling by people connected bycommon interests both at work or at home. Professional words name anew already existing concepts, tools or instruments, and have the typical properties of a special code. Their main feature is technicality. They aremonosemantic.Professionalisms do not aim at secrecy. They fulfill a socially useful function in communication, facilitatinga quick and adequate grasp of the message. Professionalisms are used in emotive prose to depict the naturalspeech of a character. The skilful use of a professional word will show not only the vocation of a character, butalso his education, breeding, environment and sometimes even his psychology.

**d) Dialectal words**

Dialectal words are those which in the process of integration of the English national language remained beyond its literary boundaries, and their use is generally confined to a definite locality. There sometimes is confusion between the terms dialectal, slang and vernacular. All these groups when used in emotive prose aremeant to characterize the speaker as a person of a certain locality, breeding, education, etc.Some dialectal words are universally accepted as recognized units of the standard colloquial English. Of quite a different nature are dialectal words which are easily recognized as corruptions of standard Englishwords. Dialectal words are only to be found in the style of emotive prose, very rarely in other styles. And evenhere their use is confined to the function of characterizing personalities through their speech.

**e) Vulgar words**

The term vulgarism is rather misleading. Webster’s “New International Dictionary” defines vulgarism as “avulgar phrase or expression, or one used only in colloquial, or, esp. in unrefined or low, speech”. I.R.Galperindefines vulgarisms as expletives or swear-words and obscene words and expressions.There are different degrees of vulgar words. Some of them, the obscene ones, are called “four-letter” words.A lesser degree of vulgarity is presented by expletives and they sometimes appear in euphemistic spelling.The function of vulgarisms is almost the same as that of interjections, that is to express strong emotions.They are not to be found in any style of speech except emotive prose, and here only in the direct speech of thecharacters.

**f) Colloquial coinages**

Colloquial coinages (nonce-words) are spontaneous and elusive. Most of them disappear from the languageleaving no trace in it. Some nonce-words and meanings may acquire legitimacy and thus become facts of thelanguage, while on the other hand they may be classified as literary or colloquial according to which of themeanings is being dealt with.When a nonce-word comes into general use and is fixed in dictionaries, it is classified as a neologism for avery short period of time. This shows the objective reality of contemporary life. Technical progress is so rapidthat it builds new notions and concepts which in their turn require new words to signify them. Nonce-coinageappears in all spheres of life. confusion between the terms dialectal, slang and vernacular. All these groups when used in emotive prose aremeant to characterize the speaker as a person of a certain locality, breeding, education, etc.Some dialectal words are universally accepted as recognized units of the standard colloquial English. Of quite a different nature are dialectal words which are easily recognized as corruptions of standard Englishwords. Dialectal words are only to be found in the style of emotive prose, very rarely in other styles. And evenhere their use is confined to the function of characterizing personalities through their speech.

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**16-MA’RUZA. THE MAIN PECULIARITIES OF THE VOCABULARY SYSTEM OF THE ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRIES**

**1. The vocabulary of Modern English**

**2. The development of English language in English-speaking countries**

**1. The vocabulary of Modern English**

The vocabulary of Modern English is approximately a quarter [Germanic](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Germanic-languages) (Old English, Scandinavian, Dutch, German) and two-thirds Italic or [Romance](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Romance-languages)(especially Latin, French, Spanish, Italian), with [copious](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/copious) and increasing importations from Greek in science and technology and with considerable borrowings from more than 300 other languages. Names of many basic concepts and things come from Old English or Anglo-Saxon: *heaven* and *earth*, *love* and *hate*, *life* and *death*, *beginning* and *end*, *day* and *night*, *month* and *year*, *heat* and *cold*, *way* and *path*, *meadow* and *stream*.

Cardinal numerals come from Old English, as do all the ordinal numerals except *second* (Old English *other*, which still retains its older meaning in “every other day”). *Second*comes from Latin *secundus* “following,” through French *second*, related to Latin *sequi* “to follow,” as in English *sequence*. From Old English come all the personal pronouns (except *they, their,* and *them*, which are from Scandinavian), the [auxiliary](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/auxiliary) verbs (except the marginal *used*, which is from French), most simple prepositions, and all conjunctions.

Numerous nouns would be identical whether they came from Old English or [Scandinavian](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Scandinavian-languages): *father, mother, brother* (but not *sister*); *man, wife*; *ground, land, tree, grass*; *summer, winter*; *cliff, dale*. Many verbs would also be identical, especially monosyllabic verbs—*bring, come, get, hear, meet, see, set, sit, spin, stand, think*. The same is true of the adjectives *full* and *wise*; the colour names *gray* (*grey*), *green,* and *white*; the possessives *mine* and *thine* (but not *ours* and *yours*); the terms *north* and *west* (but not *south* and *east*); and the prepositions *over* and *under*.

Just a few English and Scandinavian doublets coexist in current speech: *no* and *nay*, *yea* and *ay*, *from* and *fro*, *rear* (i.e., “to bring up”) and *raise*, *shirt* and *skirt* (both related to the adjective *short*), *less* and *loose*. From Scandinavian, *law* was borrowed early, whence *bylaw*, meaning *village law*, and *outlaw*, meaning “man outside the law.”

*Husband* (*hus-bondi*) meant “householder,” whether single or married, whereas *fellow* (*fe-lagi*) meant one who “lays fee” or shares property with another, and so “partner, shareholder.” From Scandinavian come the common nouns *axle* (tree), *band, birth, bloom, crook, dirt, egg, gait, gap, girth, knife, loan, race, rift, root, score, seat, skill, sky, snare, thrift,* and *window*; the adjectives *awkward, flat, happy, ill, loose, rotten, rugged, sly, tight, ugly, weak,* and *wrong*; and many verbs, including *call, cast, clasp, clip, crave, die, droop, drown, flit, gape, gasp, glitter, life, rake, rid, scare, scowl, skulk, snub, sprint, thrive, thrust,* and *want*.

**2. The development of English language in English-speaking countries**

The debt of the English language to [French](https://www.britannica.com/topic/French-language) is large. The terms *president, representative, legislature, congress, constitution,* and *parliament* are all French. So, too, are *duke, marquis, viscount,* and *baron*; but *king, queen, lord, lady, earl,*and *knight* are English. *City, village, court, palace, manor, mansion, residence,*and *domicile* are French; but *town, borough, hall, house, bower, room,* and *home*are English. Comparison between the many pairs of English and French synonyms shows that the former are more human and concrete, the latter more [intellectual](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/intellectual) and abstract; e.g., the terms *freedom* and *liberty*, *friendship* and *amity*, *hatred* and *enmity*, *love* and *affection*, *likelihood* and *probability*, *truth*and *veracity*, *lying* and *mendacity*.

The superiority of French cooking is duly recognized by the adoption of such culinary terms as *boil, broil, fry, grill, roast, souse,* and *toast*. *Breakfast* is English, but *dinner* and *supper* are French. *Hunt* is English, but *chase, quarry, scent,* and *track* are French. Craftsmen bear names of English origin: *baker, builder, fisher* (man), *hedger, miller, shepherd, shoemaker, wainwright,* and *weaver,* or *webber*. Names of skilled artisans, however, are French: *carpenter, draper, haberdasher, joiner, mason, painter, plumber,* and *tailor*.

Many terms relating to [dress](https://www.britannica.com/topic/dress-clothing) and [fashion](https://www.britannica.com/topic/fashion-society), [cuisine](https://www.britannica.com/topic/cuisine) and viniculture, politics and [diplomacy](https://www.britannica.com/topic/diplomacy), drama and [literature](https://www.britannica.com/art/literature), [art](https://www.britannica.com/art/visual-arts) and [ballet](https://www.britannica.com/art/ballet) come from French.

