

**МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ
ЛУГАНСКОЙ НАРОДНОЙ РЕСПУБЛИКИ
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УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ИМЕНИ ТАРАСА ШЕВЧЕНКО»**

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Теоретический курс английского языка

Учебно-методическое пособие
для студентов заочной формы обучения по направлению
подготовки 45.03.01 «Филология. Английский язык и
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Учебно-методическое пособие предназначено для студентов заочной формы обучения по направлению подготовки 45.03.01 «Филология. (Английский язык и литература)».

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

«Теоретический курс английского языка» – комплексная учебная дисциплина, основной целью которой является формирование у студентов представления о системе современного английского языка и основных этапах ее эволюции, ознакомление их с традиционными и новейшими методами описания языка в синхронии и диахронии, а также с принципами и методами описания языковой системы английского языка с точки зрения различных школ и направлений.

Настоящее пособие представляет собой комплекс методических рекомендаций по изучению тем, предусмотренных программами дисциплин «Лексикология английского языка» и «Теоретическая грамматика английского языка», каждая из которых имеет свою специфику, цели и задачи.

Цель курса «Лексикология английского языка» – ознакомление студентов с основными теоретическими положениями современной лексикологии в области английского языка. Задачи курса состоят в том, чтобы на основе всестороннего изучения конкретных фактов лексики, ознакомить студентов с общей характеристикой современного состояния словарного состава английского языка, со специфическими его особенностями и структурными моделями, входящих в него слов, продуктивными и непродуктивными способами словообразования, системным характером английской лексики, обуславливающими ее национальным своеобразием закономерностей и т.д.

Целью курса «Теоретическая грамматика английского языка» является ознакомление студентов с современными представлениями о грамматике английского языка, ее специфике, а также с лингвистическими методами исследования английского языка. Задачи курса состоят в развитии навыков использования понятийного аппарата в описании грамматических явлений, проведения грамматического анализа и выработке умения работать с научной литературой и применять полученные теоретические знания на практике.

Специфика «Теоретического курса английского языка» заключается, с одной стороны, в том, что он является теоретической базой для практического овладения словарным составом языка и его грамматическим строем, а с другой, – опирается на знания студентов, полученные на занятиях по практическому курсу английского языка, истории английского языка, практической грамматики английского языка.

Эффективное изучение тем «Теоретического курса английского языка» предполагает определенную последовательность работы, которая включает изучение круга понятий посредством обзора теоретической литературы, ее критического анализа, и активизацию теоретической базы в ходе выполнения заданий самостоятельной работы.

При самостоятельном изучении темы студентам рекомендуется выполнить следующие виды работ:

1) чтение англоязычных текстов и текстов на родном языке по изучаемым темам с целью уяснения различных точек зрения на конкретные вопросы и корреляции терминологии;

2) использование электронных вариантов учебного материала, созданных на кафедре;

3) использование Интернета;

4) ответы на вопросы, изложенные в разделах и составление банка примеров; подготовка докладов.

Чтобы помочь студентам лучше ориентироваться в довольно обширном теоретическом материале дисциплин, авторы пособия предлагают им в разделах BASIC NOTIONS для каждой темы модулей краткий пересказ основных положений и базовых понятий, которые изложены в научной и учебной литературе (см. Библиографический список). Чтобы закрепить полученные знания студентам предлагается выполнить разнообразные задания в разделах PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS.

Программой дисциплины предусмотрены следующие виды контроля: текущий контроль успеваемости в форме индивидуального и фронтального опроса, промежуточный контроль в форме модульных контрольных работ, итоговый контроль в форме письменного экзамена.

Раздел 1
ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

МОДУЛЬ 1

**Тема 1. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF
LEXICOLOGY**

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- иметь чёткое представление об основных положениях лексикологии английского языка и ее месте в системе языковых дисциплин;
- знать и уметь охарактеризовать отрасли лексикологии;
- знать виды лексикологии;
- иметь представление о связи лексикологии с другими лингвистическими дисциплинами;
- уметь отличать диахронический подход к изучению языка от синхронического подхода.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What Greek morphemes is the term “lexicology” composed of?
2. What does lexicology study?
3. What does the term “word” mean?
4. What is meant by the term “vocabulary”?
5. What are the constituent parts of lexicology?
6. What does general lexicology study?
7. What is understood by the term “language universals”?
8. What is the object of study of special lexicology?
9. What does historical lexicology deal with?
10. What does descriptive lexicology study?
11. What does comparative lexicology deal with?
12. What linguistic disciplines does lexicology have close ties with?
13. What does the synchronic approach deal with?

14. What is the diachronic approach concerned with?
15. Why are these two approaches interconnected and interdependent?
16. Why do you think the course of English lexicology is of great practical importance for the language learner?

MODULE 1

Part 1. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LEXICOLOGY

Problems to discuss:

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.
2. Constituent parts (or branches) of lexicology.
3. Types of lexicology.
4. The connection of lexicology with other linguistic disciplines.
5. Two approaches to language study: synchronic and diachronic.

Key words: comparative lexicology, descriptive lexicology, diachronic approach, general lexicology, historical lexicology, language universals, lexicology, special lexicology, synchronic approach, vocabulary, word.

Recommended Reading:

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BASIC NOTIONS

The term “*lexicology*” is of Greek origin. It is composed of two morphemes: *lexis* and *logos*. The morpheme “*lexis*” means “*word*”. The morpheme “*logos*” denotes “*science*”. Thus the literal meaning of the term “*lexicology*” is “*the science of the word*”. In modern linguistics lexicology is considered to be one of the branches of science dealing with the vocabulary of a language and different characteristic features of words.

The term “*word*” denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning.

The term “*vocabulary*” or “*stock of words*” is used to denote the system formed by the total sum of all the words that the language has.

Lexicology has such subdivisions as:

1. *Semasiology* (it deals with the meaning of the word).
2. *Word-formation* (it studies all possible ways of forming new words in the English language).
3. *Etymology* (it studies the origin of words).
4. *Phraseology* (it studies the specifics of phraseological units).
5. *Lexicography* (it is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries).

There are five types of lexicology:

- 1) general;
- 2) special;
- 3) historical;
- 4) descriptive;
- 5) comparative.

General lexicology is a part of General Linguistics that studies the general properties of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. It deals with the peculiarities of words and vocabulary common to all the languages. It attempts to find out the universals of vocabulary development and

patterns. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally called **language universals**.

Special lexicology is the lexicology of a particular language (e.g.: *English, German, Russian, etc.*), i.e. the study and description of its words and vocabulary. Special lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology.

Historical lexicology studies the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations and the development of their sound form and meaning.

Descriptive lexicology studies the vocabulary of a particular language at a definite stage of its development.

Comparative lexicology deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared (e.g.: *Russian – English lexicology, English – German lexicology, etc.*).

Lexicology is closely connected with such branches of linguistics as:

1. **Phonetics** (because it is concerned with the study of the word, i.e. with the sound form of the word).

2. **Morphology** and **Word-formation** (because the word's structure is a fixed sequence of morphemes; the word's content is a unity of lexical and grammatical meanings).

3. **Syntax** (because the word functions as a part of the sentence and performs a certain syntactical function).

4. **Stylistics, Socio-** and **Psycholinguistics** (because the word functions in different situations and spheres of life).

There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely the **synchronic** (or *descriptive*) **approach** and the **diachronic** (or *historical*) **approach**.

The **synchronic approach** deals with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given period of time, e.g. *at the present time*.

The **diachronic approach** is concerned with the changes and the development of the vocabulary of a language in the course of time.

Тема 2. THE SPECIFICS OF WORD-MEANING IN MODERN ENGLISH

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать, что такое семасиология;
- иметь представление о различных видах значения слова;
- знать и уметь охарактеризовать семантические компоненты значения слова;
- знать и уметь охарактеризовать виды семантических изменений значения слова.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is semasiology?
2. What do you understand by the term “word-meaning”?
2. What types of word-meaning can be singled out?
3. What is meant by the grammatical meaning? Give examples.
4. What is the lexical meaning? Give example.
5. What is understood by the part-of-speech meaning? Give examples.
6. What semantic components of word-meaning do you know? Give examples.
7. What is the difference between denotation and connotation? Give examples.
8. Name and characterize the types of semantic changes of word-meaning.
9. Explain the difference between specialization and generalization. Give examples.
10. What do you understand by metaphor? Give examples.
11. What is meant by metonymy? Give examples.
12. What is elevation? Give examples.
13. What do you understand by degradation? Give examples.
14. What is understood by the term “hyperbole”? Give examples.
15. What does the term “litotes” mean? Give examples.

Part 2. THE SPECIFICS OF WORD-MEANING IN MODERN ENGLISH

Problems to discuss:

1. The essence of semasiology.
2. Types of word-meaning.
3. Semantic components of word-meaning.
4. Semantic changes of word-meaning:
 - 4.1. Specialization and generalization;
 - 4.2. Metaphor and metonymy;
 - 4.3. Elevation and degradation;
 - 4.4. Hyperbole and litotes.

Key words: semasiology, grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, part-of-speech meaning, denotative component (or denotation), connotative component (or connotation), semantic changes, specialization, generalization, metaphor, metonymy, elevation, degradation, hyperbole, litotes.

Recommended Reading:

1. Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие / Г.Б. Антрушина, О.В. Афанасьева, Н.Н. Морозова. – М. : Дрофа, 1999. – Глава 7–8.
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BASIC NOTIONS

The branch of lexicology which deals with the meaning of the word is called *semasiology*. The name comes from the Greek *sēmasia* “signification” (from *sēma* “sign” and *sēmantikos* “significant”).

The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic grouping and connections in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, terminological systems, etc.

There are three types of word-meaning: *grammatical*, *lexical*, and *part-of-speech* (or *lexico-grammatical*). The two main types of word-meaning are the grammatical meaning and the lexical meaning.

The grammatical meaning is defined as an expression in speech of relationship between words. Grammatical meaning is the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, for example, the tense meaning in the word-forms of the verbs: *walked*, *asked*, *thought*; the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns: *girl's*, *boy's*; the meaning of plurality which is found in the word-forms of nouns: *tables*, *books*, *towns*.

The lexical meaning is the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. The word-forms *go*, *goes*, *went*, *going*, *gone* have different grammatical meanings of tense, person, number, but in each form they have one and the same semantic component meaning “*the process of movement*”.

The essence of *the part-of-speech meaning* of a word is revealed in the classification of lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.).

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component which may be viewed as the lexical component of the part-of-speech meaning. For example, the meaning of thingness or substantiality may be found in all the nouns, e.g. *table, love, sugar*, though they have different grammatical meaning of number and case.

The grammatical aspect of the part-of-speech meaning is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms. If we describe the word as a noun we mean to say that it is bound to have a set of forms expressing the grammatical meaning of number (*table – tables*) and case (*boy – boy's*).

The main semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed *denotative component* or *denotation*. *Denotation* is the literal meaning of a word. The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word. For example, the denotation of the word “*orphan*” is “*a child, one or both of whose parents are dead*”. The denotative meaning of a word is provided in a dictionary and accepted at a given time by all the people who use the word.

To give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, it is necessary to take into consideration additional semantic components which are termed *connotative components* or *connotations*. *Connotation* is the non-literal meaning of a word; the set of associations that a word evokes beyond its literal meaning. For example, the connotation of the word “*orphan*” is “*loss, emptiness, lovelessness, and general unhappiness*”. The connotative meaning is more variable, figurative and subjective. It includes the feelings and emotions a word evokes in people and the socio-cultural and personal associations that arise from a person's class, race, gender, religion and so forth.

The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Changes of word-meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times.

The causes of semantic changes can be extra-linguistic and linguistic. For example, the change of the lexical meaning of the noun *pen* was due to extra-linguistic causes. Primarily the word “*pen*” comes

back to the Latin word *penna* (a feather of a bird). As people wrote with goose pens the name was transferred to steel pens which were later on used for writing. Still later any instrument for writing was called *a pen*.

On the other hand, causes can be linguistic. For example, the conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may specialize in its meaning, e.g.: the noun “*tide*” in Old English was polysemantic and denoted *time, season, hour*. When the French words *time, season, hour* were borrowed into English they ousted the word “*tide*” in these meanings. It was specialized and now means *regular rise and fall of the sea caused by attraction of the moon*.

Specialization is a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication. For example, the word “*case*” has a general meaning “*circumstances in which a person or a thing is*”. It is specialized in its meaning when used in law (*a lawsuit*), in grammar (*a form in the paradigm of a noun*), in medicine (*a patient, an illness*). The difference between these meanings is revealed in the context.

Generalization is a process contrary to specialization, in such cases the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time. The transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one is most frequent, e.g.: the word “*ready*” (a derivative from the verb “*ridan*” – *ride*) meant “*prepared for a ride*”, now its meaning is “*prepared for anything*”.

Metaphor is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

1) similarity of position, e.g.: *foot (of a page, of a mountain), head (of a procession)*;

2) similarity of shape, e.g.: *head (of a cabbage), bottleneck, teeth (of a saw, a comb)*;

3) similarity of function, behavior, e.g.: *a bookworm* (a person who is fond of books);

4) similarity of colour, e.g.: *hazel, orange, chestnut*.

In some cases we have a complex similarity, e.g.: *the leg of a table* has a similarity to a human leg in its shape, position and function.

Many metaphors are based on parts of a human body, e.g.: *an eye of a needle, head of an army, arms and mouth of a river.*

Metonymy is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. Metonymy is subdivided into the following types:

1) the material of which an object is made may become the name of the object, e.g.: *a glass, boards, an iron, etc.;*

2) the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, e.g.: *the House – members of Parliament, the White House – the Administration of the USA;*

3) names of musical instruments may become names of musicians when they are united in an orchestra, e.g.: *the violin, the piano, the saxophone, etc.;*

4) names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, e.g.: *watt, om, roentgen, etc.;*

5) some geographical names can become common nouns through metonymy, e.g.: *china* (porcelain), *Brussels* (a special kind of carpets), *holland* (linen fabrics), *astrakhan* (a sheep fur), etc.

Elevation is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes better in the course of time, e.g.: *knight* originally meant *a boy*, then *a young servant*, then *a military servant*, then *a noble man*. Now it is a title of nobility given to outstanding people.

Degradation is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes worse in the course of time. It is usually connected with nouns denoting common people, e.g.: *villain* originally meant *working on a villa*, now it means *a scoundrel*.

Hyperbole is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g.: *not to see somebody for ages*. The same can be said about such sentences as: *You'll be the death of me. It's a nightmare. A thousand pardons*. Hyperbole is often used to form phraseological units, e.g.: *to split hairs, to make a mountain out of a molehill*.

Litotes is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker expresses the affirmative with the negative or vice versa, e.g.: *not bad, no coward, not half as important*.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Group the following words into three columns in accordance with the sameness of their 1) grammatical; 2) lexical; 3) part-of-speech meaning.

During, boy's, lamp, go, nearest, boys, at, thought, beautiful, nearer, boy, think, man, handsome, went, friend's, for, near, thinking, the most beautiful, table, ship's, drift, wrote, tremendous.

Task 2. Identify the denotational and connotational aspects of lexical meaning of the given words. Analyze the similarity and difference between the components of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning in the given pairs of words.

For example: *celebrated* – *notorious*

Words	Denotational and connotational aspects	Components of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning which specify the difference between the words
celebrated	widely known, admired and talked about by many people because of good qualities	evaluation (positive)
notorious	widely known because of something bad	evaluation (negative)

Adventure – ordeal; to glance – to glare; sophisticated – hardened; to deal with – to grapple with; perfect – flawless; adulation – respect; to murmur – to mutter; ugly – repulsive.

Task 3. State the difference in the pragmatic aspect of lexical meaning in the following pairs of words. Pay special attention to the register of communication. State the possible participants of the

communicative situation and their roles on which tenors of discourse are based.

For example: *to interrupt – to butt in*

Don't *interrupt* when your mother is speaking. There is an awful man in the front row who *butts* in whenever you pause.

Words	Register of communication	Participants of the communicative situation	Roles, which tenors of discourse are based on
interrupt	neutral	parent – child	family roles
butt in	informal	people who know each other well enough	social roles

1. *Picture – photograph*: Sarah showed me a *picture* of her new boyfriend – he's very good-looking. Visitors are not allowed to take *photographs* inside the museum. 2. *Certainly – unquestionably*: I'm sorry if upset you, dear. I *certainly* didn't mean to. Japan has *unquestionably* one of the most successful economies in the world. 3. *Skirt – girl*: So, Tom, off to chase some *skirt*? I didn't know you were friends with the *girl* I had seen you with last night. 4. *Dough – money*: He only married her for her *dough*. How much *money* will you pay me for this work, sir? 5. *Quality – thing*: There are certain *qualities* in Orwell's prose that I greatly admire. One of the *things* I like about Mary is the way she always keeps smiling, even when there are problems.

Task 4. Comment on the phenomenon of metaphor. State on what signs of resemblance the following cases of metaphor are based.

Ear (ушко), egg (бомба), face (фасад), arm (рукоятка), hand (стрелка), heart (центр), nose (носик), leg (ножка), tube (метро).

Task 5. Comment on the etymology and meaning of the following cases of metonymy.

Boycott, cardigan, bikini, china, boston, champagne, Fleet Street, the White House, bordeaux, the Pentagon, colt, malaga, cheviot, Downing Street, sardines, tweed, hooligan, sandwich, mackintosh, Wall Street, raglan.

Task 6. Comment on the elevation of meaning in the following words.

Fame, knight, minister, adore, handsome, marshal, nice.

Task 7. Trace the process of degradation of meaning of the following words.

Silly, boor, idiot, vulgar, gossip.

Task 8. Comment on the phenomenon of hyperbole. Point out the hyperbole in the following sentences.

1. I am for a sleep.
2. It was ages since we had seen last.
3. I'd give the world to see her.
4. This is a world of effort, you know, Fanny.
5. He always had millions of reasons.
6. She was thunder-struck.
7. I was unutterably astonished by his coming.
8. I have told you fifty times that it's a magnificent idea.
9. Don't shed floods of tears!
10. It'll be the death for him, believe me.
11. I was horribly amazed.

Task 9. Comment on the phenomenon of litotes. Point out the litotes in the following sentences.

1. "I'd like to know your opinion of him." "He is no conjurer."
2. "How do you like it?" "Not bad, rather decent."
3. "The soup is delicious!" "Yes, it's quite decent."
4. "It's splendid!" "Yes, it's not dusty."
5. "He was fighting courageously." "Yes, he was not a coward."

6. “I think, his acting will be highly praised.” “Yes, it’s really far from bad.”

Тема 3. POLYSEMY. HOMONYMY

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать, что такое полисемия;
- уметь различать виды полисемии;
- знать определение понятия «омоним»;
- иметь представление об основных источниках происхождения омонимов;
- знать классификацию омонимов.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is polysemy? Give examples.
2. What are monosemantic and polysemantic words?
3. Why is it important to differentiate between “meaning” and “usage”?
4. What does the term “lexico-semantic variants” mean?
5. What is understood by the term “semantic centre of the word”?
6. What is metaphorical polysemy? Give examples.
7. What is metonymic polysemy? Give examples.
8. What does the term “context” mean?
9. What types of linguistic contexts do you know?
10. What do you understand by the extra-linguistic context?
11. What are homonyms?
12. What types of homonyms do you know?

Part 3. POLYSEMY. HOMONYMY

Problems to discuss:

1. The essence of polysemy.
2. Types of polysemy: metaphorical and metonymic.
3. Polysemy and Context. Types of Context.

4. The definition of the term “homonym” and the origin of homonyms.

5. Classification of homonyms.

Key words: polysemantic word, polysemy, monosemantic word, metaphorical polysemy, metonymic polysemy, meaning, usage, lexico-semantic variants, semantic centre, linguistic context, extra-linguistic context, homonymy, homonym proper, homophone, homographs.

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BASIC NOTIONS

The term “**polysemy**” is derived from Greek **poly-** meaning “**many**” and **sem-** denoting “**sense**” or “**meaning**”. By **polysemy** we mean the diversity of meanings, the existence within one word of several connected meanings as the result of the development and changes of its original meaning. A word that has several meanings is called **polysemantic**. For instance, the noun **flight** is said to be polysemantic, because it may mean: 1) the act of flying; 2) the distance covered or course followed by a flying object; 3) a trip by plane; 4) the

aircraft making the journey; 5) a group of birds or aircrafts flying together; 6) an effort that goes beyond the usual limits; 7) a set of stairs as between floors; 8) swift movement or passage.

Words having only one meaning are called *monosemantic*. Monosemantic words are few in number. These are mainly scientific terms.

A great contribution to the development of the problem of polysemy was made by the Russian linguist V.V. Vinogradov. According to his viewpoint, it is important to differentiate between “*meaning*” and “*usage*” (a contextual variant). *Meanings* are fixed and common to all people, who know the language system. The *usage* is only a possible application of one of the meanings of a polysemantic word, sometimes very individual, sometimes more or less familiar.

A.I. Smirnitsky introduced the term “*lexico-semantic variant*”. A *lexico-semantic variant* is a two-facet unit, the formal facet of which is the sound-form of a word, while the content facet is one of the meanings of the given word, i.e. the designation of a certain class of objects.

The *semantic centre of the word* is the part of meaning which remains constant in all the lexico-semantic variants of the word.

Polysemy can be divided into two types. The first type of polysemy is motivated by *metaphor*. In *metaphorical polysemy*, a relation of analogy is assumed to hold between the senses of the word. The basic sense of metaphorical polysemy is literal, whereas its secondary sense is figurative. For example, the ambiguous word “*eye*” has the literal basic sense “*organ of the body*” and the figurative secondary sense “*hole in a needle*”. Another type of polysemy is motivated by *metonymy*. In metonymic polysemy, both the basic sense and the secondary sense are literal. We can illustrate this with the help of the ambiguous word “*chicken*” that has the literal basic sense referring to “*the fowl*” and the literal secondary sense of “*the meat of that fowl*”.

The term “*context*” means the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. Contexts may be divided into two types: *linguistic* and *extra-linguistic*. *Linguistic contexts* may be of two types: *lexical* and *grammatical*. In lexical contexts of primary importance are the groups of lexical items combined

with the polysemantic word under consideration. In grammatical contexts it is the grammatical (syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. There are cases when the meaning of a word is ultimately determined by the actual speech situation in which the word is used, i.e. by the *extra-linguistic context*.

Homonymy is the coincidence in the same sound form and the orthographic complex of two or more different linguistic units.

By **homonyms** we mean words which have identical sounding or spelling, or at least, one of these, but have nothing in common in their meanings. For instance, the word **stalk** (as a noun – *part of a plant* and as a verb – *to follow/harass a person*) and **leaf** (which means *part of a plant* or *the page of a book*).

According to the most standard classification homonyms may be divided into the following types:

– **homonyms proper** (words that share the same spelling and the same pronunciation, but have different meanings, e.g.: **lap** – “*circuit of a course*” and **lap** – “*part of the body when sitting down*”; **bark** – “*the noise made by a dog*” and **bark** – “*the skin of a tree*”);

– **homophones** (words that share the same pronunciation, but have different spelling and meanings, e.g.: **ring** – **wring**, **threw** – **through**, **rode** – **rowed**, **route** – **root**);

– **homographs** (words that share the same spelling, but have different pronunciation and meanings, e.g.: **bow** [bau] – “*to incline the head or body in salutation*” and **bow** [bou] – “*a flexible strip of wood for propelling arrows*”).

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Comment on the phenomenon of polysemy. Remember the meanings of the noun “face”: 1) the front part of the head; 2) look, expression; 3) facade, front; 4) surface of something. Translate the following sentences commenting on the different meaning of the noun “face”.

1. Do you like the face of this building? 2. Don't make faces in company. 3. The face is the index of the mind. 4. He lost his face. 5. The

value of a coin is shown on its face. 6. They disappeared from the face of the earth. 7. A diamond crystal had six faces. 8. Death stared him in his face. 9. He was being matter-of-fact in the face of the excitement. 10. It was an ugly, amiable, precocious face.

Task 2. State which of the words possesses wider polysemy and explain why.

Man, fellow, joy, change, order, federation.

Task 3. Find the homonyms in the following sentences. Classify them into homonyms proper, homographs and homophones:

1. **A.** Our Institute football team got a challenge to a match from the University team. **B.** Somebody struck a match so that we could see each other. 2. **A.** The sun was shining brightly. **B.** She's got a son and two daughters. 3. **A.** He turned to the right and suddenly stopped. **B.** I write these words every evening and think a lot.

Task 4. Classify the given words into: 1) homonyms proper; 2) homophones; 3) homographs. Give meanings of these words.

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

Task 5. Fill in the blanks choosing the correct word.

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

Task 6. Classify the words in bold type into homonyms proper, homographs and homophones.

1. *A.* The **bear** was huge. Reared up on its hind legs, it loomed over her... *B.* The terrace tiles were already warm under her **bare** feet.

2. *A.* “Look here, won’t you talk this over on the **plane** of reason?” *B.* He walked toward the pyramid squatting in the center of the **plain**.

3. *A.* “And have you noticed his eyes? The **pupils** are like pin points.” *B.* The simple charm of the beautiful orphan girl attracted all hearts. Her two little **pupils** became her slaves.

4. *A.* Then came **spring**, the great time of travelling. *B.* She was all wound up like a tight **spring**.

5. *A.* I looked around the room and lowered my voice to **match** his. *B.* He struck a **match** with shaking fingers and lit a cigarette.

6. *A.* They returned to the **bar** where they ordered. *B.* He fumbled in his knapsack and took out a **bar** of chocolate.

7. *A.* He was of medium height, his face was rather long and **pale**, his eyes looked tired. *B.* She... went down the stairs and drew from the sink on the ground floor a **pail** of water.

Тема 4. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

– знать определение понятия «синонимы» и их классификацию;

– знать определение понятия «антонимы» и различные подходы к их классификации.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What are synonyms?
2. What types of synonyms do you know?
3. What is understood by the term “synonymic dominant”?
4. What are antonyms?
5. What structural types of antonyms do you know?

6. What semantic types of antonyms do you know?

Part 4. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

Problems to discuss:

1. Synonymy. Classification of synonyms.
2. Antonymy. Classification of antonyms.

Key words: synonymy, synonym, absolute synonym, stylistic synonym, ideographic synonym, ideographic-stylistic synonym, synonymic dominant, antonymy, antonym, antonyms of the same root, antonyms of different roots, contradictories, contraries, incompatibles.

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BASIC NOTIONS

Synonymy is the relationship between words that express the same semantic concept.

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, differing in sound form, and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical (similar) denotational meanings.

Synonyms are divided into the following types:

1. **Absolute (full, total) synonyms** which coincide in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics. They can replace each other in any given context. It should be mentioned that absolute synonyms are very rare, e.g.: *word-building – word-formation; composition – compounding; fatherland – motherland – homeland*.

2. **Stylistic synonyms** which are similar in the denotational aspect of meaning, but different in stylistic characteristics, e.g.: *children – infants; dad – father; brainy – intelligent; fag – cigarette*.

3. **Ideographic synonyms** which differ in their denotational meanings. For instance, in the pair *to injure – to wound*, both words can mean “*to damage part of someone’s body*”, but *to wound* is used to suggest that there is a hole or tear in the skin, especially if this has been done on purpose with a weapon.

4. **Ideographic-stylistic synonyms** which differ both in the denotational and connotational aspects of meaning. For example, the pair *smell – stink*. *Smell* can be good or bad, but *stink* is always a bad smell, especially a very strong one and a very unpleasant one. The second word is labeled in the dictionary as informal.

Each synonymic group has a dominant element. This **synonymic dominant** is a word in a group of synonyms with the most general meaning. It belongs to the neutral style and can substitute any word in the synonymic group. In the series *leave – depart – quit – retire – clear out* the verb *leave*, being general and both stylistically and emotionally neutral, can stand for each of the other four terms. The other four terms can replace the verb *leave* only when some specific semantic component prevails over the general notion.

The word “**antonymy**” derives from the Greek root *anti-* (“*opposite*”) and denotes opposition in meaning. In contrast to synonymy, antonymy is a binary relationship that can characterize a relationship between only two words at a time.

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

Structurally, antonyms are divided into:

1. **Antonyms of the same root**, e.g.: *to do – to undo; understanding – misunderstanding; responsible – irresponsible*.

2. **Antonyms of different roots**, e.g.: *rich – poor; above – below; warm – cold*.

Semantically, antonyms are classified into:

1. **Contradictories (contradictory antonyms)** which are mutually opposed and deny each other, e.g.: *single – married; dead – alive; present – absent*.

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, e.g.: **not** *single – married; not* *dead – alive; not* *present – absent*.

2. **Contraries (contrary antonyms)** which are arranged into a series according to the increasing difference in one of their qualities. These antonyms are gradable because there are intermediate elements between the polar members. The most distant members of the set express contrary notions. For example, *cold – hot* and *cool – warm* which are intermediate members. We can consider as antonyms not only *cold* and *hot*, but also *cold* and *warm*. Contrary antonyms involve different degrees of the quality, e.g.: *quite hot, very hot, hotter*, etc.

3. **Incompatibles** which 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.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Find the synonymic dominant in the following groups of synonyms.

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

Task 2. Find the synonyms to this list of words:

<i>large, to jump, to discuss, fear, to want, to ask, to end</i>
--

to question, to finish, big, to hop, to argue, to debate, horror, to wish, to complete, to interrogate, to desire, great, to skip, terror, to leap.

Task 3. Comment on the phenomenon of synonymy. In column “B” find synonyms to the words in column “A”.

A		B	
absurd	dread	ability	magnificent
air	fortitude	angle	manner
amiable	general	awkward	matted
capacity	grandeur	belief	pair
checks	lonely	bucket	preposterous
clumsy	pail	courage	solitary
corner	tangled	fear	squares
couple	trust	improbable	universal
dissimilar	unlikely	lovely	unlike

Task 4. Give as many synonyms for the italicized words in the following jokes as you can. If you do not know any of them, consult the dictionaries.

1. A little boy who had been used to receiving his old brother’s old toys and clothes remarked: “Ma, will I have to marry his widow when he *dies*?”

2. “I hear there’s a new *baby* over at your house, William,” said the teacher. “I don’t think he’s new,” *replied* William. “The way he cries shows he’s had lots of experience.”

3. Small boy (to *governess*): Miss Smith, please, excuse my speaking to you with my mouth full, but my *little* sister has just fallen into the pond.

4. Boss: You are twenty minutes late again. Don’t you know what time we *start* to work at this office?

New employee: No, sir, they are always at it when I *get* here.

5. A *celebrated* lawyer once said that the three most troublesome clients he ever had were a young lady who *wanted* to be married, a married woman who wanted a divorce, and an *old maid* who didn’t know what she wanted.

6. Husband (*shouting* upstairs to his wife): For last time, Mary, are you coming?

Wife: Haven't I been *telling* you for the last hour that I'll be down in a minute.

7. "Oh, Mummie, I hurt my toe!" *cried* small Jenney, who was playing in the garden. "Which toe, dear?" I *inquired*, as I *examined* her foot. "My youngest one," *sobbed* Jenney.

Task 5. Give antonyms to the following words. Group them into antonyms of the same root and antonyms of different roots.

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

Task 6. Give antonymous word-combinations.

A light-blue dress; a light box; an old man; an old house; a hard task; a hard bed; a soft voice; a soft cushion; fresh bread; fresh flowers; to lose a battle; to lose a book; wild flowers; wild birds; a rough surface; a rough person.

Тема 5. CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGE UNITS ACCORDING TO THE PERIOD OF TIME THEY LIVE IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- иметь представление об архаизмах и их видах;
- уметь отличать архаизмы от историзмов;
- знать определение термина «неологизмы», семантические группы неологизмов и их способы образования.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is meant by the term "archaism"? Give examples.
2. What are historisms. Give examples.

3. What is understood by the term “neologism”? Give examples.
4. What semantic groups of neologisms do you know?
5. Name ways of forming neologisms.

Part 5. CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGE UNITS ACCORDING TO THE PERIOD OF TIME THEY LIVE IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Problems to discuss:

1. Archaisms.
2. Historisms.
3. Neologisms:
 - 3.1. Semantic groups of neologisms;
 - 3.2. Ways of forming neologisms.

Key words: archaism, lexical archaism, morphemic archaism, semantic archaism, historism, neologism, phonological neologism, semantic neologism, syntactic neologism, morphological neologism, phraseological neologism.

Recommended Reading:

1. Дубенец Э.М. Современный английский язык. Лексикология : пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов / Э.М. Дубенец. – М. : ГЛЮССА / КАРО, 2004. – С. 151–174.
2. Nikolenko A.G. English Lexicology : Theory and Practice / A.G. Nikolenko. – Vinnytsya : Nova Knyha, 2007. – P. 236–237, P. 254.