In the spheres of [science](https://www.britannica.com/topic/science) and [technology](https://www.britannica.com/topic/technology) many terms come from Classical Greek through French or directly from [Greek](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Greek-language).

[Hindi](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Hindi-language)—nabob, guru, sahib, maharajah, mahatma, pundit, punch (drink), juggernaut, cushy, jungle, thug, cheetah, shampoo, chit, dungaree, pucka, gymkhana, mantra, loot, pajamas, dinghy, polo

[Tamil](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Tamil-language)—pariah, curry, catamaran, mulligatawny

[Welsh](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Welsh-language)—flannel, coracle, cromlech, penguin, eisteddfod

[Cornish](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Cornish-language)—gull, brill, dolmen

Gaelic and [Irish](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Irish-language)—shamrock, brogue, leprechaun, ogham, Tory, galore, blarney, hooligan, clan, claymore, bog, plaid, slogan, sporran, cairn, whisky, pibroch

[Persian](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Persian-language)—paradise, divan, purdah, lilac, bazaar, shah, caravan, chess, salamander, taffeta, shawl, khaki

[Breton](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Breton-language)—menhir

[Norwegian](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Norwegian-language)—ski, ombudsman

[Finnish](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Finnish-language)—sauna

[Russian](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Russian-language)—kvass, ruble, tsar, verst, mammoth, ukase, astrakhan, vodka, samovar, tundra (from [Sami](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Sami-language)), troika, pogrom, duma, soviet, bolshevik, intelligentsia (from [Latin](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Latin-language) through [Polish](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Polish-language)), borscht, balalaika, sputnik, soyuz, salyut, lunokhod

Polish—mazurka

[Czech](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Czech-language)—robot

[Hungarian](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Hungarian-language)—goulash, paprika

[**Australian**](https://www.britannica.com/place/Australia)**and New Zealand English**

Unlike Canada, [Australia](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Emblems-of-Australia-1832693) has no concentration of a European language other than English within its borders. There are still many [Aboriginal languages](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Australian-Aboriginal-languages), though they each are spoken by small numbers and their continued existence is threatened. More than 80 percent of the population is of British descent, but significant growth in the numbers of immigrants, especially from Europe and the Pacific Rim countries, took place in the last quarter of the 20th century.

During colonial times the new settlers had to find names for fauna and flora (e.g., *banksia, iron bark, whee whee*) different from anything previously known to them: trees that shed bark instead of leaves and cherries with external stones. The words *brush, bush, creek, paddock,* and *scrub* acquired wider senses, whereas the terms *brook, dale, field, forest,* and *meadow* were seldom used. A creek leading out of a river and entering it again downstream was called an *anastomizing* branch (a term from anatomy), or an *anabranch,* whereas a creek coming to a dead end was called by its native name, a *billabong*. The giant kingfisher with its raucous bray was long referred to as a *laughing jackass*, later as a *bushman’s clock*, but now it is a *kookaburra*. Cattle so intractable that only roping could control them were said to be *ropable*, a term now used as a synonym for “angry” or “extremely annoyed.”

Some Australian English terms came from [Aboriginal peoples](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Australian-Aboriginal) and [Torres Strait Islander peoples](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Torres-Strait-Islander-people): the words *boomerang, corroboree* (warlike dance and then any large and noisy gathering), *dingo* (reddish brown wild dog), *galah* (cockatoo), *gunyah* (bush hut), *kangaroo, karri* (dark red eucalyptus tree), *nonda* (rosaceous tree yielding edible fruit), *wallaby* (small marsupial), and *wallaroo* (large rock kangaroo). Although there is remarkably little regional variation in pronunciation throughout the entire continent, there is significant social variation. The neutral vowel /ə/ (as the *a* in *sofa*) is frequently used, as in London [Cockney](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Cockney): *arches* and *archers* are both pronounced [*a*:t∫əz], and the pronunciations of the diphthongs in RP *day* and *go* are more like (RP) *die* and *now*.

Although [New Zealand](https://www.britannica.com/place/New-Zealand) lies over 1,000 miles away, much of the English spoken there is similar to that of Australia. The blanket term Austral English is sometimes used to cover the language of the whole of Australasia, but this term is far from popular with New Zealanders because it makes no reference to New Zealand and gives all the prominence, so they feel, to Australia. Between North and South Islands there are observable differences. In particular, [Maori](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Maori-language), which remains a living language (related to Tahitian, Hawaiian, and the other [Austronesian [Malayo-Polynesian] languages](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Austronesian-languages)), has a greater number of speakers and more influence in [North Island](https://www.britannica.com/place/North-Island).

**African English**

Africa is one of the world’s most multilingual areas, if people are measured against languages. Upon a large number of [indigenous](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/indigenous) languages rests a slowly changing superstructure of world languages (Arabic, English, French, and Portuguese). The problems of language are everywhere linked with political, social, economic, and educational factors.

The Republic of [South Africa](https://www.britannica.com/place/South-Africa), the oldest British settlement in the continent, resembles Canada in having two recognized European languages within its borders: English and [Afrikaans](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Afrikaans-language), or Cape Dutch. Both British and Dutch traders followed in the wake of 15th-century Portuguese explorers and have lived in widely varying war-and-peace relationships ever since. Although the Union of South Africa, comprising [Cape Province](https://www.britannica.com/place/Cape-Province), [Transvaal](https://www.britannica.com/place/Transvaal), [Natal](https://www.britannica.com/place/Natal-historical-province-South-Africa), and [Orange Free State](https://www.britannica.com/place/Orange-Free-State), was for more than a half century (1910–61) a member of the [British Empire and Commonwealth](https://www.britannica.com/place/British-Empire), its four prime ministers ([Louis Botha](https://www.britannica.com/biography/Louis-Botha), [Jan Smuts](https://www.britannica.com/biography/Jan-Smuts), [J.B.M. Hertzog](https://www.britannica.com/biography/J-B-M-Hertzog), and [Daniel F. Malan](https://www.britannica.com/biography/Daniel-Malan)) were all Dutchmen. The [Afrikaans language](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Afrikaans-language) began to diverge seriously from European Dutch in the late 18th century and gradually came to be recognized as a separate language. Although the English spoken in South Africa differs in some respects from standard British English, its speakers do not regard the language as a separate one.

They have naturally come to use many Afrikanerisms, such as *kloof*, *kopje*, *krans*, *veld*, and *vlei*, to denote features of the landscape and employ African names to designate local animals, plants, and social and political concepts. South Africa’s 1996 constitution identified 11 official languages, English among them. The words *trek* and *commando*, [notorious](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/notorious) in South African history, are among several that have entered world standard English.

Elsewhere in Africa, English helps to answer the needs of wider communication. It functions as an official language of administration in, and is an official language of, numerous countries, all of them multilingual. [Liberia](https://www.britannica.com/place/Liberia) is among the African countries with the deepest historical ties to English—the population most associated with the country’s founding migrated from the United States during the 19th century—but English is just one of more than two dozen languages spoken there by multiple ethnic groups. English’s place within that linguistic [diversity](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/diversity) is representative of English in Africa as a whole.