BASIC NOTION

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

Archaisms are words which are no longer used in everyday speech, which have been ousted by their synonyms. Archaisms remain

in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

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

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

Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, then the old affix is considered to be a **morphemic archaism**, e.g.: *beauteous* (-ous was substituted by -ful).

When the causes of the word's disappearance are extra-linguistic, e.g.: when the thing is no longer used, its name becomes a **historism**. Historisms are very numerous as names for social relations, institutions, objects of material culture of the past. Good examples of historisms are the names of ancient transport means, such as types of boats, or types of carriages, ancient clothes, weapons, musical instruments (e.g.: *brougham*, *fly*, *gig*, *hansom*, *phaeton*, *caravel*, *galleon*, *crossbow*, *arrow*, *vizor*, *breastplate*).

Neologisms are words or phrases created for defining new (unknown before) objects or expressing new notions. New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way.

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

1) food e.g.: *starter* (instead of *hors d'oeuvres*), *microbotics* (raw vegetables, crude rice), *longlife milk*, *clingfilm*, *microwave stove*, *consumer electronics*, *fridge-freezer*, *hamburgers* (*beefburgers*, *cheeseburgers*, *fishburgers*, *veg-burgers*);

2) clothing e.g.: *catsuit* (one-piece clinging suit), *slimster* (one-piece bathing suit), *string* (miniscule bikini), *hipsters* (trousers or skirt with the belt on hips), *completenik* (a long sweater for trousers), *sweatnik* (a long jacket), *pants-skirt* (combination of a mini-skirt and pants), *bloomers* (lady's sports trousers);

3) footwear e.g.: *winklepickers* (shoes with long pointed toes), *thongs* (open sandals), *backsters* (beech sandals with thick soles);

4) bags e.g.: *bumbag* (a small bag worn on waist), *sling bag* (a bag with a long belt), *maitre* (a small bag for cosmetics).

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

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique sounds, they are called artificial, e.g.: *rah-rah* (a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades, because girls repeat in chorus *rah, rah* when they are marching), *yeck/yuck* (interjections used to express repulsion) produced the adjective *yecky/yucky*. These are strong neologisms. Strong neologisms also include phonetic borrowings, such as *perestroika* (Russian), *solidarnosc* (Polish), *Berufsverbot* (German), *dolce vita* (Italian), etc.

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

Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, e.g.: *moonflight*, *ringway*, *rubber-neck* (a tourist who remains in the coach and is not curious about the country), *rat-out* (betrayal in danger), *bioastronomy* (search for life on other planets), *shelflife*, *moonfall*, *someplace*, *everywhen*.

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: *decompress*, *to disimprove*, *overhoused*, *educationalist*, *slimster*, *folknik*, etc.

Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings e.g.: *to buy into* (to become involved), *fudge and dodge* (avoidance of definite decisions), and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g.: *electronic virus*, *Rubic's cube*, *acid rain*, *boot trade*, etc.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Comment on archaisms. Arrange the following archaic words into lexical and grammatical archaisms.

Aught, belike, didst, dost, eke, ere, hast, maiden, naught, quoth, shall, steed, thee, thou, wert, woe.

Task 2. Substitute modern forms and neutral synonyms for the following archaic words.

Aught, agrestic, didst, dost, eke, ere, hast, hath, rin, naught, quoth, steed, thee, thou, wert, woe, ye.

Task 3. Comment on the historisms in bold. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. With armed force well in evidence the **barons** made the king agree to their demands set out in ***Magna Carta***.

2. The ***Levellers*** wanted to make a reality of the name ***Commonwealth***, which Cromwell gave to the new state.

3. The ***thane*** was the first title given to feudal lords and the ***ceorl***, a free peasant in the Germanic tribes, was becoming more and more like the feudal serf.

4. Alfred's successors became in practice kings of England, while the former kingdoms were now ***shires*** (later called counties) with local lords called ***earls***.

5. The English kings in the south obeyed demands for payments to the Danes, called "***Danegeld***".

6. An economic and social survey of the country was made by about 1086 in the ***Domesday Book***. This showed that the population of England was about two million, most of them being unfree ***villains*** or serfs.

7. The gentry was increased in a very important way by the rise of richer peasants or ***yeomen***.

8. The first Parliament was a new kind of assembly, including not only the lords but two ***knights*** to represent each country and two ***burgesses*** or citizens from each town.

9. The *archers*, whether hired professionals or temporary soldiers from English villages, used the *longbow*, a simple, popular weapon.

Task 4. Comment on the way of forming the following neologisms.

Accessorize, aeroneurosis, astrogation, built-in, de-orbit, gadgeteer, lasersonic, robotics, sanforize, urbanologism, vitaminize.

Task 5. Group the following neologisms as to the ways of their formation.

Agro-industrial, audio-lingual, backpacker, beach wagon, biotelemetry, black bluster, black shirt, by-time, chauffeuse, ecocide, ecogeography, epoxy, facepack, halfday, listen-in, microcopy, microcomputer, vitaminize, wonder, work-fellow.

ПРИМЕРНЫЕ ВОПРОСЫ МОДУЛЬНОЙ КОНТРОЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ № 1

1. What is lexicology?
2. What does the term “word” mean?
3. What is meant by the term “vocabulary”?
4. What are the constituent parts of lexicology?
5. What types of lexicology do you know?
6. What linguistic disciplines does lexicology have close ties with?
7. What does the synchronic approach deal with?
8. What is the diachronic approach concerned with?
9. Why are these two approaches interconnected and interdependent?
10. What is semasiology?
11. What types of word-meaning can be singled out?
12. What semantic components of word-meaning do you know? Name and define them.
13. Name the types of semantic changes of word-meaning.
14. Explain the difference between specialization and generalization. Give examples.
15. What do you understand by metaphor and metonymy? Give examples.
16. What is the difference between elevation and degradation? Give examples.
17. What is understood by the term “hyperbole”? Give examples.
18. What does the term “litotes” mean? Give examples.
19. What is polysemy?
20. What are monosemantic and polysemantic words? Give examples.
21. Why is it important to differentiate between “meaning” and “usage”?
22. What does the term “lexico-semantic variants” mean?
23. What is understood by the term “semantic centre of the word”?
24. What is metaphorical polysemy? Give examples.

25. What is metonymic polysemy? Give examples.
26. What does the term “context” mean?
27. What types of linguistic contexts do you know?
28. What do you understand by the extra-linguistic context?
29. What are homonyms?
30. What types of homonyms do you know?
31. What are synonyms?
32. What types of synonyms do you know?
33. What is understood by the term “synonymic dominant”?
34. What are antonyms?
35. What structural types of antonyms do you know?
36. What semantic types of antonyms do you know?
37. What is meant by the term “archaism”? Give examples.
38. What are historisms. Give examples.
39. What is understood by the term “neologism”? Give examples.
40. What semantic groups of neologisms do you know?
41. Name ways of forming neologisms.

МОДУЛЬ 2

Тема 6. THE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать определение понятия «морфема»;
- иметь представление о различных подходах к классификации морфем;
- знать виды значения корневых и некорневых морфем;
- различать морфемные виды английских слов.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What do words consist of?
2. What is a morpheme?
3. What types of morphemes can be singled out semantically?
4. What are root morphemes (or radicals)?
5. What are non-root morphemes?
6. What is a suffix? Give examples.
7. What is a prefix? Give examples.
8. What structural types of morphemes can be singled out? Characterize each type.
9. What types of meaning do root morphemes have?
10. What types of meaning do non-root (or affixational) morphemes have?
11. In what way does the lexical meaning of root morphemes differ from the lexical meaning of non-root morphemes?
12. What is the distributional meaning of morphemes?
13. What is the differential meaning of morphemes?
14. What is understood by the part-of-speech meaning of morphemes?
15. What words are called monomorphemic?
16. What words are called polymorphemic?
17. What types of polymorphemic words can be singled out?
18. What subtypes can monoradical words be divided into?

19. What subtypes do polyradical words fall into?

MODULE 2

Part 6. THE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

Problems to discuss:

1. Morphemes as constituent parts of English words.
2. Classification of morphemes.
3. Types of meaning in morphemes.
4. Morphemic types of English words.

Key words: affix, bound morpheme, free morpheme, inflection, monomorphemic word, morpheme, monoradical word, non-root morpheme, polymorphemic word, polyradical word, prefix, root morpheme, semi-bound (semi-free) morpheme, suffix, lexical meaning, differential meaning, part-of-speech meaning, distributional meaning.

Recommended Reading:

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5. Nikolenko A.G. English Lexicology : Theory and Practice / A.G. Nikolenko. – Vinnytsya : Nova Knyha, 2007. – P. 45–48.
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BASIC NOTIONS

Words are not the smallest units of the language. They consist of morphemes. The term “*morpheme*” is derived from Greek *morphe* (form) + *-eme*. The Greek suffix *-eme* has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest significant unit. The *morpheme* is the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and which occurs in speech only as a part of a word, not independently.

Morphemes may be classified from the semantic point of view and from the structural point of view.

Semantically morphemes fall into two types:

1. *Root morphemes*

The *root* is a morpheme that expresses the lexical meaning of the word. *Root morphemes* (or *radicals*) are the lexical nucleus of words. For example, in the words *remake*, *glassful*, *disorder* the root morphemes *-make*, *glass-* and *-order* are understood as the lexical centres of the words.

2. *Non-root morphemes*

Non-root morphemes include *inflectional morphemes* (or *inflections*) and *affixational morphemes* (or *affixes*).

Inflections are also called *endings*. They carry only grammatical meaning.

Affixes are divided into *prefixes* and *suffixes*.

The affix that comes before the root is called *prefix* (for example, *misunderstand*, *unhappy*, *informal*, etc.).

The affix that comes after the root is called *suffix* (for example, *careless*, *heartless*, *beautiful*, etc.).

Structurally morphemes are divided into three types:

1. *Free morphemes*

A *free morpheme* is defined as one that coincides with the stem (a *stem* is the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm) or a word-form.

Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word; they coincide with the stem of simple words.

Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions (for instance, *the, and, with*).

2. **Bound morphemes**

A **bound morpheme** occurs only as a constituent part of a word.

Bound lexical morphemes are *affixes*: prefixes (e.g.: *dis-*, *un-*, *ir-*, etc.), suffixes (e.g.: *-ish*, *-ful*, *-less*, etc.), completives (combining forms) (e.g.: *poly-clinic*) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g.: *Fri-day*, *cran-berry*).

Bound grammatical morphemes are *inflections* (endings), e.g.: *-s* for the Plural of nouns, *-ed* for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, *-ing* for Present Participle.

3. **Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes**

Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme. For example, the morphemes *well* and *half* on the one hand occur as free morphemes that coincide with the stem and the word-form in the utterances *to sleep well*, *half an hour*, on the other hand *well* and *half* occur as bound morphemes in the words *well-known*, *half-done*.

In morphemes different types of meaning can be singled out depending on the semantic class morphemes belong to. **Root morphemes** have lexical, differential and distributional types of meaning. **Non-root morphemes** have lexical, differential, part-of-speech, distributional types of meaning.

According to the number of morphemes, words are classified into:

- 1) monomorphic;
- 2) polymorphic.

Monomorphic words or **root words** consist of only one root morpheme, i.e. simple words (e.g.: *small, dog, make, boss*).

Polymorphic words according to the number of root morphemes can be divided into:

- a) monoradical (one-root morpheme);
- b) polyradical (words consisting of two or more roots).

Monoradical words fall into three subtypes:

1) **radical-suffixal words**, i.e. words consisting of one root morpheme and one or more suffixal morphemes (e.g.: *acceptable, acceptability*);

2) **radical-prefixal words**, i.e. words consisting of one root morpheme and a prefixal morpheme (e.g.: *outdo, disappear, unbutton*);

3) **prefix-radical-suffixal words**, i.e. words which consist of one root, prefixal and suffixal morphemes (e.g.: *disagreeable, misinterpretation*).

Polyradical words fall into two subtypes:

1) polyradical words which consist of two or more roots with no affixational morphemes (e.g.: *book-stand, lamp-shade*);

2) polyradical words which contain at least two roots and one or more affixational morphemes (e.g.: *safety-pin, light-mindedness, pen-holder*).

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Segment the following words into morphemes. Define the semantic types and the structural types of morphemes constituting the given words.

For example: the word “*aimless*” can be segmented into two morphemes: *aim-* + *-less*.

1. Semantically *aim-* is a root morpheme; *-less* is an affix.

2. Structurally *aim-* is a free morpheme; *-less* is a bound morpheme.

Postman, beggarly, shorten, sympathy, fruitfulness, disaffected, half-eaten, theory, overrule, photographic, rent-free.

Task 2. Give the definition of a root morpheme. Define roots in the following sets of words.

Bake, baker, bakery; civil, civilian, civilize, civilized, civilization; collect, collection, collector, collective, collectivization; differ, difference, different, differential, differentiate; gentle, gentleman, gentility, gentleness, genteel, gently; please, pleasant, pleasure; describe, prescribe, inscribe; success, successful, unsuccessful,

successfully, succession, successor, successive; porter, transport, import, export.

Task 3. Arrange the following words into three groups: those having a) free stems; b) bound stems; c) semi-bound stems.

Weekly, famous, tremendous, unselfish, terrorist, likely, length, longish, untrue, patience, difference, personal, half-done, well-known, policeman, careful, speechless, annual, businesslike, experience, waiter, vital, freedom, manly, disarrange, boyish, voyage, public.

Task 4. Translate the following words, taking into consideration the lexical meaning of the root and affixational morphemes.

For example: the word “*weekly*”

The lexical meaning of the root morpheme *week-* is “*a period of seven days*”.

The lexical meaning of the affixational morpheme *-ly* is “*frequency*”.

The word “*weekly*” is rendered in Russian by the word “*еженедельно*”.

Famous, prewar, horsemanship, briefly, antipathy, betrayal, hostess, neurosis, rehouse, eyelet.

Task 5. Classify the following words according to the part-of-speech meaning of their affixational morphemes.

Weaken, drinkable, breakage, clarify, quarrelsome, spacious, northwards, enlarge, congratulatory, boyhood, hospitalize, sideways, befriend, combination, accordingly, hatless, suitability.

Task 6. Define the morphemes the differential meaning of which helps to distinguish between words in the given sets.

For example: the words “*phraseology*”, “*mythology*”, “*ideology*”, “*neurology*”.

The morphemes *phrase-*, *myth-*, *ide(a)-* and *neuro-* have the differential meaning as each of them may serve to distinguish the word it forms from the other words in the given set.

1) crossroads, crosswind, cross-legged, cross-current;
2) notebook, textbook, copybook, exercisebook; 3) cranberries, strawberries, raspberries, elderberries; 4) foreign-based, ocean-based, city-based, hospital-based; 5) forepart, forehead, forefoot, foreground.

Task 7. Analyze the following words according to their morphemic types. Define the subtypes of polymorphic words. Classify polyradical words into two groups: 1) words consisting of two or more roots with no affixational morphemes; 2) words containing two roots and one or more affixational morphemes.

For example: the words “*duck*”, “*back-bencher*”, “*illiterateness*”.

The word “*duck*” is monomorphemic. The word “*back-bencher*” is polymorphemic, polyradical, contains two roots and one affixational morpheme. The word “*illiterateness*” is polymorphemic, monoradical, prefixo-radical-suffixal.

Historian, ex-wife, short-sightedness, house, book-keeper, go, uncover, mistrust, cry, dark-brown, unfortunately, disappointment, homesick, good, age-long, laughter-filled, black, effective, manageability, unanswerable.

Тема 7. WORD-BUILDING. VARIOUS WAYS OF FORMING NEW WORDS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- иметь чёткие представления о словообразовании как одной из отраслей лексикологии;
- знать и уметь охарактеризовать продуктивные и непродуктивные способы словообразования английских слов.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is word-building?
2. What are the principle types of word-building?
3. What is meant by affixation? Give examples.
4. What is the role of suffixes in the formation of new words?

5. What are the principles of the classification of suffixes?
6. What principles of the classification of prefixes can be singled out?
7. What affixes are called productive?
8. What affixes are called non-productive?
9. What is conversion? Give examples.
10. What is understood by word-composition? Give examples.
11. What is abbreviation? What types of abbreviation can be singled out? Give examples.
12. What are the minor ways of modern word-building?
13. What is sound interchange? What types does sound interchange fall into? Give examples.
14. What is understood by stress interchange? Give examples.
15. What is meant by sound imitation or onomatopoeia? What groups of onomatopoeic words can be singled out according to the semantic principle?
16. What is back-formation? Give examples.
17. What are blends? Give examples.