**17- MA’RUZA. THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH**

**1.British English**

**2. American English and its difference with BE**

English belongs to the [Indo-European family of languages](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Indo-European-languages) and is therefore related to most other languages spoken in [Europe](https://www.britannica.com/place/Europe) and western [Asia](https://www.britannica.com/place/Asia) from [Iceland](https://www.britannica.com/place/Iceland) to [India](https://www.britannica.com/place/India). The parent tongue, called Proto-Indo-European, was spoken about 5,000 years ago by nomads believed to have roamed the southeast European plains. [Germanic](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Germanic-languages), one of the language groups descended from this ancestral speech, is usually divided by scholars into three regional groups: [East](https://www.britannica.com/topic/East-Germanic-languages)(Burgundian, Vandal, and [Gothic](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Gothic-language), all extinct), North ([Icelandic](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Icelandic-language), [Faroese](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Faroese-language), [Norwegian](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Norwegian-language), [Swedish](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Swedish-language), and [Danish](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Danish-language)), and [West](https://www.britannica.com/topic/West-Germanic-languages) ([German](https://www.britannica.com/topic/German-language), [Dutch [and Flemish]](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Dutch-language), [Frisian](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Frisian-language), and English). Though closely related to English, German remains far more [conservative](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/conservative) than English in its retention of a fairly elaborate system of [inflections](https://www.britannica.com/topic/inflection). Frisian, spoken by the inhabitants of the Dutch province of [Friesland](https://www.britannica.com/place/Friesland)and the islands off the west coast of [Schleswig](https://www.britannica.com/place/Schleswig-Germany), is the language most nearly related to Modern English.

**1. British English**

The abbreviation RP ([Received Pronunciation](https://www.britannica.com/topic/Received-Pronunciation)) denotes what is traditionally considered the standard accent of people living in London and the southeast of England and of other people elsewhere who speak in this way. RP is the only British accent that has no specific geographical correlate: it is not possible, on hearing someone speak RP, to know which part of the [United Kingdom](https://www.britannica.com/topic/list-of-prime-ministers-of-Great-Britain-and-the-United-Kingdom-1800350) he or she comes from.

Though it is traditionally considered a “prestige” accent, RP is not intrinsically superior to other varieties of English; it is itself only one particular accent that has, through the accidents of history, achieved a higher status than others. Although acquiring its unique standing without the aid of any established authority, it was fostered by the public schools (Winchester, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and so on) and the ancient universities (Oxford and Cambridge). Other varieties of English are well preserved in spite of the leveling influences of film, television, and radio. In several Northern accents, RP /*a*:/ (the first vowel sound in *father*) is still pronounced /æ/ (a sound like the *a* in *fat*) in words such as *laugh, fast,* and *path*; this pronunciation has been carried across the Atlantic into American English.

**2. American English and its difference with BE**

The dialect regions of the [United States](https://www.britannica.com/place/United-States) are most clearly marked along the Atlantic littoral, where the earlier settlements were made. Three dialects can be defined: Northern, Midland, and Southern. Each has its subdialects.

The Northern dialect is spoken in [New England](https://www.britannica.com/place/New-England). Its six chief subdialects [comprise](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/comprise) northeastern New England ([Maine](https://www.britannica.com/place/Maine-state), [New Hampshire](https://www.britannica.com/place/New-Hampshire-state), and eastern [Vermont](https://www.britannica.com/place/Vermont)), southeastern New England (eastern [Massachusetts](https://www.britannica.com/place/Massachusetts), eastern [Connecticut](https://www.britannica.com/place/Connecticut), and [Rhode Island](https://www.britannica.com/place/Rhode-Island-state)), southwestern New England (western Massachusetts and western Connecticut), the inland north (western Vermont and upstate [New York](https://www.britannica.com/place/New-York-state)), the Hudson Valley, and metropolitan New York.

The Midland dialect is spoken in the coastal region from [Point Pleasant](https://www.britannica.com/place/Point-Pleasant-West-Virginia), in [New Jersey](https://www.britannica.com/place/New-Jersey), to [Dover](https://www.britannica.com/place/Dover-Delaware), in [Delaware](https://www.britannica.com/place/Delaware-state). Its seven major subdialects comprise the Delaware Valley, the Susquehanna Valley, the Upper Ohio Valley, northern [West Virginia](https://www.britannica.com/place/West-Virginia), the Upper Potomac and Shenandoah, southern West Virginia and eastern [Kentucky](https://www.britannica.com/place/Kentucky), western [North Carolina](https://www.britannica.com/place/North-Carolina-state) and [South Carolina](https://www.britannica.com/place/South-Carolina), and eastern [Tennessee](https://www.britannica.com/place/Tennessee).

The Southern dialect area covers the coastal region from Delaware to South Carolina. Its five chief subdialects comprise the [Delmarva Peninsula](https://www.britannica.com/place/Delmarva-Peninsula), the Virginia Piedmont, northeastern North Carolina (Albemarle Sound and Neuse Valley), Cape Fear and Pee Dee valleys, and the South Carolina Low Country, around [Charleston](https://www.britannica.com/place/Charleston-South-Carolina).

These boundaries, based on those of the *Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada*, are highly tentative. To some extent these regions preserve the traditional speech of southeastern and southern England, where most of the early colonists were born. The first settlers to arrive in Virginia (1607) and Massachusetts (1620) soon learned to adapt old words to new uses, but they were content to borrow names from the local Indian languages for unknown trees, such as *hickory* and *persimmon* and for unfamiliar animals, such as *raccoon* and *woodchuck*.

Later they took words from foreign settlers: *chowder* and *prairie* from the French, *scow* and *sleigh* from the Dutch. They made new [compounds](https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/compounds), such as *backwoods* and *bullfrog*, and gave new meanings to such words as *lumber* (which in British English denotes disused furniture, or junk) and *corn*(which in British English signifies any grain, especially wheat) to mean “maize.”

**18- MA’RUZA. METHODS USED IN LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH**

Methods of Lexicological Research

**a) The diachronic approach; b) The synchronic approach; c) Statistical methods;**

**Diachronic approach.**

The research methods used in Lexicology have always been closely connected with the general trends in Linguistics. The principles of comparative linguistics have played an important role in the development of a scientific approach to historical word study.

They have brought everything in order and classified information about the English vocabulary in their proper perspective.

The methods applied consisted in observation of speech, mostly written, collection and classification of data, hypotheses and systematic statements. Particular stress was put on the refinement of methods for collecting and classifying facts. The study of vocabulary became scientific.

The 19th century language study has recognized variety and change in language. Comparative philology insisted on reconstruction of the fundamental forms and meanings which have not come down to us. It was realized that the only basis for correctness is the usage of the native speakers of each language. They destroyed the myth of a Golden Age when all the words had their primary “correct” meaning and when the language was in a state of perfection from which it has deteriorated. It became clear from intensive work on the great historical dictionaries that multiple meaning for words is normal, not an “exception”. Comparative studies show that, save for specific technical terms, there are no two words in two languages that cover precisely the same area.

The greatest contribution, as far as English is concerned, were the Oxford English Dictionary and Data on the English vocabulary in works by H.Sweet, O.Jesperson, H.Poutsma, and others. Most of them were published in the 20th century but the main principles on which they were based were worked out in the 19th century.

In the beginning of the 20th century vocabulary study was still mainly concentrated on historical problems. In connection with the so-called word-and-thing method the study of words became a tool for the study of civilization.

A wide historical context was, in its turn, found indispensable in explaining vocabulary changes. In the process of studying some words or work, the linguists collected accurately chosen examples of usage, and arranged them according to the periods of language history (and for OE and ME according to dialects). These data were compared. As to conclusions about the meaning, they were drawn from the context and from what was known about the realia of the period.

Comparing words and morphemes with those from which they were derived it was possible to describe the processes at work in vocabulary development.

**The synchronic approach.**

The centre of interest has shifted to the synchronic level, the spoken utterance and structure. Lexicologists are now describing what the vocabulary of the language is like, rather than how it came to be that way.

The new trend has received the name structural (descriptive) linguistics. Its methodological principles can be summarized as follows: Language is to be analyzed by specifically linguistic methods, according to the specifically linguistic criteria, not as a combination of psychological, physiological and physical phenomenon. This analysis arrives at a definite number of discrete units, interdependent parts of relational structure, and each language is characterized by an internal structure of its own.

Descriptive linguistics can not be simply a list of elements, it must show how these elements are combined.

Structural linguistic has many varieties and schools. The main schools are those of Prague, the United States, Copenhagen, and more presently, London and Moscow.

A major achievements of the Prague school is represented in N.S.Trubetzkoy’s classical work, and means in the first place a particular approach to phonology (the theory of oppositions).

The typically American developments of linguistic theory resulted from practical tasks: the study of the America Indian languages, teaching of foreign languages, and recently, machine translation. Books by L.Bloomfield, E.Nida, B.Bloch, Z.Harris and others mark stages in the development of structuralist theory in the United States.

The main achievements of the American schools are the analysis into immediate constituents, substitution, distributional and transformational analysis.

Immediate constituents (IC) are the two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unity. The IC of bluish are blue- and –ish.

Substitution is testing of similarity by placing into identical environment:

It is reddish – it is some what red.

Substitution is also necessary for determining classes for words.

E.g. the words family, boy, and house all belong to different classes of nouns, as they are differently substituted:

I like this family – I like them

I like this boy – I like him

I like this house – I like it.

This linguistic feature and not the difference between the objects the words serve to denote, is the basis for their subdivision into collective, personal and object nouns.

The term distribution is used to denote the possible variants of the immediate lexical, grammatical and phonetical environment of a linguistic unit.

According to Z.Harris, “the distribution of an element is the total of all environments in which it occurs, i.e. the sum of all the positions of an element relative to the occurrence of other elements”.

E.g. she made him a good wife – she made a good wife for him.

**Statistical methods**

Modern structural ways of analysis are often combined with statistical procedures. Statistics describes how things are on the average. For a modern linguist it is not enough to know that it is allowable for a given structure to appear, he is interested in its frequency, in how often it appears.

Every lexicological research is based on collecting linguistic evidence, i.e. examples.

Having determined the object of research, the problem to be investigated and the set of units or phenomena to be described, the linguist proceeds to choose his method and collect and classify his data. He must have at hand a sufficiently wide choice of contexts so that his results might be statistically reliable. To know how many examples are necessary to make the conclusion, one must determine the relative frequency of the phenomenon or unit studied.

Mathematical statistics supplies the research workers with formulas showing the necessary scope of material depending on the amount of error they are prepared to tolerate.

When using a statistical method, it is true that some details are lost because statistical study is necessarily simplifying and abstract. G.Miller gives a clear picture of the situation when he says “At one time we look at the talker as generator of sound waves, and at another time he seems a fountain of prepositional phrases. The choice depends upon the interest”.

The process of scientific investigation may be subdivided into several ***stages:***

* **Observation** (statements of fact must be based on observation)
* **Classification** (orderly arrangement of the data)
* **Generalization**(formulation of a generalization or hypothesis, rule a law)
* **The verifying process**. Here, various procedures of linguistic analysis are commonly applied:

1). **Contrastive analysis** attempts to find out similarities and differences in both philogenically related and non-related languages. In fact contrastive analysis grew as the result of the errors which are made recurrently by foreign language students. They can be often traced back to the differences in structure between the target language and the language of the learner, detailed comparison of these two languages has been named **contrastive analysis**.

Contrastive analysis brings to light the essence of what is usually described as idiomatic English, idiomatic Russian etc., i.e. the peculiar way in which every language combines and structures in lexical units various concepts to denote extra-linguistic reality.

2). **Statistical analysis** is the quantitative study of a language phenomenon. Statistical linguistics is nowadays generally recognised as one of the major branches of linguistics. (frequency – room, collocability)

3). **Immediate constituents analysis.**The theory of Immediate Constituents (IC) was originally elaborated as an attempt to determine the ways in which lexical units are relevantly related to one another. The fundamental aim of IC analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent sequences or ICs thus revealing the hierarchical structure of this set.

4). **Distributional analysis and co-occurrence.**By the term **distribution**we understand the occurrence of a lexical unit relative to other lexical units of the same level (the position which lexical units occupy or may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech). Distributional analysis is mainly applied by the linguist to find out **sameness** or **difference** of meaning.

5). **Transformational analysis**can be definedas repatterning of various distributional structures in order to discover difference or sameness of meaning of practically identical distributional patterns. It may be also described as a kind of translation (transference of a message by different means).

6). **Componental analysis** (1950’s). In this analysis linguists proceed from the assumption that the smallest units of meaning are sememes (семема - семантическая единица) or semes (сема (минимальная единица содержания)) and that sememes and lexemes (or lexical items) are usually not in one-to-one but in one-to-many correspondence (e.g. in lexical item “woman”, semems are – human, female, adult). This analysis deals with individual meanings.

7).**Method of Semantic Differential** (set up by American psycholinguists). The analysis is concerned with measurement of differences of the connotational meaning, or the emotive charge, which is very hard to grasp.

**19-MA’RUZA. LEXICOGRAPHY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. ENGLISH DICTIONARIES AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT. LEARNING AND TEACHING VOCABULARY (MODERN TECHNOLOGIES)**

**1. Lexicography of the English language.**

**2. English dictionaries and their development.**

**3. Learning and teaching vocabulary (modern technologies)**

Lexicography is an important branch of linguistics which covers the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. The history of lexicography of the English language goes as far back as the Old English period where its first traces are found in the form of glosses of religious books with interlinear translation from Latin. Regular bilingual English-Latin dictionaries already existed in the 15th century.

The First unilingual English dictionary, explaining words appeared in 1604. Its aim was to explain difficult words. Its title was "A Table Alphabetical, containing and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard usual English words borrowed from the Hebrew, Greece, Latin or French". The volume of 120 pages explaining about 3000 words was compiled by Robert Cawdrey, a schoolmaster.

The first attempt at a bigger dictionary including all the words of the language, not only the difficult ones, was made by Nathaniel Bailey. He published the first edition of Universal Etymological English Dictionary in 1721. It was the first to include pronunciation and etymology.

The first big explanatory dictionary "A Dictionary of the English Language in Which the Words are Deduced from Their Originals and Illustrated in Their General Significations by Examples from the Best Writers: In 2 vols." was complied by Dr Samuel Johnson and published in 1755. The most important innovation of S. Johnson's Dictionary was the introduction of illustrations of the meanings of the words by examples from the best writers.

Pronunciation was not marked, because S. Johnson was very touch sure of the wide variety of the English pronunciation and thought it impossible to set up a standard there; he paid attention only to those aspects of vocabulary where he believed he could improve linguistic usage. S. Johnson's influence was tremendous. He remained the unquestionable authority for more than 75 years.

As to pronunciation, the first pronouncing dictionary was published in 1780 by Thomas Sheridan, grandfather of the great dramatist. In 1791 appeared The Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language by John Walker, an actor. The vogue of this second dictionary was very great, and in later publications Walker's pronunciations were inserted into S. Johnson's text - a further step to a unilingual dictionary in its present-day form.

The Golden Age of English lexicography began in the last quarter of the 19th century when the English Philological Society started work on compiling The Oxford English Dictionary (OED), which was originally named New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED). It is still referred to as either OED or NED.