Part 7. WORD-BUILDING. VARIOUS WAYS OF FORMING NEW WORDS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Problems to discuss:

1. Productive (or main, primary) ways of word-building:
 - 1.1. Affixation: prefixation and suffixation;
 - 1.2. Conversion (or zero derivation);
 - 1.3. Composition (word-composition or compounding).
2. Non-productive (or minor, secondary) ways of word-building:
 - 2.1. Abbreviation;
 - 2.2. Sound interchange;
 - 2.3. Stress interchange (or distinctive stress);
 - 2.4. Sound imitation (or onomatopoeia);
 - 2.5. Blending (or blends);
 - 2.6. Back-formation (reversion or disaffixation).

Key words: word-building (or word-formation), abbreviation, affix, productive affix, non-productive affix, affixation, suffix, prefix,

conversion (or zero derivation), word-composition, sound interchange, stress interchange (or distinctive stress), sound imitation (or onomatopoeia), blending (or blends), back-formation (reversion or disaffixation).

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BASIC NOTIONS

By ***word-building*** (or ***word-formation***) is understood the process of producing new words from the resources of the particular language. Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. It is considered to be one of the branches of Lexicology.

There are ***productive*** (*main, primary*) ways of word-building in Modern English (***affixation***, ***conversion*** (or *zero derivation*), ***composition*** (*word-composition* or *compounding*)) and ***non-productive***

(*minor, secondary*) ways of word-building (**abbreviation**, **sound interchange**, **stress interchange** (or *distinctive stress*), **sound imitation** (or *onomatopoeia*), **blending** (or *blends*), **back-formation** (*reversion* or *disaffixation*)).

Affixation has been one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix or several affixes to the stem of a definite part of speech. **Affixes** are morphemes that modify the meaning of the root. Affixes are divided into **prefixes** and **suffixes**. The affix that comes before the root is called **prefix** (for example, *misunderstand*, *unhappy*, *informal*, etc.). The affix that comes after the root is called **suffix** (for example, *careless*, *heartless*, *beautiful*, etc.). By **stem** is understood the part of a word that stays the same when different endings are added to it, for example “*driv-*” in “*driving*”. A stem is called a root when all affixes are removed from it. The stem cannot be further broken up into two separate morphemes. For example, *unfriendly* = (*un-* (prefix) + *friendly* (stem)). Affixation is divided into **prefixation** and **suffixation**. **Prefixation** is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. Prefixes seldom shift words from one part of speech into another and therefore both the source word and its prefixed derivative mostly belong to the same part of speech, e.g.: *to write* – *to rewrite*. The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. **Suffixation** is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a different part of speech, for example, *teach* is a verb, *teacher* is a noun). There are suffixes, however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another. They can transfer a word into a different semantic group, e.g.: a concrete noun becomes an abstract one: *friend* – *friendship*.

Conversion consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged, e.g.: *work* – *to work*, *paper* – *to paper*. The new word acquires a meaning, which differs from that of the original one though it can be easily associated with it. The converted word acquires also a new paradigm (**paradigm** is the set of all the inflected forms of a word) and a new syntactic function (or functions),

which are peculiar to its new category as a part of speech, e.g.: *garden* – *to garden*.

Among the main varieties of conversion are:

1) verbalization (the formation of verbs), e.g.: *to ape* (from the noun *ape*);

2) substantivation (the formation of nouns), e.g.: *a private* (from the adjective *private*);

3) adjectivation (the formation of adjectives), e.g.: the adjective *down* (from the adverb *down*);

4) adverbialization (the formation of adverbs), e.g.: the adverb *home* (from the noun *home*).

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are verbs and nouns.

Word-composition is the way of word-building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. For example, *green* + *house* = *greenhouse*; *black* + *board* = *blackboard*.

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

1. Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g.: *a* `green-house (теплица) and *a* `green `house (a house painted green);

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

Abbreviation (clipping, shortening) is a shortened form of a word or phrase, e.g.: *prof* – *professor*, *pike* – *turnpike*, etc.

Graphical abbreviation is a sign representing a word or word-group of high frequency of occurrence, e.g.: *Mr* – *Mister*, *Mrs* – *Mistress*. Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In these abbreviations Latin words are shortened in the spelling, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are

pronounced in the full form, e.g.: *a.m.* – in the morning (ante meridiem), *No* – number (numero), *p.a.* – a year (per annum), *d* – penny (denarius), *lb* – pound (libra), *i.e.* – that is (id est). In some cases initial letters are pronounced, e.g.: *a.m.*, *p.m.*, etc. Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g.: *p.m.* can be pronounced *in the afternoon* (post meridiem) and *after death* (post mortem).

Lexical abbreviation is a word formed from the first (or first few) letters of several words which constitute a compound word or word-group, e.g.: *U.N.E.S.C.O.* – *United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization*, *B.B.C.* – *the British Broadcasting Corporation*, *S.O.S.* – *Save Our Souls*, *B.A.* – *Bachelor of Arts*, etc. Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called **apocope**, e.g.: *disco* (discotheque), *expo* (exposition), *intro* (introduction). In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have **apheresis**, e.g.: *chute* (parachute), *copter* (helicopter), *thuse* (enthuse), etc. Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g.: *mart* (market), *fanzine* (fan magazine), *maths* (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called **syncope**. Sometimes we have a combination of **apocope** with **apheresis**, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g.: *tec* (detective), *van* (avanguard), etc.

It should be mentioned that abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word.

Sound interchange is 1) the way of word-formation when some sounds are changed to form a new word; 2) the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of its root.

Sound interchange falls into two groups:

1. **Vowel interchange** (or **ablaut**), for example, *food* – *to feed*. In some cases vowel interchange is combined with suffixation, for example, *strong* – *strength*.

2. **Consonant interchange**, for example, *advice* – *to advise*.

Consonant interchange and vowel interchange may be combined together, for example, *life* – *to live*.

Stress interchange is the formation of a word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word, for example, *increase* (noun) – *increase* (verb), *absent* (adjective) – *absent* (verb).

Sound imitation is 1) the way of word-formation when a word is formed by imitating different sounds; 2) the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with it, for example, *cock-a-doodle-do* (English) – *ку-ка-ре-ку* (Russian).

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

Back-formation is 1) the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words; 2) the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word; 3) a very specialized type of reduction process when a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form a word of another type (usually a verb).

A good example of back-formation is the process whereby the noun “*television*” first came into use and then the verb “*televise*” was created from it. Other examples of words created by this process are: *donate* (from “*donation*”), *emote* (from “*emotion*”), *enthuse* (from “*enthusiasm*”), *typewrite* (from “*typewriter*”), *edit* (from “*editor*”), *write* (from “*writer*”), *revise* (from “*revision*”), and *babysit* (from “*babysitter*”). So, we get a derived word that is formed by subtracting an affix from a base rather than adding one.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Define the part of speech of the italicized words. State what parts of speech they are derived from and what word-formation means is applied here. Translate the sentences into Russian.

For example: *Still water of the lake mirrors the trees.*

The word “*mirror*” is a verb which is derived from the noun “*mirror*” by means of conversion.

1. That fellow really *whatevers* me. 2. She made a two-part *documentary* about the war in Kosovo. 3. Local politicians were found to *pocket* the money of fundraisers. 4. This video is a *must* for everyone. 5. The story was in all the *dailies*. 6. Will you *holiday* in Switzerland? 7. He *busied* himself with plans for the future. 8. There is a great deal of difference between *before* and *after*. 9. I asked him to *modem* this information tomorrow. 10. It was a good *buy*. 11. I don't like a chemistry *practical*. 12. His skin was *weathered* almost black by his long outdoor life. 13. The path is steep and dangerous in the *wet*. 14. I won't join your plan. There are too many *ifs* and *buts* in it. 15. The army's actions *dirtied* its reputation.

Task 2. Classify the given compound words according to the means of composition into three groups: 1) compounds composed without connecting elements; 2) compounds composed with the help of vowels or consonants as linking elements; 3) compounds composed with the help of prepositions or conjunctions as linking elements.

For example: *Oxford-educated, electro-magnetic, up-and-up.*

Oxford-educated is a compound composed without connecting elements (group 1). *Electro-magnetic* is a compound composed with the help of the linking vowel *o* (group 2). *Up-and-up* is a compound composed with the help of the conjunction and as a linking element (group 3).

Make-and-break, saleswoman, up-to-date, heart-beat, down-and-out, electromotive, pale-blue, tragicomic, matter-of-fact, day-time, handiwork, up-and-coming, wind-driven, mother-in-law, oil-rich,

craftsmanship, spokesman, sit-at-home, play-acting, good-for-nothing, Anglo-Saxon, blacklist, bridesmaid, one-to-one, water-mark, step-by-step, politico-military, sunflower, Anglo-Catholic, door-handle, out-of-town.

Task 3. In accordance with the part that is cut off to form a new word classify cases of shortening into four groups: 1) initial shortenings (aphesis); 2) medial shortenings (syncope); 3) final shortenings (apocope); 4) both initial and final shortenings.

For example: *net* < *internet*

The initial part of the original word is cut off. Consequently, the new word refers to the first group.

hols < holidays; vac < vacuum cleaner; tec < detective; plane < aeroplane; Frisco < (San) Francisco; quiz < inquisitive; bus < omnibus; curio < curiosity; miss < mistress; sport < disport; soccer < Association Football; fan < fanatic; circs < circumstances; chute < parachute; Aline < Adeline; cert < certainty; tend < attend; mart < market; coke < coca-cola; Liz < Elizabeth; prep-school < preparatory-school; gator < alligator; cuss < customer.

Task 4. According to their pronunciation classify the given acronyms into two groups: 1) those that are read as ordinary English words; 2) those with the alphabetic reading.

For example: *NATFHE* – National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (group 1); *MP* – Member of Parliament (group 2).

NATO – North Atlantic Treaty Organization, UNO – United Nations Organization, WHO – The World Health Organization, BUPA – British United Provident Association, AGM – annual general meeting, WI – Women's Institute, UCAS – Universities and Colleges Admissions Service, IRA – Irish Republican Army, NASA – National Aeronautics and Space Administration, CID – Criminal Investigation Department, SALT – Strategic Arms Limitation Talks, UEFA – Union of European Football Associations, IQ – intelligence quotient, NAAFI – Navy, Army, and Air Force Institutes, MRBM – medium-range ballistic missile, FBI – Federal Bureau of

Investigation, TEFL – teaching of English as a foreign language, UFO – unidentified flying object, UNRRA – United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, VIP – very important person, FIFA – Federal International Football Association, GI – government (or general) issue.

Task 5. Group the words formed by sound-interchange into: 1) those formed by vowel-interchange; 2) those formed by consonant-interchange; 3) those formed by combining both means, i.e. vowel- and consonant-interchange.

Long (*adj*) – length (*n*); speak (*v*) – speech (*n*); wreathe (*v*) – wreath (*n*); bake (*v*) – batch (*n*); strike (*v*) – stroke (*n*); house (*n*) – house (*v*); breathe (*v*) – breath (*n*); believe (*v*) – belief (*n*); full (*adj*) – fill (*v*); lose (*v*) – loss (*n*); prove (*v*) – proof (*n*); knot (*n*) – knit (*v*); glaze (*v*) – glass (*n*); shelve (*v*) – shelf (*n*); wake (*v*) – watch (*n*); loathe (*v*) – loath (*n*); use (*v*) – use (*n*); sing (*v*) – song (*n*); clothe (*v*) – cloth (*n*); bite (*v*) – bit (*n*); halve (*v*) – half (*n*); abide (*v*) – abode (*n*); serve (*v*) – serf (*n*); deep (*adj*) – depth (*n*); bathe (*v*) – bath (*n*); ride (*v*) – road (*n*).

Task 6. Classify the following prefixes into: 1) native or foreign; 2) productive, semi-productive or non-productive.

Ab-, ad-, after-, amphi-, ante-, anti-, arch-, be-, by-, contra-, counter-, de-, dis-, ex-, en-, extra-, fore-, forth-, in-, inter-, intro-, mis-, non-, ob-, off-, on-, out-, over-, per-, poly-, post, pre-, re-, sub-, super-, trans, ultra-, un-, under-, up-, vice-, with-.

Task 7. Combine the suffixes -ment, -tion, -ation, -ly, -ity with the proper group of words.

Irregular, possible, antique, responsible, exclusive, develop, consider, form, exploit, industrialize, improve, establish, occupy, invent, involve, argue, translate, kind, dear, great, employ, agree, safe, active, pave, enslave, annual, casual, curious, general, illegible, insensible, instant, manage, organize.

Task 8. Arrange the blends into three groups as to the type of contraction: 1) the initial element + the final element; 2) one

notional word + final element; 3) the initial element + the notional word.

Animule (animal + mule), bascart (basket + cart), brunch (breakfast + lunch), cablegram (cable + telegram), electrocute (electricity + execute), flurry (fly + hurry), galumph (gallop + triumph), glaze (glare + gaze), laundromat (laundry + automat), macon (mutton + bacon), mobus (motor + bus), seadrome (sea + aerodrome), slash (slay + dash), smaze (smoke + haze), smog (smoke + fog), swellegant (swell + elegant).

Task 9. Comment on the following cases of back-formation.

Babysit – babysitter; beg – beggar; broke – broker; catalyse – catalysis; edit – editor; greed – greedy; hawk – hawkers; house-clean – house-cleaner; kittle – kittling; peddle – peddler; sculpt – sculptor; televise – television; typewrite – typewriter; use – user.

Task 10. Give verbs corresponding to the following adjectives.

Mind the change of stress.

Absent, abstract, concrete, frequent, compound, perfect, present.

Task 11. Give verbs corresponding to the following nouns.

Mind the change of stress.

Accent, annex, asphalt, compress, conduct, conflict, contrast, export, extract, import, increase, forecast, object, permit, present, progress, record, transport.

Task 12. Pick out words which have homonymous forms for nouns and verbs.

Advance, attack, attempt, comment, compress, concern, exclaim, exile, figure, focus, forecast, import, increase, program, progress, record, rival, transport.

Тема 8. ETYMOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать, что такое этимология;
- иметь представление об особенностях происхождения английских слов;
- знать особенности исконных и заимствованных слов;
- знать отличительные признаки интернациональных слов и этимологических дублетов.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What do you understand by the term “etymology”?
2. What word is called native?
3. What does the term “borrowing” mean?
4. What are native words characterized by?
5. What words refer to the English words proper?
6. What are the causes of borrowing?
7. What are the ways of borrowing?
8. What languages did the English language borrow words from?
9. What do you understand by translation borrowings? Give examples.
10. What are meant by semantic borrowings? Give examples.
11. What words are called international? Give examples.
12. What pairs of words are called etymological doublets? Give examples.

Part 8. ETYMOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Problems to discuss:

1. Origin of English words. Native words and borrowings.
2. Characteristic features of native words.
3. Borrowings as a way of expanding English vocabulary. Causes of borrowings. Ways of borrowings.
4. Different types of classification of borrowings in English.
5. International words. Etymological doublets.

Key words: native words, borrowings, etymology, etymological doublets, international words, oral borrowings, translation borrowings, semantic borrowings, written borrowings.

Recommended Reading:

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4. Babich G.N. Lexicology : A Current Guide / G.N. Babich. – М. : Great Bear, 2005. – Ch. 3.

5. Ginzburg R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R.S. Ginzburg, S.S. Khidekel, G.Y. Knyazeva. – М. : Higher School Publishing House, 1979. – Ch. 6.

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BASIC NOTIONS

Etymology is a branch of linguistics that studies the origin and history of words tracing them to their earliest determinable source.

According to their origin English words are subdivided into **native words** (words that are not borrowed from other languages; words which belong to the original English vocabulary) and **borrowed words** or **borrowings proper** (words which came into the vocabulary of one language from another and were assimilated by the new language; words taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language).

Native words are subdivided into two groups: **Indo-European** and **Common Germanic**.

The oldest layer of words in English is the layer consisting of words met in Indo-European languages. Words belonging to this layer fall into definite semantic groups and express the most vital, important and frequently used concepts:

1) words denoting kinship, e.g.: *father, mother, son, daughter, brother*;

2) words denoting important objects and phenomena of nature, e.g.: *sun, water, moon, star, wind, wood, hill, stone*;

3) names of animals, plants and birds, e.g.: *cat, goose, wolf, cow, tree, corn*;

4) words denoting parts of the human body, e.g.: *heart, ear, tooth, eye, foot, lip*;

5) words naming concrete physical properties and qualities (including some adjectives denoting colour), e.g.: *hard, quick, slow, red, white, new*;

6) numerals from one to a hundred, e.g.: *one, two, twenty, eighty*;

7) pronouns (personal (except the personal pronoun *they* which is a Scandinavian borrowing), demonstrative, interrogative), e.g.: *I, you, he, my, that, who*;

8) some of the most often used verbs, e.g.: *be, do, bear, sit, stand* and others.