The objective of this colossal work was and still is to trace the development of English words from their form in Old English. Where they were not found in Old English, it was shown when they were introduced into the language. The development of each meaning and its historical relation to other meanings of the same word is as well displayed. For words and meanings which have ' become obsolete the date of the latest occurrence is provided. All this is done by means of dated quotations ranging from the oldest to recent appearances of the words in question. The English of G.Chaucer, of the "Bible" and of W. Shakespeare is given as much attention as that of the most modern authors. The dictionary includes spellings, pronunciations and detailed etymologies. The completion of the work required more than 75 years. The result is a kind of encyclopaedia of language used not only for reference purposes but also as a basis for lexicological research.

The First part of the Dictionary appeared in 1884 and the last in 1928. Later it was issued in twelve volumes and in order to hold new words a three volume Supplement was issued in 1933. These volumes were revised in the seventies. Nearly all the material of the original Supplement was retained and a large body of the most recent accessions to the English language added.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English was first published in 1911, i.e. before the work on the main version was completed. It is not a historical dictionary but one of current usage. A still shorter form is The Pocket Oxford Dictionary. The latest edition of OED was undertaken in 1905. The new enlarged version was issued in 22 volumes 1994. Two Russian borrowings glasnost and perestroika were included in it. This publication was followed by a two volume Supplement to hold new words.

Another big dictionary, also created by joined effort of enthusiasts, is Joseph Wright's "English Dialect Dictionary". Before this dictionary could be started upon, a thorough study of English dialects had to be completed. With this target in view W.W. Skeat, famous for his "Etymological English Dictionary" founded the English Dialect Society in 1873. Dialects are of great importance for the historical study of the language. In the 19th century they were very pronounced though now they are almost disappearing. The Society existed till 1896 and issued 80 publications.

**2. English dictionaries and their development.**

Encyclopedic dictionaries are scientific reference books dealing with every branch of knowledge, or with one particular branch, usually in alphabetical order, e.g. the Oxford Paperback Encyclopedia, Random House Webster's Biographical Dictionary. Encyclopedic dictionaries are thing-books, that give information about the extra-linguistic world, they deal with facts and concepts. The best-known encyclopedias of the English-speaking world are the Encyclopaedia Britannica and the Encyclopaedia Americana.

Linguistic dictionaries are word-books the subject-matter of which is lexical units and their linguistic properties such as pronunciation, meaning, origin, peculiarities of use, and other linguistic information.

Linguistic dictionaries can be further divided into different categories by different criteria.

1)According to the scope of their word-list linguistic dictionaries are divided into general and restricted.

General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question. Some general dictionaries may have specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. They include frequency dictionary, a rhyming dictionary, a Thesaurus, etc.

Restricted dictionaries cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary. Restricted dictionaries can be subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (1), the type of the units themselves (2) or the relations existing between them (3).

2)According to the information they provide all linguistic dictionaries fall into two groups: explanatory and specialized.

Explanatory dictionaries present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered, e.g. the New Oxford Dictionary of English.

Specialized dictionaries deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage, e.g. the Longman Pronunciation Dictionary.

3)According to the language of explanations, whether the information about the items entered given in the same language or in another language, all dictionaries are divided into: monolingual and bilingual.

In monolingual dictionaries the words and the information about them are given in the same language, e.g. the New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary.

Bilingual dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language, e.g. the English-Russian Phraseolo­gical Dictionary (by Kunin). They may have two principal purposes: reference for translation and guidance for expression. Bilingual dictio­naries must provide an adequate translation of every item in the target language and expression in the source language.

4) Dictionaries also fall into diachronic and synchronic with regard to time.

Diachronic (historical) dictionaries reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered, e.g. the Oxford English Dictionary.

Synchronic (descriptive) dictionaries are concerned with the present-day meaning and usage of words, e.g. the Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.

Principles of compiling

The most important problems of lexicography are connected with:

1) the selection of lexical units for inclusion;

2) the arrangement of the selected lexical units;

3) the setting of the entry;

4) the selection and arrangement of word-meanings;

5) the definition of meanings;

6) the illustrative material.

1)The selection of lexical units for inclusion. The choice of lexical units for inclusion is the first problem the lexicographer faces. It is ne­cessary to decide:

* what types of lexical units will be chosen for the inclusion;
* the number of these items;
* what to select and what to leave out in the dictionary;
* which form of the language, spoken or written or both, the dictionary is to reflect;
* whether the dictionary should contain obsolete units, technical terms, dialectisms, colloquial­isms, and some others.

The choice among different possible answers depends upon the type to which the dictionary will belong, the aim the compilers pursue, the prospective user of the dictionary, the size of the dictionary, the linguistic concepts of the dictionary-makers and some other considerations. The units for inclusion may be drawn either from other dictionaries or/and from some reading matter or/and from the spoken discourse. For example, in the New Oxford Dictionary of English the extensive use has been made of the British National Corpus.

2)The arrangement of the selected lexical units. There are two modes of presentation of entries, the alphabetical order and the cluster-type, i. e. when the units entered are arranged in nests, based on this or that principle. For example, in synonym-books words are arranged in synonymic sets and its dominant member serves as the head-word of the entry.

3)The setting of the entry. The most complicated type of entry is that found in general explanatory dictionaries of the synchronic type. In such dictionaries the entry usually presents the following data: accepted spelling and pronunciation; grammatical characteristics including the indication of the part of speech of each entry word, whether nouns are countable or uncountable, the transitivity/intransitivity of verbs and irregular grammatical forms; definitions of meaning; modern currency; illustrative examples; derivatives; phraseology; etymology; sometimes synonyms and antonyms.

4)The selection and arrangement of word-meanings. There are at least three different ways in which the word meanings are arranged:

In the historical order (in the sequence of their historical development)

In the empirical or actual order (in conformity with their frequency of use)

In the logical order (according to their logical connection)

5)The definition of meanings. Meanings of words may be defined in different ways: a) by means of linguistic definitions that are only concerned with words as speech material. They are used in the majority of entries; b) by means of encyclopedic definitions that are concerned with things for which the words are names; c) by means of synonymous words and expressions; d) by means of cross-references.

The illustrative material. The presentation of illustrative material depends on the type of the dictionary and on the aim the compilers set themselves. They can illustrate the first and the last known occurrences j of the entry word, the successive changes in its meaning, as well as graphic and phonetic forms, the typical patterns and collocations; they place words in a context to clarify their meanings and usage.

**1.3. AMALIY MASHG’ULOT MAVZULARI**

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| **Lesson 1. The System of English Phonemes. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English. Word Stress in English. The Functions of Sentence Stress. Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.**  **Plan:**   * 1. **What is intonation?**   2. **Early treatments**   3. **Tonetic stress marks**   4. **Origins of the autosegmental approach to intonation**   5. **The phonetic basis**   6. **Functions of intonation**   7. **Types of tones**   **8. Same text, different tunes**  Jones (1960) - "the variations which take place in the pitch of the voice in connected speech, i.e. the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by vibration of the vocal cords."Unlike *lexical tone* (as in tone languages), changing intonation does not change the lexical identity/meaning of individual words, though it may alter the meaning of the sentence as a whole.*Pitch accent* languages (e.g. Japanese, Swedish) used to be regarded as an intermediate case: superficially like lexical tone languages, but phonologically pitch functions like stress in these languages. In most stress-accent languages, pitch is an important correlate of stress, so the dividing lines between tone, stress and pitch-accent are fuzzy.E.g. Steele (1775), Jones (1960) recorded intonation for whole sentences. Jones, following Kingdon (1958), analysed English intonation in terms of two sentence tunes. Refer to attached extracts from Jones for examples of the two tunes in use. It was recognised that the tunes might be distributed over a larger or smaller number of syllables, and that an utterance with several "sense groups" might have a multiply-peaked pitch contour, but the syntax of tunes was not explored deeply. O'Connor and Arnold (1973) divided intonation groups into four parts:  http://www.phon.ox.ac.uk/jcoleman/intonation_fig1.gif  1. The *pre-head* - all the initial unaccented syllables.  2. The *head*- between the pre-head and the nucleus.  3. The *nucleus*- the main accented syllable.  4. The *tail*- all the syllables after the nucleus.  They identified 10 tunes.Kingdon, O'Connor and Arnold and others employed a variety of diacritic symbols known as *tonetic*stress marks to denote various intonational events. *Accents*were held to be dynamic (contour) tones. The most important accents in English are:  Tonetic stress marks  (Current IPA tone marks include: high (level) tone: é, low (level) tone: è, (high) falling tone: ê, rising tone: Rising tone)  This approach, characteristically of structuralist methodology, concentrates on compendious exemplification and collection of large, annotated, orderly corpora of categorized examples, rather than the formulation of inviolable rules for determining the intonation patterns and their alignment with text.Goldsmith (1981) proposed that English lexical stress could be characterised by a MHL autosegmental melody, in which the H tone corresponds with the strongest stress, marked with a \*:  **English stress as tone**  Liberman (1975) pursued the same approach to characterise English intonation more generally. For example, he identified a LHM "calling" intonation, in which the H tone docks onto the main stress, and the initial L tone spreads in the usual autosegmental fashion to all pre-stress syllables:  Calling intonation  The fruition of this line of research is seen in Pierrehumbert (1980) and subsequent work from the same perspective (e.g. Liberman and Pierrehumbert 1984, Beckman and Pierrehumbert 1986, Pierrehumbert and Beckman 1988).Pre-Liberman approaches to intonation were based on impressionistic pitch records, supplemented by some instrumental analysis of *f*0. Pierrehumbert (1980: 3):  *What will be used here as the phonetic representation, or the output of these implementation rules, is the F0 contour. The choice of this representation as against a fine transcription in the character of IPA segmental transcription is theoretically motivated. One of the main themes of the work presented here is that interesting language-specific rules can be found all the way down to a quantitative description of speech. There is no well-defined level of description ... at which the linguist may leave off and turn his work over to the physiologist.*  Liberman, Pierrehumbert and Beckman were engaged in the construction of speech synthesis systems for English and Japanese, which required explicit control of *f*0and segmental durations (including pauses). (See Pierrehumbert 1981). All other phonetic parameters were generated by a scheme for concatenation of LPC-encoded diphones. Unlike much other research in linguistics, such work permits no hand-waving.  **Some properties of f0:**  a) *f*0corresponds to rate of vibration of the vocal cords. b) Therefore, *f*0= 0 during unvoiced speech e.g. during voiceless consonants as well as pauses. c) *f*0is therefore discontinuous, though there may be an underlying appearance of continuity (see fig. 1.5). d) The overall shape of the *f*0contour is under the conscious control of the speaker, but some speech sounds introduce fine-scale "microprosodic" perturbations, often due to aerodynamic factors. In particular, high vowels tend to raise *f*0; voiceless obstruents tend to raise *f*0at the start of the following vowel; and voiced consonants and the glottal stop are associated with a drop in *f*0. It is important not to mistake such perturbations for accents. e) Speakers do not usually use their full pitch range in speech. The actual range may vary e.g. be larger in more animated speech. In addition, speakers may employ a higher or lower "register" within their normal spoken pitch range. In some languages, register appears to be phonological. f) A speaker's pitch range may fall or rise during speech, independently of the falls and rises of *f*0:  Declination  This phenomenon is called *downdrift*or *declination*.  g) When the top line appears to step down, rather than gradually drift, we have the related phenomenon of *downstep*, *catathesis*or *tone terracing:*  Downstep  In tone languages, downstep typically affects H tones after a L. "List intonation" is similar eg. "Blueberries, bayberries, raspberries, mulberries and brambleberries". The high-pitched "calling" intonation in fig. 1.1C shows two high peaks. Pierrehumbert analysed such cases as an instance of downstep, and thus analysed the first accent as not just a simple H tone, but as a H on the stressed syllable, combined with a L target at the end of the first syllable, which conditions downstep of the following H tone. As in other areas of autosegmental phonology, Pierrehumbert treated dynamic accents as a sequence of two tones (bitonal accents).  **A. Intonation and syntactic structure**  1a) Here's a word you can look ûp. ("Up" is a particle.)  b) Here's a chimney you can lóòk up. ("Up" is a preposition.)  2 a) Bond had instructions to léàve. (So he left.)  b) Bond had instrûctions to leave. (So he left them.)  In the preceding examples, placement of the accent encodes a difference in syntactic structure. In the following examples, the major intonational phrase may be broken into two intermediate phrases, to denote a higher syntactic boundary.  3 a) Have you seen any Martians who have green nôses? (One phrase: restrictive relative.)  b) Have you seen any Mârtians, who have green nôses? (Two phrases: non-restrictive relative.)  4 a) He can't see cléàrly. (One accent, one phrase.)  b) He can't sèe, clèarly. (Two accents, two phrases.)  In earlier descriptive studies, this phrasing was regarded as a question of two intonational boundaries:  Word-group boundary: |  Tone-group boundary: ||  In contemporary approaches, intonation is characterized by a constituent structure (the prosodic hierarchy). In its simplest form, this is a simple two level structure:  Prosodic structure  Richer hierarchical structures were developed in Pierrehumbert and Beckman (1988).  **B. Intonation and meaning**  1 a) John*i* called Bill*j* a Republican, and then hé*j* insulted hîm*i*. (To call someone a Republican is an insult.)  b) John*i* called Bill*j* a Republican, and thén he*i* insûlted him*j*. (To call someone a Republican is not an insult.)  2 a) I didn't go, because my hâir was dirty.  b) I didn't go because my hâir was Rising tonedirty. (I went for some other reason.)  **C. Intonation and discourse structure, specifically focus**  Refer to fig. 15 A-C. The text is the same in each case. In fig. 1.5 A, *vitamins*is accented, and hence focussed. This intonation might be a suitable reply to the preface "Legumes aren't good for anything, are they?". In fig 1.5 B, *good*is accented, hence focussed. This pattern might be a suitable retort to "Aren't legumes a lousy source of vitamins?". In fig. 1.5 C, *legumes*is accented. Preface: "What's a good source of vitamins?".Pierrehumbert distinguished between different types of tonal targets. We have seen various examples of dynamic accents, which are the head elements of intonational phrases. In addition, Pierrehumbert proposed to use H and L **boundary tones** at the beginning and end of major phrases, as well as a H or L **phrase accent** at the end of each intermediate phrase. Unlike standard autosegmental theory, Pierrehumbert did *not*employ spreading to derive the tone of unaccented syllables, but saw that as a matter of phonetic interpolation between phonologically-specified targets. In other words, the phonological representation of intonation is phonetically underspecified.   * Phrase accents and boundary tones are edge elements that have a demarcative function. * Pitch accents are head elements with culminative function.   Pitch accents were marked with a \*  Phrase accents were marked with a -  Boundary tones were marked with a %  \*, - and % are just diacritics, unrelated to *f*0value. They only show how the tone is related to the text.  H* and L*  Phrase accents and boundary tones are not associated to segmental material, like pitch accents, but to prosodic nodes:  Association to prosodic structure  Refer to figs. 1.1 and 1.2:  1.1 A could be the answer to a question ("Who was that?")  1.1 B could be an answer to a question, with an indication of incompleteness  1.1 C "calling" intonation.  