A much larger group of native vocabulary is the group of Common Germanic words. The Common Germanic vocabulary includes words having parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, and Icelandic. It contains a great number of semantic groups some of which are the same as in the Indo-European group of native words:

1) nouns denoting parts of the human body, e.g.: *head, arm, finger*;

2) nouns denoting periods of time, e.g.: *summer, winter, time, week*;

3) words naming natural phenomena, e.g.: *storm, rain, flood, ice, ground, sea, earth*;

4) words naming different kinds of garment, e.g.: *skirt, shoe, hat*;

5) names of animals, plants and birds, e.g.: *horse, sheep, crow, fox, grass, oak*;

6) words denoting artifacts and materials, e.g.: *house, bridge, shop, room, iron, coal, lead, cloth*;

7) words denoting abstract notions, e.g.: *evil, care, life, hope, need*;

8) various notional verbs, e.g.: *make, bake, drive, learn, send, shoot, burn, keep, hear, buy, see, meet, rise*;

9) adverbs, e.g.: *out, down, before*;

10) adjectives denoting colour, size and other properties, e.g.: *dead, broad, deaf, deep, blue, grey*.

Native words have a great word-building capacity, form a lot of phraseological units, they are mostly polysemantic.

Borrowing words from other languages has been characteristic of English throughout its history. English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. English during its historical development borrowed words from: Celtic, Latin, Scandinavian, French, Greek, Italian, Spanish, Russian, German, Indian and other languages. The fact that different languages served as sources of borrowing at different periods of the development of the English language is accounted for by purely historical causes and facts among which the most important and the most influential are: the Roman invasion, the introduction of Christianity, the Danish and Norman conquests, and, in modern times, direct linguistic contacts and political, economic and cultural relationships with other nations.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways:

1) through oral speech (by immediate contact between people);

2) through written speech (through newspapers, books, etc.).

Oral borrowings took place in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowings have gained importance. Words borrowed orally are usually short and they undergo considerable changes during the act of adoption. **Written borrowings** preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound form; their assimilation is a long process.

Borrowings can be subdivided into: translation borrowings and semantic borrowings. **Translation borrowings** are words and expressions formed from the material already existing in the English language but according to patterns taken from another language, by way of literal morpheme-for-morpheme translation, e.g.: *wall newspaper* – *стенная газета*. By **semantic borrowing** is understood the development in an English word of a new meaning under the influence of a related word in another language. For example, the English word *pioneer* meant “*explorer*” and “*one who is among the first in new fields of activity*”. Under the influence of the Russian word “*пионер*” it has come to mean “*a member of the Young Pioneers’ Organization*”.

Borrowings play a very important role in the development of the English language. Due to this process the English vocabulary was replenished by international words. By **international words** are meant words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowing from one ultimate source, e.g. *antenna*, *music*, *radio*. International words are often confused with other words which ultimately come from the same source but have diverged in meaning. Such words are called “**false friends**” or “**false cognate**”, e.g.: *magazine* and *магазин*; *accurate* and *аккуратный*; *complexion* and *комплексия*; *angina* and *ангина*; *conserves* and *консервы*.

International words play an especially important part in different terminological systems including the vocabulary of science, industry and art. The origin of this vocabulary reflects the history of world culture. For instance, the mankind’s debt to Italy is reflected in the great number of words connected with architecture, painting and music. Here we can mention Italian words which have become international: *allegro*, *aria*, *baritone*, *concert*, *duet*, *opera*, *piano*, etc.

The rate of change in technology, political, social and artistic life was greatly accelerated in the 20th century. As a result, the number of international words increased greatly. Here are some examples of international words related to different spheres of life: *algorithm*, *antenna*, *antibiotics*, *gene*, *cybernetics*, *microelectronics* (words connected with science); *football*, *out*, *tennis*, *time*, *match*, *ring*, *boots* (words referring to sport); *pullover*, *sweater*, *jersey*, *shorts*, *leggings* (words related to clothing).

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. Consequently, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called *etymological doublets*. For example, the word “whole” in the old sense of *healthy* and *hale*. The latter has survived in its original meaning and is preserved in the phrase *hale and hearty*. Both come from Old English *hal*. The word “whole” developed because in Old English “a” developed into “o”; the word “hale”, which came from a Northern dialect where there was no change in the vowel, retained “a”.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Subdivide the following words of native origin into: 1) words of Indo-European origin; 2) words of Common Germanic origin; 3) English words proper. In case of difficulty you can consult the Concise Dictionary of English Etymology.

Girl, sun, bench, we, ship, lord, day, woman, sister, lady, glove, tooth, always, sheriff, know, green, widow, daisy, lip, life, answer, sand, flood, grass, call, ten, corn, bird, silver, small, swine, seven, boy, high, eat.

Task 2. Write out international words from the given sentences.

1. Do you take sugar in your coffee? 2. He gave a false address to the police. 3. Do you play tennis? 4. I've seen many good films lately. 5. Charlotte Brontë wrote under the pseudonym of Currer Bell. 6. Arrange the words in alphabetical order. 7. Many people feel that their interests are not represented by mainstream politics. 8. I'm worried about my son's lack of progress in English. 9. We have visited the open-air theatre in London's Regents Park. 10. The government has promised to introduce reforms of the tax system.

Task 3. Match the translation borrowings on the left with the original words or phrases on the right. State the origin of the latter.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------|
| 1) under consideration | prima-ballerina |
| 2) the moment of truth | infra dignitatem |

3) collective farm	Wunderkind
4) word-combination	попутчик
5) famous case	el momento de la verdad
6) below one's dignity	circulus vitiosus
7) vicious circle	колхоз
8) first dancer	sub judice
9) wonder child	словосочетание
10) that goes without saying	cela va sans dire
11) fellow-traveller	cause celebre

Task 4. From the extract below pick out Latin and Greek borrowings.

He had been put through an immense variety of paces, and had answered volumes of head-breaking questions. Orthography, etymology, syntax and prosody, biography, astronomy, geography and general cosmography, the science of compound proportion, algebra, land-surveying and levelling, vocal music, and drawing from models, were all at the ends of his ten chilled fingers.

Task 5. Arrange the given words into the following groups: a) native words; b) Celtic borrowings; c) Latin borrowings; d) Greek borrowings.

Absolute, acacia, album, and, animal, apple, ask, atmosphere, autobiography, bake, barometer, be, bear, begin, berry, bird, biscuit, board, boy, bread, brother, brown, but, by, calculate, can, cat, character, child, church, cock, cold, come, concrete, continuous, cow, create, crisis, cup, curriculum, daughter, day, delicate, devil, dog, door, duck, eat, emotion, end, equal, expect, father, field, fish, four, fox, from, genius, girl, give, go, green, hand, hen, history, home, horse, knight, land, life, lord, manuscript, meat, mile, milk, noon, of, old, organization, palm, panic, paper, pipe, plum, pound, propaganda, queen, rain, rector, red, reduce, room, say, shall, sheep, sing, six, spoon, spring, stimulus, system, tell wall, water, we, wine, winter, wolf, work, you.

Task 6. Comment on the etymology of the following groups of words.

1. Canoe, chocolate, cigar, cocoa, comrade, maize, mango, Negro, tomato, vanilla.
2. Cobalt, leitmotiv, nickel, rucksack, swan-song, waltz, zinc.
3. Clan, Tory, whisky.
4. Banana, port, veranda, zebra.
5. Deck, rabbit, skipper, yacht.
6. Divan, khaki, kiosk, margarine, rice.
7. Mazurka.
8. Polka.
9. Silk, tea.
10. Caftan, coffee.

Task 7. Comment on international words. Arrange the following international words into groups, taking into account the sphere of life and man's activities they refer to: a) scientific; b) cultural; c) technical; d) political.

Motor, sputnik, concert, constitution, evolution, phonetics, drama, parliament, decree, telegraph, meeting, pact, melody, history, lecture, republic, tractor, allegro, revolution, radio, dialectics, formula, gas, nylon, sport, club, bank, comedy, materialism, opera, jazz, civil, lyric, stadium, poet, analysis, cybernetics, satellite, rector, idea, film, electron, biology, idealism, robot, computer, printer.

Тема 9. PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS AS A CONSTITUENT PART OF MODERN ENGLISH

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать определение понятий «фразеология», «фразеологическая единица»;
- знать отличительные признаки фразеологических единиц английского языка и их источники происхождения;
- иметь представление о различных подходах к классификации фразеологических единиц английского языка.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is understood by phraseology?
2. What is a phraseological unit?
3. What are the characteristic features of phraseological units?
4. What are the main sources of origin of phraseological units?
5. What types of phraseological units can be singled out according to L. Smith's thematic approach to the classification of phraseological units? Give examples.
6. What types of phraseological units can be singled out according to A. Smirnitsky's structural approach to the classification of phraseological units? Characterize each type.
7. What types of phraseological units can be singled out according to A. Kunin's structural-semantic approach to the classification of phraseological units? Characterize each type.
8. What types of phraseological units can be singled out according to V. Vinogradov's semantic approach to the classification of phraseological units? Characterize each type.
9. What types of phraseological units can be singled out according to I. Arnold's formal and functional approach to the classification of phraseological units? Characterize each type.

Part 9. PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS AS A CONSTITUENT PART OF MODERN ENGLISH

Problems to discuss:

1. Phraseological units and their characteristic features.
2. The origin of phraseological units.
3. Different approaches to the classification of phraseological units:
 - 3.1. L. Smith's thematic (or etymological) classification of phraseological units;
 - 3.2. A. Smirnitsky's structural classification of phraseological units;
 - 3.3. A. Kunin's structural-semantic classification of phraseological units;

3.4. V. Vinogradov's semantic classification of phraseological units;

3.5. I. Arnold's formal and functional approach to the classification of phraseological units.

Key words: phraseology, phraseological unit, one-top phraseological units, two-top phraseological units, multi-top phraseological units, nominative phraseological units, nominative-communicative phraseological units, interjectional and modal phraseological units, communicative phraseological units, phraseological fusions, phraseological unities, phraseological collocations, phraseological units functioning like nouns, phraseological units functioning like verbs, phraseological units functioning like adjectives, phraseological units functioning like adverbs, phraseological units functioning like prepositions, phraseological units functioning like interjections.

Recommended Reading:

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BASIC NOTIONS

Phraseology appeared in the domain of lexicology and is undergoing the process of segregating as a separate branch of linguistics. This is due to the fact that lexicology deals with words and their meanings, whereas phraseology deals with such combinations of words (phraseological units), where the meaning of the whole combination is different from the simple sum of literal meanings of words.

The founder of the theory of phraseology is considered to be the Swiss linguist of the French origin Charles Bally, whose attempt to systematize and give a classification to various combinations of words in the French language caused the emergence of a great number of investigations in the field of phraseology in other languages, including the English language.

The subject of phraseology is *a phraseological unit*. However, in modern linguistics there is considerable confusion as to the terminology of such a linguistic phenomenon as a phraseological unit. Scholars use a great number of diverse terms to denote more or less the same linguistic phenomenon: *phraseological unit, idiom, set expression, fix expression, set phrase* etc. The most frequently met terms (among the terms we

have mentioned) are “phraseological unit” firstly introduced by V. Vinogradov and used by most Russian scholars, and “idiom” widely used by western scholars.

A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterized by a complete or partially transferred meaning.

There are such distinctive features of phraseological units as:

– stability (it can be observed on such language levels as: lexicological (permanence of lexical composition of phraseological units), morphological (each constituent part of phraseological units is reproduced in a definite grammatical form, which cannot be changed intentionally), syntactic (word order cannot be changed in the structure of phraseological units));

– reproducibility (phraseological units cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units);

– integrity of meaning (it is the general meaning of a phraseological unit, which is difficult or impossible to deduce from meanings of its constituent parts, i.e. the meaning of a phraseological unit is created by mutual interaction of its constituent parts that makes it possible to convey a single concept, e.g.: *to skate on thin ice* – “to take risks”, *a home from home* – “a place or situation where one feels completely happy and at ease”);

– structural divisibility (phraseological units possess a divisible structure that makes it possible for them to be resolved into constituent parts (words)).

The **thematic classification** was suggested by L. Smith and it is the oldest approach to the classification of phraseological units. L. Smith classifies phraseological units according to their sources of origin, “source” referring to the particular field of human activity, life, nature, natural phenomena etc.

So, the thematic classification includes groups of phraseological units used by sailors, fishermen, soldiers, hunters and associated with the realia, phenomena and conditions of their occupations as well as groups of phraseological units associated with domestic and wild animals, birds, agriculture, cooking etc. The scientist argues that phraseological units associated with the sea and the lives of seamen are especially numerous in English vocabulary, e.g.: *to be all at sea* (to be

unable to understand; to be in a state of ignorance or bewilderment about smth); *in deep water* (in trouble or danger); *to sail under false colours* (to pretend to be what one's not; to pose as a friend and, at the same time, have hostile intentions).

The **structural classification** was suggested by A. Smirnitsky. According to A. Smirnitsky, there are three large groups of phraseological units:

1. One-top phraseological units (units which the scientist compares with derived words, because derived words have only one root morphemes, e.g.: *on the doorstep* (quite near); *on the nose* (exactly)).

2. Two-top (units which the scientist compares with compound words, because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes, e.g.: *to read between the lines*; *to sweep under the carpet*).

3. Multi-top phraseological units (units which have more than two root morphemes, e.g.: *to take a back seat*; *lock, stock and barrel*; *at one's own sweet will*).

A. Kunin gives the classification of phraseological units according to the **structural-semantic principle**. He divides phraseological units into the following four classes:

1. Nominative phraseological units, i.e. phraseological units, denoting phenomena and etc. This class includes all the structural types of phraseological units, with the exception of the fourth type and complex sentences, e.g.: *the ace of trumps*; *crocodile tears*; *a bee in one's bonnet*; *(as) large as life*; *(as) cool as cucumber*; *like a fish out of water*.

2. Nominative-communicative phraseological units. This class includes only the fourth type of phraseological units, e.g.: *to break the ice – the ice is broken*; *to cross (or pass) the Rubicon – the Rubicon is crossed (or passed)*; *to lead somebody by the nose – somebody is led by the nose*.

3. Interjectional and modal phraseological units, i.e. phraseological units which express emotions, declaration of will and etc. This class includes phrasemes as well as phraseological units with the sentence structure without predicativity, e.g.: interjectional phraseological units – *sakes alive!* ; *hear, hear!* ; *my foot!* ; *oh, my*

eyes!; *bless my heart and soul!* ; *a pretty kettle of fish!* etc.; modal phraseological units – *(as) sure as a gun;* *(as) sure as eggs is eggs;* *it (or that) goes without saying.*

4. Communicative phraseological units, i.e. phraseological units with a simple or complex sentence structure. There are two types of communicative phraseological units: sayings and proverbs. Complex sentences are met only among proverbs. Sayings: *the answer is a lemon;* *the world is a small place;* *that is a horse of another colour;* *one's word is as good as one's bond* etc. Proverbs: *a great ship asks deep water;* *as you make your bed, so you must lie on it;* *war is sweet to them that know it not;* *a penny saved is a penny gained;* *calamity is a man's touchstone.*

The **semantic approach** to the classification of phraseological units was suggested by V. Vinogradov. It is the first classification based on the semantic principle. It goes without saying that the semantic characteristic features play an important role in phraseology. The scientist worked out his classification on the material of the Russian language, but despite this fact linguists also apply it for classifying phraseological units of the English language.

According to Vinogradov's classification, phraseological units are divided into three groups: phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological collocations.

By phraseological fusion is understood a semantically indivisible phraseological unit, the whole meaning of which is non-motivated and cannot be deduced from the meanings of its constituent parts, i.e. the whole meaning may not be understood from the meanings of each constituent part of a phraseological unit, e.g.: *once in a blue moon* (very seldom); *to cry for the moon* (to demand unreal); *white elephant* (an expensive but useless thing), etc.

By phraseological unity is meant a semantically indivisible phraseological unit, the whole meaning of which is motivated and can be deduced from the meanings of its constituent parts, i.e. the whole meaning is not the sum of the meanings of constituent parts of a phraseological unit, but is based on them and may be understood from the constituent parts, e.g.: *to ride the high horse* (to behave a superior, haughty way); *to fall into a rage* (to get angry), etc.