1.1 D "incredulous"  1.1 E "Is it Anna?"  1.2 A Answer to a question ("What's this?")  1.2 C Expression of surprise (focus on another).  9. Same tune, different texts - compare figs. 1.4 A and B.  10. Boundary tones  Initial H%: see figs. 1.2 C, and 1.4 A and B.  Final L%: see figs. 1.1 A, C, 1.2 A, B, C, etc.  Final H% See figs. 1.1 B, D, E, etc.  11. Pierrehumbert's Bitonal Pitch Accents  **L\* + H-** "Scoop". A low tone with sharp rise to a high peak. See fig. 1.1 D.  **L- + H\*** "Rising peak". A high peak preceded by a sharp rise from a valley in the lowest part of the pitch range. (Not illustrated here.)  **H\* + L-** A H\* that induces following downstep. (Abandoned since Silverman et al. 1992). See fig. 1.1 C.  **H- + L\*** Downstepped H that induces downstep on later H's. Characteristic of catathesis e.g.  Ebenezer  **H\* + H-** (Abandoned after Liberman and Pierrehumbert 1984).  12. The grammar of tonal sequences  Each English intonational phrase, then, has the following structure:   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **Optional intial boundary tone**: one of | **One or more pitch accents**: one of | **A phrase accent**: one of | **A final boundary tone**: one of | | H% | H\* | H- | H% | | L% | L\* | L- | L% | | None | L\* + H- |  |  | |  | L- + H\* |  |  | |  | H- + L\* |  |  |   Pierrehumbert (1980) characterised this structure by a finite-state transition network.  13. Work in progress  a) Extension to languages other than English:  Japanese - Beckman and Pierrehumbert (1986), Pierrehumbert and Beckman (1988)  Hausa - Inkelas and Leben (1990)  Dutch - van den Berg et al. (1992)  Swedish - Pierrehumbert and Beckman (1988: 243-251)  b) Intonational typology – Ladd  c) Standardization of intonation corpora for English: ToBI (Silverman *et al*. 1992, Beckman and Ayers 1994, Pitrelli *et al*. 1994)  d) Completely new views of intonation (e.g. Taylor 1994)  **Recommended Reading:**  Ladd (1992, 1996), Beckman and Pierrehumbert (1986)  **References**  Beckman, M. E. and G. M. Ayers (1994) Guidelines for ToBI labelling (version 2.0) Electronic document /opt/tobi/TOBI-TRAINING/labelling\_guide-V2.ASCII on OUPLSun.  Beckman, M. E. and J. B. Pierrehumbert (1986) Intonational structure in Japanese and English. *Phonology Yearbook* **3**. 255-309.  Bolinger, D. (1972) Accent is predictable (if you're a mind-reader). *Language* **48**. 633-44.  Crystal, D. 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Rietveld (1992) Downstep in Dutch: implications for a model. In G. J. Docherty and D. R. Ladd, eds. *Papers in Laboratory Phonology II: Gesture, Segment, Prosody*. Cambridge University Press. 335-35.  **Lesson2.The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds**  **Plan: 1.** T**he articulatory aspect**  **2.The acoustic aspect**  **3.The auditory aspect and**  **4.The linguistic aspect**  Speech sounds are of complex nature and have 4 different aspects, which are closely connected: **the articulatory aspect, the acoustic aspect, the auditory aspect and the linguistic aspect.** The ability to form language units is not the only property of the sound medium. In addition to it, the sound substance has its own independent properties as a physical phenomenon. Moreover, it is a product of human activity. Being created by the speaker, the sound substance indicates the speaker’s personality (sex, age, individual features), reveals his physiological and emotional state, geographical origin, education, social status and so on. Sound phenomena have different aspects. Every act of speech presupposes the presence of a person who speaks and a person who listens. The speaker produces sounds, the sounds travel through the air to the listener in the form of complex combinations of sound waves, the listener hears and interprets them. Communication is possible only because the speaker and the listener interpret the sounds as units of the same language.  **The articulatory aspect**. Speech sounds are products of human organs of speech. They result from the activities of the diaphragm, the lungs, the bronchi, the trachea, the larynx with the vocal cords in it, the pharynx, the mouth cavity with the speech organs in it and the nasal cavity. Sound production is impossible without respiration, which consists of two phases- inspiration and expiration. Speech sounds are based chiefly on inspiration, though in some African languages there are sounds produced by inspiration.  Expiration, during which speech sounds are produced, is called phonic expiration. It is distinct from quiet breathing. In phonic expiration the air comes from the lungs not freely but in spurts, because during speech the air passage is periodically blocked by the speech organs. Therefore in speech, expiration lasts much longer than inspiration, whereas in quite breathing inspiration and expiration each take about the same period of time. The lungs supply the necessary air-pressure and regulate its force. For example, the air pressure is greater on the peak of the syllable and it is less on its margins. Sound production actually takes place in the larynx, the pharynx and the oral and nasal cavities. The air-stream coming from the lungs undergoes important modifications in them. The other part of sound-production is articulation. The movements of speech organs modify the shape, size and volume supralanryngeat cavities. As a result, a vowel sound of a certain quality is produced. When there is an obstruction to the air-stream in the supralanryngeat cavities, a noise is produced. The character of the noise (friction or plosion) depends on the type of obstruction (a constriction or a complete closure) and determines the particular quality of a consonant. When an obstruction is created and the vocal cords vibrate, a voiced consonant is produced. When the vocal cords do not vibrate, the result is a voiceless consonant. Thus there are main sources of vibration in the production of speech sounds – **the vocal cords and various kinds of obstruction**. **The acoustic aspect**. Sounds can be analysed from the acoustic point of view. Like any other sound of nature speech sounds exist in the form of sound waves and have such physical properties as frequency, intensity, duration and spectrum. A sound wave is created by a vibration which may be periodic or non-periodic, simple or complex. The number of vibrations per second is called **frequency.** The complex range of intensified frequencies which form the quality of a sound is called the acoustic **spectrum of the sound**. **Intensity**of speech sounds depends on the amplitude of vibration. Changes in intensity are associated with stress in those languages which have dynamic stress. Intensity is measured in decibels. **The auditory aspect**. Speech sounds may also be analysed from the point of view of perception. It involves the activity of our hearing mechanism, which can be considered in two ways. On the one hand, it is a physiological mechanism, which reacts to acoustic stimuli. On the other hand, it is also a psychological mechanism, which selects from the great amount of acoustic information only that which is linguistically important. The human ear transforms mechanical vibrations of the ear into nervous stimuli and transmits them to the brain. The listener hears the acoustic features of fundamental frequency, format frequency, intensity and duration in terms of four perceptible categories of **pitch, quality, loudness and length.** **The linguistic aspect**. Segmental sounds and prosodic features are linguistic phenomena. Representing language units in actual speech, they perform certain linguistic functions. They constitute meaningful units- **morphemes, words, word-forms, utterances**. All the words of a language consist of speech sounds which are grouped and arranged in the way specific for the language and which are unified by stress. All the utterances consist of words and of sounds. They are characterized by certain **pitch-and-stress patterns, temporal features, rhythm**. The linguistic aspect of speech sounds is also called functional or social aspect, because of the role which sound matter play in the functioning of language as a social phenomenon. Segmental sounds and prosodic features of speech perform **constitutive, distinctive and identificatory functions.** The relations between the articulatory, acoustic, auditory and **linguistic aspects of speech sounds can be presented in the following way:**   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | Articulatory aspect | Acoustic aspect | Auditory aspect | Linguistic aspect | | Vibration of the vocal cords | Fundamental frequency | Pitch | Prosody (melody, stress) | | Different positions and movements of speech organs | Formant frequencies | Quality (timbre) | Phoneme, prosody (stress) | | The amplitude of vibrations | Intensity | Loudness | Prosody (stress) | | The quantity of time during which the sound is pronounced | Duration | Length | Prosody (tempo, rhythm) |   **Questions:**  **1. What sciences is phonetics connected with?**  **2. What are the main branches of phonetics?**  **3. What is the subject of special and general phonetics?**  **4. What is a phonetic system of a language?**  **5. What levels does the phonetic system of a language consist of?**  **6. What are segmental units of the language?**  **7. What are prosodic units of the language?**  **8. What subsystems do the segmental units form?**  **9. What subsystems do the prosodic units form?**  **10. What are the stages of human speech formation?**  **11. What aspect do sounds have?**  **12. What phases does respiration consist of?**  **13. What are the main sources of vibration in the production of speech sounds?**  **14. What is frequency?**  **15. What is spectrum?**  **16. How is intensity measured?**  **17. What are the perceptible features of auditory aspect of speech sounds?**  **18. What meaningful units do segmental sounds and prosodic features constitute?** |