By phraseological collocation we understand a semantically divisible phraseological unit, one constituent part of which has a bound meaning while the other constituent parts have absolutely independent meanings, i.e. phraseological collocation contains one constituent part used in its direct meaning while the other constituent parts are used figuratively, e.g.: *a question on the agenda of the day; to raise a question; gospel truth; bosom friends*, etc.

Formal and functional approach to the classification of phraseological units was suggested by I. Arnold and based on the fact that a phraseological unit functioning in speech is in distribution similar to definite classes of words, whereas structurally it can be identified with various types of syntagmas or with complete sentences. Consequently, I. Arnold points out the following classes of phraseological units:

- nominal phrases, e.g.: *the root of the trouble*;
- verbal phrases, e.g.: *put one's best foot forward*;
- adjective phrases, e.g.: *as good as gold; red as a cherry*;
- adverbial phrases, e.g.: *from head to foot*;
- prepositional phrases, e.g.: *in the course of*;
- conjunctive phrases, e.g.: *as long as, on the other hand*;
- interjectional phrases, e.g.: *Well, I never!*

I. Arnold supposes that it is necessary to subdivide the classes we have mentioned above, because this classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but also the functioning of the whole. Consequently, she subdivides these classes into:

1. Phraseological units functioning like nouns: N+N (*maiden name; brain trust*); N's +N (*cat's paw; Hobson's choice*); Ns' +N (*ladies' man*); N+ prp +N (*the arm of the law; skeleton in the cupboard*); N+A (*knight errant*).

2. Phraseological units 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*); V+ Subordinate clause (*see how the land lies*).

3. Phraseological units functioning like adjectives: A+ and +A (*high and mighty*); (as) + A+ as +N (*as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter*).

4. Phraseological units functioning like adverbs: N+N (*tooth and nail*); prp + N (*by heart; against the grain*); 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*).

5. Phraseological units functioning like prepositions: prp + N + prp (*in consequence of*).

6. Phraseological units functioning like interjections: *Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)!*

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Comment on the difference between phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and word combinations. Arrange the given phraseological units into three groups: 1) phraseological fusions; 2) phraseological unities; 3) word combinations.

1. To see world through rosy spectacles. 2. To show the white feather. 3. To kiss the hare's foot. 4. To call a spade a spade. 5. To make friends. 6. To take revenge. 7. A house of cards. 8. To make up one's mind. 9. To shed crocodile tears. 10. To commit suicide. 11. Judas kiss. 12. To play the first fiddle. 13. To find faults with somebody. 14. The apple of one's eye. 15. To get in touch with somebody. 16. True to fact. 17. I am fed up with it! 18. A pretty kettle of fish. 19. To give way. 20. To nip in the bud. 21. To wash one's hands. 22. Let sleeping dogs lie. 23. Between wind and water. 24. To go a long way. 25. A slip of the tongue (pen). 26. Blank verse. 27. To establish control. 28. A hard nut to crack.

Task 2. Explain the meaning of the given phraseological units. Arrange them into groups according to their origin: 1) expressions associated with some customs; 2) expressions associated with some historical events; 3) expressions borrowed from some literary sources; 4) expressions borrowed from the Bible.

1. The land of promise. 2. Baker's dozen. 3. New wine in old bottles. 4. Ask for bread and be given a stone. 5. To beat the air. 6. To give the devil his due. 7. Vanity fair. 8. Daily bread. 9. Forbidden fruit is sweet. 10. It rains cats and dogs. 11. To rob Peter to pay Paul. 12. Thirty pieces of silver. 13. To wash one's hands of something. 14. A prodigal son. 15. Something is rotten in the state of Denmark. 16. A thorn in the flesh of somebody. 17. To catch somebody red-handed. 18. Marriage is a lottery. 19. To fight the windmills. 20. Judas kiss.

Task 3. Give Russian equivalents to the following phraseological units. Mind their association with human activities.

1. To fish in troubled waters. 2. To rise to the fly. 3. To swallow the bait. 4. To join the colours. 5. To mask one's batteries. 6. To hunt the wrong hare. 7. To hunt with the hounds and run with the hare. 8. To kill two birds with one stone. 9. To feel one's pulse. 10. To take the law into one's own hands. 11. To play first fiddle. 12. In tune. 13. Out of tune. 14. To touch the right cord. 15. To go through the mill. 16. Spade work. 17. To be in the limelight. 18. To be out of limelight.

Task 4. Choose the correct phraseological unit from the given list to fill in the gaps in the sentences below.

Dark horse; to work like a dog; sour grapes; to lord it over; Achilles heel; to put one's cards on the table; red tape; to see somebody in the flesh; fat cats; around the clock.

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

Task 5. Comment on structural classification of phraseological units. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like nouns into groups reflecting the most typical patterns of their formation: 1) N + N; 2) N's + N; 3) N + prep + N; 4) N + and + N; 5) Adj + N.

Solomon's judgement; the sword of Damocles; Hercules' labour; blank verse; the apple of somebody's eye; maiden name; wolf in sheep's clothing; a piece of somebody's mind; queer bird; a slip of the pen; bag and baggage; snake in the grass; old song; the early bird; a mare's nest; a new broom; old bird; the last straw; lord and master; black ingratitude; cold reason.

Task 6. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like verbs into groups in accordance with the most typical patterns of their formation: 1) V + N; 2) V + prep + N; 3) V + (one's) + N + (prep); 4) V + and + V; 5) V + or + V; 6) V + subordinate clause; 7) V + postpositive.

To open the ball; to turn one's coat; to go through fire and water; to see which way the wind blows; to know what is what; to take revenge; to play a wrong card; to make a fool of somebody; to make friends with; to make one's way; to see how the land lies; to take a walk; to pick and choose; to run into debt; to sink or swim; to play a trick; to beat the air; to lose one's heart; to break ground; to fall into a rage; to hit below the belt; to be at a loss; to have a finger in the pie; to grasp the shadow; to fall into disrepute; to come into fashion; to lose the game; to cross the Rubicon.

Task 7. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like adjectives into groups in accordance with the patterns after which they are formed: 1) Adj + Adj; 2) (as) + Adj + as + N.

As old as the hills; high and mighty; mild as a kitten; as slippery as an eel; hungry as a wolf; silent as the grave; as cool as a cucumber; safe and sound; as busy as a bee; as cold as ice; as hard as nails.

Task 8. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like adverbs into groups in accordance with the patterns after which they are formed: 1) N + N; 2) prep + N; 3) adv + prep + N; 4) prep + N + or + N; 5) conj + subordinate clause.

Within a stone's throw; at one jump; for love or money; at all costs; by slow degrees; at a stroke; before one can say Jack Robinson; under one's nose; within reach; by hook or by crook; tooth and nail; once in a blue moon; once upon a time; by heart.

Task 9. Classify the following phraseological units into: 1) nominative; 2) verbal; 3) adjectival; 4) adverbial.

To try one's hand at something; a great deal; a stony heart; to the last drop of blood; not to lift a finger; as brave as a lion; at long last; a bull in a china shop; a fish out of water; out of a clear sky; Indian summer; a dog in the manger; to hang in the balance; to live from hand to mouth; to the bitter end; the evil spirit; with all one's heart; a bed of roses; the king of beasts; by fits and starts; next door; to show one's true colours; flesh and blood; far and wide; to die a dog's death; in the long run; to stir up a nest of hornets; odd fish; shed crocodile tears; to cause pain; blank wall; Dutch courage; like a shot; to know on which side one's; bread is buttered; at sixes and sevens; at one's feet; from top to toe; to milk the ram; double dealing; German silver; by all means; inch by inch; at hand; soft as wax; melt as wax; hot as fire; to live like a king; to sit like statue; to run on the rocks; well and good; heads or tails; to be in full swing; to fly low; over head and ears; free and easy.

Task 10. Translate the following sentences. Pick out phraseological units. From the list below, choose phraseological units which correspond to the italicized ones.

1. To cry stinking fish. 2. To be on both sides of the fence. 3. Six of one and half a dozen of the other. 4. It is a matter of course. 5. After all. 6. First of all. 7. It never rains but it pours. 8. To take the wrong sow by the ear. 9. Tooth and nail. 10. All is grits that comes to his mill. 11. That's a horse of another colour.

1. *For one thing*, I have no father or mother, brother or sister. 2. Laying all these faults at my door *you are putting the saddle on the wrong horse*. 3. "I am not going to *run with hare and hunt with the hounds*," he thought. 4. "Never mind," returned the Captain, ... "*all's fish that come to your net*, I suppose?" "Certainly," said Mr Brogley. "But sprats ain't whales, you know." 5. *It's quite another pair of shoes*, my darling. 6. "We have to keep our friendship anyhow." "*That goes without saying*." 7. It may look hard now but you are going to feel better about it *in the long run*. 8. It was a timely spur to Soames's intense and rooted distaste for the *washing of dirty linen in public*. 9. "*Misfortunes never come singly*," said Phelps, smiling, though it was evident that his adventure had somewhat shaken him. 10. "So," said Tom comforting himself, "it's very nearly *as broad as it's long*." 11. He tired easily now. No longer could he do a fast twenty rounds, *hammer and tongs*, fight, fight, fight, from gong to gong.

Тема 10. ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- иметь представление об особенностях лексикографии как науки;
- знать различные принципы классификации словарей.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is lexicography?
2. What is understood by the term "dictionary"?
3. What are the main principles of classification of dictionaries?
What types of dictionaries can be singled out according to these principles?
4. What information do linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries provide?
5. What is the difference between general and restricted dictionaries?

6. What do you know about explanatory and specialized dictionaries?

7. What dictionaries are called monolingual and bilingual?

8. What is the difference between diachronic and synchronic dictionaries?

Part 10. ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

Problems to discuss:

1. What is lexicography?

2. Classification and types of dictionaries.

Key words: dictionary, encyclopedic dictionary, linguistic dictionary, general dictionary, restricted dictionary, explanatory dictionary, specialized dictionary, monolingual dictionary, bilingual dictionary, diachronic (historical) dictionary, synchronic (descriptive) dictionary, lexicography.

Recommended Reading:

1. Дубенец Э.М. Современный английский язык. Лексикология : пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов / Э.М. Дубенец. – М. : ГЛОССА / КАРО, 2004. – С. 179–184.

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BASIC NOTIONS

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

By the term “**dictionary**” is understood a book that lists the words of a language in a certain order (usually alphabetical) and gives their meanings, or that gives the equivalent words in a different language.

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.

All dictionaries are divided into **encyclopedic** and **linguistic** dictionaries.

Encyclopedic dictionaries are scientific reference books dealing with every branch of knowledge, or with one particular branch, usually in alphabetical order. They describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some information about them. The best-known encyclopedias of the English-speaking world are the *Encyclopedia Britannica* and the *Encyclopedia Americana*.

Linguistic dictionaries are books of words in a language usually listed alphabetically with pronunciation, definitions, etymologies and other linguistic information or with their equivalents in another language or other languages. They describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage.

Linguistic dictionaries are divided into:

1. **General dictionaries** which represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending on the scope of the bulk of book in question, e.g.: the *Collins COBUILD Thesaurus*.

2. **Restricted dictionaries** which cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary, e.g.: the *Oxford Concise Dictionary of Proverbs*, the *Merriam-Webster's Dictionary of Law*.

3. **Explanatory dictionaries** which 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*, the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, the *New International Dictionary*. In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples.

4. **Specialized dictionaries** which deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their

etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage. They include dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, collocations, word-frequency, neologisms, slang, pronouncing, etymological, phraseological and others.

5. **Monolingual dictionaries** which explain words and provide the information about them in the same language, e.g.: the *New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*.

6. **Bilingual dictionaries** which explain words by giving their equivalents in another language, e.g.: the *Oxford Russian-English Dictionary*.

Bilingual dictionaries are useful to several kinds of people: to those who study foreign languages, to specialists reading foreign literature, to translators, to travellers, and to linguists. They may have two principal purposes: reference for translation and guidance for expression. They must provide an adequate translation in the target language of every word and expression in the source language. They are also supposed to contain all the inflectional, derivational, semantic and syntactic information that their readers might ever need, and also information on spelling and pronunciation.

7. **Diachronic (historical) dictionaries** which 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*.

8. **Synchronic (descriptive) dictionaries** which deal with the present-day meaning and usage of words, e.g.: the *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Classify the given dictionaries into two groups: 1) encyclopedic dictionaries; 2) linguistic dictionaries.

For example: *The Concise Oxford Dictionary*

The Concise Oxford Dictionary is a linguistic dictionary.

NTC's Dictionary of American Spelling, The Chambers Book of Facts, The Collins Dictionary of Allusions, The Longman Dictionary of the English Language, The Oxford Comparison to English Literature, The Dictionary of Literary Terms, Brewer's Dictionary of 20th-century

Phrase and Fable, The Collins COBUILD Roget's International Thesaurus, The Merriam-Webster's Geographical Dictionary, The Cambridge Guide to Fiction in English, The Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms, The Penguin Dictionary of English Grammar, The Cassell Comparison to 20th-century Music, Random House Webster's Dictionary of American Slang.

Task 2. State which type the given linguistic dictionaries refer to: general – restricted; explanatory – specialized; monolingual – bilingual; diachronic – synchronic.

For example: *The Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs*

The Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs is a restricted, explanatory, monolingual, synchronic word-book.

- 1) the Concise Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology;
- 2) the Penguin Dictionary of English Idioms;
- 3) the New Oxford Dictionary of English;
- 4) the Modern English-Russian Dictionary;
- 5) the Longman Language Activator;
- 6) the English-Russian Dictionary of Linguistics and Semiotics;
- 7) the English Pronouncing Dictionary;
- 8) the Longman Business English Dictionary;
- 9) the New Oxford Thesaurus of English;
- 10) the Dictionary of Neologisms;
- 11) the BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English.

ПРИМЕРНЫЕ ВОПРОСЫ МОДУЛЬНОЙ КОНТРОЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ № 2

1. What do words consist of?
2. What is a morpheme?
3. What types of morphemes can be singled out semantically?
Characterize each type. Give examples.
4. What structural types of morphemes can be singled out?
Characterize each type. Give examples.
9. What types of meaning do root morphemes have?
10. What types of meaning do non-root (or affixational) morphemes have?
11. What words are called monomorphic?
12. What words are called polymorphic?
13. What types of polymorphic words can be singled out?
14. What subtypes can monoradical words be divided into?
15. What subtypes do polyradical words fall into?
16. What is word-building?
17. What are the principle types of word-building?
18. What is meant by affixation? Give examples.
19. What is the role of suffixes in the formation of new words?
20. What are the principles of the classification of suffixes?
21. What principles of the classification of prefixes can be singled out?
22. What affixes are called productive?
23. What affixes are called non-productive?
24. What is conversion? Give examples.
25. What is understood by word-composition? Give examples.
26. What is abbreviation? What types of abbreviation can be singled out? Give examples.
27. What are the minor ways of modern word-building?
28. What is sound interchange? What types does sound interchange fall into? Give examples.
29. What is understood by stress interchange? Give examples.

30. What is meant by sound imitation or onomatopoeia? What groups of onomatopoeic words can be singled out according to the semantic principle?

31. What is back-formation? Give examples.

32. What are blends? Give examples.

33. What do you understand by the term “etymology”?

34. What word is called native?

35. What does the term “borrowing” mean?

36. What are native words characterized by?

37. What are the causes of borrowing?

38. What are the ways of borrowing?

39. What languages did the English language borrow words from?

40. What do you understand by translation borrowings? Give examples.

41. What are meant by semantic borrowings? Give examples.

42. What words are called international? Give examples.

43. What pairs of words are called etymological doublets? Give examples.

44. What is understood by phraseology?

45. What is a phraseological unit? Give examples.

46. What are the characteristic features of phraseological units?

47. What are the main sources of origin of phraseological units?

48. What approaches to the classification of phraseological units do you know?

49. What is lexicography?

50. What is understood by the term “dictionary”?

51. What are the main principles of classification of dictionaries? What types of dictionaries can be singled out according to these principles?

Раздел 2
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА
АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

МОДУЛЬ 1

Тема 1. GENERALITIES OF THEORETICAL GRAMMAR.
BASIC LINGUISTIC NOTIONS

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- иметь четкое представление об основных положениях теоретической грамматики английского языка и ее месте в системе языковых дисциплин;
- обладать навыками понимания основных лингвистических проблем.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is language? What is speech?
2. What planes of language do you know?
3. What is a paradigm? What is a syntagma?
4. What are syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of lingual units? What types of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations do you know?
5. How many levels of language and their functions do you know? What linguistic units represent each level?
6. What is a morpheme?
7. What is a morphemic structure of the word?
8. What types of morphemes and their functions do you know?
9. What types of morphological opposition do you know?
10. What is the difference between grammatical and lexical meanings? How do these two types of meanings interact?
11. Give the definition of the grammatical category. Explain the difference between conceptual and formal grammatical categories.