**Lesson 3. Homonyms. The classification of homonyms. Homonymy and polysemy**

**Criteria of synonymity and classification of synonyms**

**Plan:**

**1.Diachronic approach to polysemy.**

**2. Classification of homonyms.**

If polysemy is viewed diachronically, it is understood as the growth and development of or, in general, as a change in the semantic structure of the word. Polysemy in diachronic terms implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones. In the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemantic word **table**we find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary meaning is ‘a flat slab of stone or wood’, which is proper to the word in the Old English period (*OE*. **tabule**from *L.***tabula);**all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later than the primary meaning, The terms secondary and derived meaning are to a certain extent synonymous. When we describe the meaning of the word as “secondary” we imply that it could not have appeared before the primary meaning was in existence. When we refer to the meaning as “derived” we imply not only that, but also that it is dependent on the primary meaning and somehow subordinate to it. In the case of the word **table,**e.g., we may say that the meaning ‘the food put on the table’ is a secondary meaning as it is derived from the meaning ‘a piece of furniture (on which meals are laid out)’. It follows that the main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word. Polysemy may also arise from homonymy. When two words become identical in sound-form, the meanings of the two words are felt as making up one semantic structure. Thus, the human **ear**and the **ear**of corn are from the diachronic point of view two homonyms. One is etymologically related to *L.***auris**, the other to *L.***acus, aceris**. Synchronically, however, they are perceived as two meanings of one and the same word. The **ear**of **corn**is felt to be a metaphor of the usual type (cf. the eye of the needle, the foot of the mountain) and consequently as one of the derived or, synchronically, minor meanings of the polysemantic word **ear.1** Homonyms – words identical in their spelling or/and sound form but different in their meaning. When analyzing homonymy, we see that some words are homonyms in all their forms, i.e. we observe ***full homonymy*** of the paradigms of two or more different words, e.g., in **seal1** — ‘a sea animal’ and **seal2** — ‘a design printed on paper by means of a stamp’. The paradigm “seal, seal’s, seals, seals’ ” is identical for both of them and gives no indication of whether it is **seal1** or **seal2**, that we are analysing. In other cases, e.g. **seal1** — ‘a sea animal’ and (to) seal, — ‘to close tightly’, we see that although some individual word - forms are homonymous, the whole of the paradigm is not identical. It is easily observed that only some of the word-forms (e.g. seal, seals, etc.) are homonymous, whereas others (e.g. sealed, sealing) are not. In such cases we cannot speak of homonymous words but only of homonymy of individual word-forms or of ***partial homonymy***. This is true of a number of other cases, e.g. compare **find**[faind], **found [**faund], **found**[faund], and **found**[faund], **founded**['faundid], **founded**['faundid]; **know**[nou], **knows**[nouz], **knew**[nju:], and **no**[nou]; **nose**[nouz], noses ['nouzis]; **new**[nju:] in which partial homonymy is observed. **Walter Skeat** classified homonyms into: 1) ***perfect homonyms*** (they have different meaning, but the same sound form & spelling: school - school); 2) ***homographs*** (Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different both in their sound-form and meaning, e.g. **tear***n*[tia] — ‘a drop of water that comes from the eye’ and **tear***v*[tea] — ‘to pull apart by force’.3) ***homophones*** are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and in meaning, e.g. **sea***n*and **see***v;***son** *n*and **sun***n.* **Smirnitsky**classified ***perfect homonyms*** into: 1) ***full homonyms*** (identical in spelling, sound form, grammatical meaning but different in lexical meaning: spring); 2) ***homoforms*** (the same sound form & spelling but different lexical and grammatical meaning: “reading” – gerund, particle 1, verbal noun). **Arnold**classified ***perfect homonyms*** by 4 criteria (lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms, paradigms) into 4 groups: 1) ***different only in lexical meaning*** (board - board); 2) ***different in lexical meaning & paradigms*** (to lie/lied/lied – lie/lay/lain); 3) ***identical only in basic forms***(light /adj./- light /noun/); 4***) identical only in one of their paradigms*** (a bit – bit /to bite/).

**Lesson 4. Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms**

**Plan:**

1. **Contradictories**
2. **Contraries**
3. **Incompatibles**

**Antonyms** – a class of words grouped together on the basis of the semantic relations of opposition. Antonyms are words belonging to one part of speech sharing certain common semantic characteristics and in this respect they are similar to such semantic classes as synonyms, lexical sets, lexico-semantic groups. (**lexical sets** (предметные или тематические группы) - words denoting different things correlated on extralinguistic grounds: *lion, tiger, leopard, puma, cat* refer to the lexical set of “the animals of the cat family’; words describing different sides of one and the same general notion are united in a **lexico-semantic group**: group denoting “physical movement” – *to go, to turn, to run*). There exist different classifications of antonyms.

Structurally, antonyms can be divided into antonyms of the same root (1), e.g. *to do – to undo, cheerful – cheerless*, and antonyms of different roots (2), e.g. *day – night, rich – poor*.

Semantically, antonyms may be classified into contradictories, contraries and incompatibles.

1. **Contradictories** represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like, for example, *dead – alive, single – married*. Contradictory antonyms are mutually opposed, they deny one another. Contradictories form a privative binary opposition, they are members of two-term sets. To use one of the words is to contradict the other and to use “not” before one of them is to make it semantically equivalent to the other: *not dead = alive; not single = married*.

2. **Contraries** are antonyms that can be arranged into a series according to the increasing difference in one of their qualities. The most distant elements of this series will be classified as contrary notions. Contraries are **gradable antonyms,** they are polar members of a gradual opposition which may have intermediate members. This may be observed in *cold – hot* and *cool – warm* which are intermediate members. Thus, we may regard as antonyms not only *cold* and *hot*but also *cold* and *warm*. Contrary antonyms may also be considered in terms of degrees of the quality involved. Thus, water may be *cold* or *very cold*, and water in one glass may be *colder* than in another glass.

3. **Incompatibles** are antonyms which are characterized by the relations of exclusion. Semantic relations of incompatibility exist among antonyms with a common component of meaning and may be described as the reverse of hyponymy. For example, to say *morning* is to say *not afternoon*, *not evening, not night*. The use of one member of this set implies the exclusion of the other members of the set. Incompatibles differ from contradictories as incompatibles are members of the multiple-term sets while contradictories are members of two-term sets. A relation of incompatibility may be also observed between colour terms since the choice of *red,* for example, entails the exclusion of *black, blue, yellow*, etc.