12. Speak on the theory of oppositions. Describe the processes of neutralization and transposition.

MODULE 1

Part 1. GENERALITIES OF THEORETICAL GRAMMAR. BASIC LINGUISTIC NOTIONS

Problems to discuss:

1. Theoretical grammar and its subject.
2. Human language as a semiotic system. Notions of “system” and “structure”. General characteristics of language as a functional system. Levels of language structure and their units.
3. Language and speech.
4. Systemic relations in language. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations.
5. Morphology and syntax as two parts of linguistic description. The basic notions of morphology.
6. The plane of expression and the plane of context. Grammatical meaning as opposed to lexical meaning. Grammatical form as opposed to morphemic form. Grammatical categories. Explicit and implicit categories in English. Grammatical opposition. Types of oppositions.

Key words: system, structure, language, speech, levels of language structure, language units, paradigm, paradigmatic relations, relations, syntagmatic relations, the plane of content, the plane of expression, grammatical meaning, grammatical form, grammatical category, grammatical opposition.

Recommended Reading:

1. Блох М.Я. Диктема в уровневой структуре языка // Вопросы языкознания. – 2000. – №4. – С. 56–67.
2. Блох М.Я. Практикум по теоретической грамматике : учеб. пособие / М.Я. Блох, Т.Н. Семенова, С.В. Тимофеева. – М. : Высш. шк., 2004. – 471 с. – С. 7–11.

3. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке): учебное пособие / Л.А. Козлова. – Изд. 2-е, испр. – Барнаул : АлтГПА, 2010. – 249 с. – С. 5–18.

4. Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990. – 686 с. – С. 113–115, 366–367, 447–448.

5. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar / M.Y. Blokh. – Moscow : Vyssaja Skola, 2000. – 382 p. – P. 6–17.

BASIC NOTIONS

Grammar may be *practical* and *theoretical*. Practical grammar describes grammar rules that are necessary to make up sentences in the process of communication. The aim of theoretical grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

A human language performs two main functions – the communicative function and the expressive function, which are closely interrelated as the expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs, we say that language is a semiotic system.

Any linguistic unit is an entity uniting a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. We distinguish *the plane of content* and *the plane of expression*. The forms of language units do not resemble their meanings. The connection between them is conventional, and conventions differ across languages.

Taking into consideration the discrimination between the two planes, M. Blokh says that “the purpose of grammar as a linguistic discipline is, in the long run, to disclose and formulate the regularities of the correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression in the formation of utterances out of the stocks of words as part of the process of speech production” [27, p. 12].

All the elements of language system (a complex object made up of separate parts) depend on each other; they exist only within this system. Language is a structural system. This structure is based on the hierarchical layering of parts constituting the whole. In the structure of

language there are six structural levels: *phonemic, morphemic, lexemic, phrasemic, proposemic and superproposemic*. The levels are represented by the corresponding level units:

1. The phonemic level is the lowest level. The phonemic level unit is the phoneme. It is a distinctive unit (*log – lock*).

2. The morphemic level is represented by the morpheme as the lowest meaningful unit (*work – worker*).

3. The word (the lexeme) is the main nominative unit of a lexemic level of language.

4. The word-group (the phraseme) can be regarded as the element of the minor syntax. It is the dependent syntactic unit.

5. The main communicative unit – the sentence – belongs to the major syntax. It is the independent syntactic unit of the proposemic level of language.

6. The superproposemic (or supersyntactical level) has the text (the texteme) as its level unit.

The distinction between language and speech was made by the Swiss scholar **Ferdinand de Saussure**. Language is a collective body of knowledge, thus its social nature is doubtless. It is a set of basic elements, and these elements can form an endless variety of combinations while used by an individual in the process of communication, in this way defining the nature of speech as individual one.

Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units: the language unit phoneme is opposed to the speech unit – sound. For example, phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech – /s/ and /z/. The sentence is opposed to the utterance; the text is opposed to the discourse.

A linguistic unit can enter into two different kinds of relations: *paradigmatic relations (PR)*, based on the principles of similarity and making the units able to substitute one another and *syntagmatic relations (SR)*, linear relations, existing at every language level.

According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types: semantic, formal and functional. SR can also be of three different types: coordinate (the relations of independence), subordinate (the

relations of dependence) and predicative (the relations of mutual dependence, based on primary and secondary predication).

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means which serves to turn the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means. Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – *synthetic* and *analytic*.

Traditionally grammar is divided into two parts: **morphology** (the grammar of words) and **syntax** (the grammar of the sentence). The role of these parts in the grammatical structure of different languages is different and depends on the type of the language.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of the language (not a part of the word), which as it appears may be larger than a word in the case of analytical forms of words.

Like the phoneme, the morpheme is always an abstraction and presents a sum of its variants which are called *allomorphs*.

In the semantic structure of the word there are two meanings combined – lexical and grammatical. *Lexical meaning* is the individual meaning of the word (e.g.: snow). *Grammatical meaning* is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass (for example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of “thingness”).

The unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same grammatical form (e.g.: singular vs plural) makes up *grammatical categories* which find their realization through oppositions, e.g.: the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular vs plural. The absence and presence of the special categorial markers (e.g.: singular zero morpheme vs plural allomorphs) make it possible to distinguish between an unmarked (weak) member and marked (strong) member of *grammatical opposition*.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Describe paradigmatic realization of the following grammatical categories: a) the case of the English noun; b) the person, the number and the mood of the English verb.

Task 2. Add your own examples of language units connected by paradigmatic relations of different types to those given.

Semantic paradigmatic relations: a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day – He would practice English every day.

Formal paradigmatic relations: man – men; play – played – will play – is playing.

Functional paradigmatic relations: an, the, this, his, Ann's (answer).

Task 3. Define the type of syntagmatic relations between the elements of the sentences below.

1. The teacher began the lesson with greeting his students.
2. Children were tired but happy. 3. Lisa has come. I saw her entering the house. 4. Reserving judgements is a matter of infinite hope. (F. Scott Fitzgerald) 5. There was music from my neighbor's house through the summer nights. (F. Scott Fitzgerald) 6. I observed the doctor sniffing and sniffing, like someone tasting a bad egg. (R.L. Stevenson)

Task 4. Define the types of opposition on which the categories of number and case of the English noun are based. Do the same for the categories of other parts of speech.

Task 5. Define the meaning of the “s” morpheme in the following cases:

1. He gets upset if he gets 99% on a test! 2. My brother believes it's important to be at least respectful of other people's beliefs. 3. Juan speaks English fluently and makes very few grammatical mistakes. 4. The teacher keeps a record of every student's attendance. 5. That fellow really whatevers me. 6. The story was in all the dailies.

Task 6. Analyze the morphemic structure of the words below:

immature, cooperation, continuous, unforgettable, to analyze, freely, subway, overwork, reconstructed, employee, blacksmith, paranormal, chatterboxes, disappointment, bored, Eurasia, misinterpretation.

Тема 2. THE PARTS OF SPEECH PROBLEM. WORD CLASSES

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать принципы классификации частей речи;
- выделять основные характеристики частей речи английского языка;
- знать лексико-грамматические классы слов и принципы их выделения.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. Why is it difficult to give an invulnerable definition of the word?

2. Give the definition of a part of speech and a short survey of the parts-of-speech theory. How does a part of speech differ from a class or any other grouping of words?

3. What are the criteria for classification of words into parts of speech? Speak about different approaches to classifications into parts of speech (B.A. Ilysh's, H. Sweet's, Ch. Friez's and others').

4. Enumerate the notional and functional parts of speech of the English language. What are their functions?

5. Compare different terms sometimes used to denote notion words in English: content words, lexical words, major parts of speech, and functional words – empty words, grammatical words, structural words, minor parts of speech. What characteristics of the two major types of words are reflected in these terms?

6. Speak about the interaction between parts of speech. What is the syntactic transposition and what are its functions in the language?

Part 2. THE PARTS OF SPEECH PROBLEM. WORD CLASSES

Problems to discuss:

1. Approaches to the problem of parts of speech and their classification.
2. The syntactic-distributional classification of words.
3. Interaction between parts of speech.
4. Word classes and subclasses.

Key words: parts of speech, classification of words, inflectional and derivational features, word classes, notional words, functional words, semi-notional words

Recommended Reading:

1. Вежбицкая А. Семантические универсалии и описание языков / Пер. с англ. А.Д. Шмелева под ред. Т.В. Бульгиной. – М. : Языки русской культуры, 1999. – 178 с. – С. 134–170.

2. Иванова И.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка / И.Г. Иванова, В.В. Бурлакова, Г.Г. Почепцов. – М. : Высшая школа, 1981. – 285 с. – С. 14–20.

3. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке): учебное пособие / Л.А. Козлова. – Изд. 2-е, испр. – Барнаул : АлтГПА, 2010 – 249 с. – С. 37–52.

4. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar / M.Y. Blokh. – Moscow : Vyssaja Skola, 2000. – 382 p. – P. 37–48.

5. Ilysh B.A. The Structure of Modern English / B.A. Ilysh. – Leningrad : Prosveshcheniye, 1971 – 370 p. – P. 27–35.

BASIC NOTIONS

The parts of speech are classes of words having certain characteristics in common. The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. There are four approaches to the problem:

- 1) classical;
- 2) functional;

- 3) distributional;
- 4) complex.

The classical theory of parts of speech is the oldest. It is based on Latin classification of the parts of speech according to which all words were divided into declinable (nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles) and indeclinable (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections) parts of speech. A new approach to the problem was introduced in the XIX century by Henry Sweet. This approach may be defined as **functional**. Henry Sweet resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units (noun-words: noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund, adjective-words: adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles, verb: finite verb, verbals – gerund, infinitive, participles) and particles (adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection). **A distributional approach** to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by Charles Fries. He based the classification of words on distributive analysis – the ability of words to combine with other words of different types. The lexical meaning of words was not taken into account. Charles Fries introduced four major classes of words and 15 form-classes, being the first linguist to pay attention to some of the peculiarities of function words (form-classes).

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated according to three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. This approach may be defined as **complex**. The semantic criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). The formal criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: a) its semantics; b) its morphological features; c) its syntactic peculiarities.

Thus, all the words of the language are divided into:

a) **notional** words (those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc., words with the corresponding references in the objective reality): nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs;

b) **functional** (or grammatical) words (those having no references of their own in the objective reality): articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions and modal words.

Such a division of language units into notional and functional words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. However, in actual speech the border line between notional and functional words is not always clear cut. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar to functional words - e.g.: semi-notional words – to turn, to get, etc.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Point out the notional and functional parts of speech in the passage below.

Rip Van Winkle, however, was one of those happy mortals, of foolish, well-oiled dispositions, who take the world easy, eat white bread or brown whichever can be got with least thought or trouble, and would rather starve on penny than work for a pound. If left to himself, he would have whistled life away in perfect contentment; but his wife kept continually dinning in his ears about his idleness, his carelessness, and the ruin he was bringing on his family.

Task 2. Define subclasses of the following words:

lake, ought, himself, child, milk, friendship, become, will, golden, love, asleep, Russia, these, Cardiff, seven, fast, first, him, tell, may, theirs, money, honesty.

Task 3. Point out the cases of syntactic transposition in the sentences given below. State the function of the transposition:

1. After a week we all served ourselves Chinese style, standing and stretching across the table one after another (L. Hobbs). 2. She thinks the world of you, Sid. 3. She was shining black, pure African, devoted to her last drop of blood to the O'Haras ... (M. Mitchell). 4. They can't hurt you any (T. Chamales). 5. The phrase could be interpreted two ways (G. Greene). 6. It's a weeding-out system: the weaker get discouraged and fall out (D. Lessing). 7. They walk out past

the front desk and the English woman's laser beam gaze (M. Atwood).
8. I want to go somewhere very warm and very far away (M. Atwood).
9. At last he turned and started walking in the now deserted corridor (E. Segal).
10. The thought of Nick, once it came fully upon him, began to eat up Michael's consciousness (I. Murdoch).

Task 4. Point out the cases of cross-linguistic asymmetry in the parts of speech in the sentences and translate them into Russian:

1. Why are you reluctant to reveal the sources? (J. Fowles).
2. He suspected that the girls were after something exploiting the old man's weaknesses (J. Fowles).
3. Since then I bank no more (S. Leacock).
4. She was silent, torn-apart silent (R.J. Waller).
5. Afterward he took her to a fancy restaurant for lunch (R.J. Waller).
6. I gravely doubt that the boss did any sleeping for two weeks. That is bed sleeping (R. P. Warren).
7. He gave her a rueful nod. "I suspect I am being a bloody nuisance. For you" (J. Fowles).
8. There was only one showing of the lion's claws (J. Fowles).
9. The initial employee was back (V. Nabokov).
10. Cohn wanted some changes. If I agreed, the film would be doable, he said (A. Miller).

Тема 3. THE NOUN AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- уметь охарактеризовать имя существительное как часть речи, обозначающую предметность;
- знать формальные и функциональные признаки существительного;
- различать грамматически существенные подклассы существительного: существительные собственные и нарицательные, исчисляемые и неисчисляемые, одушевленные (личностные и неличностные) и неодушевленные;
- знать лексические и грамматические способы различения рода в английском языке;

- знать формальные и функциональные признаки форм единственного и множественного числа в английском языке;
- иметь представление о различных теоретических подходах к изучению категории падежа в англистике: теории позиционных падежей и теории предложных падежей, уметь их критически оценивать;
- характеризовать проблему артикля как грамматического определителя существительного.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What categorial meaning is the grammatical class of nouns characterized by?
2. Comment on the grammatical meaning and the set of formal features of the noun.
3. Describe categorial functional properties of the noun?
4. What is the oppositional structure of the category of gender in the English noun?
5. Describe subclasses of English nouns with regard to the category of number.
6. Comment on the case as the immanent morphological category of the noun.
7. Dwell upon the main function of the article.

Part 3. THE NOUN AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Problems to discuss:

1. The Noun as a part of speech.
2. The category of number.
3. The category of case. Noun case theories.
4. The problem of other categories of the noun.
5. The use of articles in English and their functions.

Key words: the noun, number, case, gender, genitive case.

Recommended Reading:

1. Иванова И.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка / И.Г. Иванова, В.В. Бурлакова, Г.Г. Почепцов. – М. : Высшая школа, 1981. – 285 с. – С. 21–34.

2. Козлова Л.А. Проблемы функционального сближения частей речи в современном английском языке / Л.А. Козлова. – Барнаул : БГПУ, 1997. – 200 с. – С. 55–63, 103–138.

3. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке) : учебное пособие / Л.А. Козлова. – Изд. 2-е, испр. – Барнаул : АлтГПА, 2010 – 249 с. – С. 52–61.

4. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar / M.Y. Blokh. – Moscow : Vyssaja Skola, 2000. – 382 p. – P. 49–85.

5. Ilysh B.A. The Structure of Modern English / B.A. Ilysh. – Leningrad : Prosveshcheniye, 1971. – 370 p. – P. 35–57.

BASIC NOTIONS

The noun is the main nominative unit of speech. It can be characterized by three criteria: semantic (the meaning), morphological (the form and grammatical categories) and syntactical (functions, distribution). The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness. According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses:

1. According to **the type of nomination** they may be *proper* and *common*.

2. According to **the form of existence** they may be *animate* and *inanimate*. Animate nouns in their turn fall into *human* and *non-human*.

3. According to **their quantitative structure** nouns can be *countable* and *uncountable*.

4. In accordance with **the morphological structure of the stems** all nouns can be classified into: *simple*, *derived*, *compound* and *composite*.

The noun can be used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common **noun determiners** are considered to be

articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and *nouns* themselves in the common and genitive case.

The noun has **morphological categories** of *number* and *case*. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of *gender*.

The **number category** is realized through the opposition of two form-classes: *the plural form: the singular form* only within subclass of countable nouns.

There are nouns in which this opposition is not expressed explicitly but is revealed by syntactical and lexical correlation in the context. There are two groups here: *singularia tantum* (it covers different groups of nouns: proper names, abstract nouns, material nouns, collective nouns); *pluralia tantum* (it covers the names of objects consisting of several parts (jeans), names of sciences (mathematics), names of diseases, games, etc.).

There is no universal point of view as to the case system in English. Different scholars stick to a different number of cases.

The **case category** in English is realized through the opposition: *The Common Case :: The Possessive Case*, or Genitive Case (sister :: sister's). The meanings rendered by the Genitive Case are the following:

- Possessive Genitive: Mary's father;
- Subjective Genitive: The doctor's arrival;
- Objective Genitive: The man's release;
- Adverbial Genitive: Two hour's work;
- Equation Genitive: a mile's distance;
- Genitive of destination: children's books;
- Mixed Group: yesterday's paper.

According to some language analysts (B. Ilyish, F. Palmer, and E. Morokhovskaya), nouns have no category of gender in Modern English. Prof. Ilyish states that not a single word in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting male or female being). Still, other scholars (M. Blokh, John Lyons) admit the existence of the category of gender. Prof. Blokh states that the existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (he, she, it). Accordingly, there are three genders in English: the neuter (non-person) gender, the masculine gender, the feminine gender.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Define the syntactical functions of the nouns in the following sentences:

1. I gave him a pound. Twelve dollars are enough for the man.
2. A dog is a man's best friend. 3. He was certainly the best hated man in the ship. 4. High above the city, on a tall column, stood the statue of the Happy Prince. 5. I found him an excellent listener. 6. The ship got under way.

Task 2. Define which of the given below examples a) are compound nouns; b) are free noun combinations; c) occupy intermediate position. Give proofs for each case:

address book, cut of a suit, human being, artificial leather, science fiction, pen-name, baby-sitter, tin opener, bank account, car roof, speech sound, earring, full moon, sheep skin coat.

Task 3. Characterize each of the given below nouns in accordance with its lexico-grammatical status:

car, trousers, house, man, furniture, the Neva, company, Bill, crowd, beauty, gold, kindness, paper, Anny, idea.

Task 4. Comment on the use of the possessive case of nouns in the sentences below.

1. Everyone was waiting for the doctor's arrival. 2. The man I saw yesterday's son works as a baker. 3. My mother-in-law's house is in a mile's distance from ours. 4. This couple got married at St. Paul's last year. 5. The man's release was met with enthusiasm.

Task 5. Give the feminine gender equivalents of the following nouns. Comment on the lexical means expressing the gender of the English noun:

boy, lion, bull, cock, man, he-goat, master, father, son, gentleman, earl, husband, lord, king, brother, milk-man, negro, bachelor, duck, drone, gander, stag, monk, sir, uncle, nephew, wizard, hart, drake, giant, poet, man-servant.

Тема 4. THE VERB AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- характеризовать глагол с точки зрения его семантических, формальных и синтаксических свойств;
- знать грамматические категории глагола современного английского языка;
- знать аспекты деления глаголов на подклассы;
- выделять основные проблемы при анализе категории времени и предлагать для них собственное решение;
- анализировать грамматическую категорию аспекта и определять роль перфектных форм в тексте;
- уметь обосновать специфичность категории наклонения в системе глагольных категорий.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What specific forms of the outward structure of the verb do you know? What types of the verb stems can you name?
2. Describe the system of grammatical categories of the verb.
3. Analyze the opposition constituting the category of tense in English; describe the paradigmatic and syntagmatic meanings of each member of the opposition.
4. Comment on the category of voice in L. Barkhudarov's theory of English.
5. Give the definition of the category of aspect, point out the features which can be taken as the basis for constituting the grammatical category of aspect in different languages.
6. How does Mood differ from Modality?
7. Substantiate your point of view on the number of moods in English.

Part 4. THE VERB AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Problems to discuss:

1. The Verb as a part of speech.
2. Classification of English verbs.
3. The grammatical categories of the Verb in Modern English.

Key words: the verb, verbiality, tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, finitude, phase.

Recommended Reading:

1. Иванова И.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка / И.Г. Иванова, В.В. Бурлакова, Г.Г. Почепцов. – М. : Высшая школа, 1981. – 285 с. – С. 46–53.

2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке) : учебное пособие / Л.А. Козлова. – Изд. 2-е, испр. – Барнаул : АлтГПА, 2010. – 249 с. – С. 62–81.

3. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar / M.Y. Blokh. – Moscow : Vyssaja Skola, 2000. – 382 p. – P. 85–102, 137–155.

4. Ilysh B.A. The Structure of Modern English / B.A. Ilysh. – Leningrad : Prosveshcheniye, 1971 – 370 p. – P. 86–89.

BASIC NOTIONS

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. First of all it performs **the central role** in realizing predication – **connection between situation in the utterance and reality**.

The verb possesses **the grammatical meaning of verbiality** – the ability to denote a process developing in time. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

The verb possesses the following **grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase**. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find

their expression in *synthetic* and *analytical* forms. The **formative elements** expressing these categories are *grammatical affixes*, *inner inflexion* and *function words*. Some categories have only synthetic forms (person, number), others – only analytical (voice). There are also categories expressed by both synthetic and analytical forms (mood, tense, aspect).

The most **universal syntactic feature** of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate. However, this criterion is not absolute because only finite forms can perform this function while non-finite forms can be used in any function but predicate. And finally, any verb in the form of the infinitive can be combined with a modal verb. English verbs can be classified on different criteria.

1. Morphological classification:

a) according to their stem-types all verbs fall into: *simple*: to go, *sound-replacive*: food – to feed, blood – to bleed, *stress-replacive*: transport – to transport, *expanded* (with the help of suffixes and prefixes): justify, overcome, *composite* (correspond to composite nouns): to blackmail, *phrasal*: to give a smile;

b) according to the way of forming past tenses and Participle II verbs can be *regular* and *irregular*.

2. Lexical-morphological classification:

a) according to the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity verbs fall into *transitive* and *intransitive*;

b) according to the implicit grammatical meaning of stativeness/non-stativeness verbs fall into *stative* and *dynamic*;

c) according to the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness/non-terminativeness verbs fall into *terminative* and *durative*.

3. Syntactic classification:

a) according to the nature of predication (primary and secondary) all verbs fall into *finite* and *non-finite*;

b) according to syntagmatic properties (valency) verbs can be of *obligatory* and *optional* valency;

4. Functional classification:

According to their functional significance verbs can be *notional* (with the full lexical meaning), *semi-notional* (modal verbs, link-verbs), *auxiliaries*.

As for grammatical categories of the English verb we do not find a generally accepted view-point. **B.A. Ilyish** identifies six grammatical categories in present-day English verb: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number. **L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling** distinguish only the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, and mood. Further they note that the finite forms of the verb have special means expressing person, number and tense. In this brief review students will be given basic characteristics of only three categories, the rest being left for their homework study.

The **category of voice** is realized through the opposition *Active voice :: Passive voice*. The realization of the voice category is restricted because of the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity.

The **category of tense** is a verbal category that reflects the objective category of time. The tense category is realized through the oppositions. The binary principle of oppositions remains the basic one in the correlation of the forms that represent the grammatical category of tense. The present moment is the main temporal plane of verbal actions.

The **category of aspect** is a linguistic representation of the objective category of Manner of Action. It is realized through the opposition *Continuous :: Non-Continuous* (Progressive :: Non-Progressive). The realization of the category of aspect is closely connected with the lexical meaning of verbs.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Distinguish between the types of the verbs (notional, auxiliary, link, modal, etc.) in the following sentences:

1. It was in this apartment, also, that there stood against the western wall, a gigantic clock of ebony. 2. Its pendulum swung to and fro with a dull, heavy, monotonous clang; and when the minute-hand made the circuit of the face, and the hour was to be stricken, there came

from the brazen lungs of the clock a sound which was clear and loud and deep ... 3. She looked calm and self-confident but suddenly turned pale and burst into tears. 4. His business turned out a success. 5. This tree grows very fast in such a climate. 6. The old man grew red in face and shouted angrily at his assistant. 7. It's getting colder and colder *every day*. 8. Working so hard you'll soon be getting good results.

Task 2. State the function of the underlined verbs in the sentences below:

1. It had all sounded so romantic (E. Bombeck). 2. "I love to see you at my table, Nick. You remind me of a – of a rose, an absolute rose. Doesn't he?" (F. Scott Fitzgerald). 3. He looked white and beaten and ready to faint (S. Leacock). 4. She's jealous, Craig thought wonderingly. Go figure women out (I. Shaw). 5. I never told a woman I admired her when I didn't (J. Galsworthy). 6. "Henry's asking if you paint abstracts." "Well yes. I'm ... afraid I do." (J. Fowles) 7. After my grandfather's death she began to deteriorate. That's how my mother would put it when she would come to visit (M. Atwood).

Task 3. Analyze the voice-forms in the following sentences:

1. Elizabeth and George talked and found each other delightful (R. Aldington). 2. A sense of shock, a sense of danger, and then apparently we subside to old ways, but the change has come. (Th. Dreiser). 3. I opened the door for them with my key (I. Shaw). 4. Ivor, fanning himself with the portrait of an Astral Being, looked out into the darkness and drew a breath (A. Huxley). 5. She rang the bell and when the boy came asked him who had brought the book and when (S. Maugham). 6. Soames didn't count; these young nephews – Soames was thirty eight – couldn't drink (J. Galsworthy). 7. A rising bell had been rung soon after six, but Dora had learned that it did not concern her, only those who were going to Mass (I. Murdoch).

Тема 5. THE VERBALS AS A DOUBLE-NATURED PHENOMENON

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать отличительные признаки нефинитных форм глагола;
- выделять их основные функциональные характеристики;
- уметь охарактеризовать полупредикативные конструкции нефинитных форм глагола.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What do you know about semantic and lexico-grammatical features of the verbal subclasses?
2. How are verbals different from finite forms of the verb with regard to their function?
3. What is the difference between the infinitive and the gerund, participle I and the gerund?
4. Characterize semi-predicative constructions with the verbals.

Part 5. THE VERBALS AS A DOUBLE-NATURED PHENOMENON

Problems to discuss:

1. The Verbals and their morphological features. Peculiar features of verbals. Dual nature of verbals.
2. The syntactic characteristics of the verbals.
3. Grammatical categories of verbals: aspect and time correlation, voice.
4. The infinitive and its features. Its role in the sentence.
5. The gerund and its peculiarities. Gerundial constructions.
6. The participles and their functions in the sentence. The ing-forms in English. Grammatical homonymous forms.

Key words: verbals, processual grammatical meaning, verbal combinability, infinitive, gerund, participle, aspect and time correlation, semi-predicative constructions.

Recommended Reading:

1. Прибыток И.И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка : учеб. пособие для студ. лингв. вузов и фак. ин. языков / И.И. Прибыток. – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2008. – 384 с. – С. 104–106.
2. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar / M.Y. Blokh. – Moscow : Vyssaja Skola, 2000. – 382 p. – P. 99–119.
3. Ilysh B.A. The Structure of Modern English / B.A. Ilysh. – Leningrad : Prosveshcheniye, 1971 – 370 p. – P. 130–136.

BASIC NOTIONS

The verbals have a **double nature** – *nominal* and *verbal*. The **nominal features** of verbals are as follows: 1) they do not denote pure processes, but present them as specific kinds of substances and properties; 2) they are not conjugated according to the categories of person and number, have no tense or mood forms; in some contexts they are combined with the verbs like non-verbal parts of speech; 3) they never function as independent predicates; their functions are those characteristic for other notional parts of speech.

The **verbal features** of verbals are as follows: 1) their grammatical meaning is basically processual; 2) they have aspect and voice forms and verbal combinability with direct objects and adverbial modifiers; 3) they can express predication in specific semi-predicative constructions.

There is a morphological subdivision of verbals. They are said to be **simple** forms of verbals:

- to write (simple or present infinitive, active);
- writing (-ing form, whether simple gerund or present participle);
- written (past participle)

and **analytical** forms of verbals:

- to be written (simple or present infinitive, passive);
- to be writing (continuous infinitive);
- to have written (perfect infinitive active);
- to have been written (perfect infinitive, passive);

- to have been writing (perfect continuous infinitive);
- being written (-ing form, whether perfect simple gerund or perfect participle, passive);
- having written (-ing form, whether perfect gerund active or perfect participle, active).

Verbals can express different meanings and shades of meanings of the Verb:

Preceding (forgoing) non-finite activity: Past Participle, Present Participle Passive: *Arrived in the town, he bought his usual weekly local paper* (Past Participle). *Being completed, the book was issued* (Present Participle Passive).

Simultaneity: Present Participle (Active, Passive), Simple Gerund (Active, Passive), Simple or Present Infinitive (Active, Passive): *Reading a book, she was chewing a cheeseburger* (Present Participle Active). *Being introduced to the people at the party, she felt no confuse* (Present Participle Passive). *Reading means thinking* (Simple Gerund Active). *Being heard and understood means successful communication* (Simple Gerund Passive). *To understand the message of a book means to be able to get not only the context but also its implication* (Present Infinitive Active). *To be listened does not mean to be heard* (Present Infinitive Passive).

Duration: Perfect Continuous Infinitive: *Having been working under the project for a half of the year, he still could not complete it* (Perfect Continuous Infinitive).

Completeness: Perfect Gerund (Active, Passive), Perfect Participle (Active, Passive): *Having done any work completely makes me satisfied* (Perfect Gerund Active). *Having been already asked makes me released* (Perfect Gerund Passive). *Having prepared the work, he could enjoy himself* (Perfect Participle Active). *Having been asked, he had to give an honest answer* (Perfect Participle Passive).

Activity: the preceding examples of Verbals.

Passivity differentially in Active and Passive forms: *Having done any work completely makes me satisfied* (Active form). *Having been already asked makes me released* (Passive form).

With some transitive verbs (of perception, mental activity, desire, etc.) the infinitive is used in ***the semi-predicative constructions*** of the

Complex Object and the Complex Subject: *We have never heard Charlie play his violin.* – *Charlie has never been heard to play his violin.*

Similar to the noun, the gerund can be used with prepositions (e.g.: *on coming home*) and also modified by a noun in the possessive case or by its pronominal equivalents; e.g.: *Jack's coming home, his coming home.* Such combinability allows the formation of semi-predicative gerundial complexes: *She was surprised at my coming home early.* – *She was surprised that I came home so early.*

Participle I, similar to the Infinitive, can be used in the semi-predicative constructions of Complex Object and Complex Subject, e.g.: *We've never heard him singing before.* – *He's never been heard singing before.* The absolute participial construction is the other type of secondary predication, e.g.: *My chief being on a sick leave, I had to make a decision myself.*

The past participle performs the functions of the attribute, the predicative of a compound predicate, and also of the notional part in the analytical form of the simple verbal predicate. Like the present participle, the past participle is used in the semi-predicative constructions of Complex Object, Complex Subject, and Absolute Participial Construction, e.g.: *I must have my car repaired.*

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Analyze the ing-forms morphologically, formulate the criteria that help to distinguish between adjectives ending in -ing (an interesting film) and the verbals Participle I and Gerund:

“That morning just before luncheon the weather began to show signs of clearing, and by half-past one the sun was shining. The doctor made one of his rare visits to the school dining-hall. At his entry everybody stopped eating and laid down his knife and fork.

“Boys”, said the Doctor, regarding them benignly, “I have an announcement to make. Clutterbuck, will you kindly stop eating while I am addressing the school. The boy's manners need correcting, Mr. Prendergast. Boys, the chief sporting event of the year will take place in

the playing-fields tomorrow (“Prose and Memoirs, Essays” by Evelyn Waugh).

Task 2. State the syntactical functions of the participles in the following sentences and translate the sentences:

1. Being a mean person, he never spent more than he had to.
2. They debated for hours without a decision being taken.
3. He was a short bespectacled man entering a grey and paunchy middle age.
4. Unless changed, this law will make life difficult for farmers.
5. There being no further business, I declare the meeting closed.

Task 3. State the syntactical functions of the gerund in the following sentences and translate the sentences:

1. My coming was a surprise to her.
2. My hobby is jogging.
3. I like to work in the reading room.
4. I began working at this office last week.
5. She was surprised at my coming.
6. One can learn a lot by reading.

Task 4. Point out the semi-predicative constructions and state their syntactic function.

1. She was seen entering the room.
2. We have never heard Charlie play his violin.
3. Will you have my coat brushed up, please?
4. The members of the committee expected him to speak against the suggested resolution.
5. The messenger waiting in the hall, we had only a couple of minutes to make a decision.
6. The dean sat at his desk, with an electric fire glowing warmly behind the fender at the opposite wall.
7. The preliminary talks completed, it became possible to concentrate on the central point of the agenda.

ПРИМЕРНЫЕ ВОПРОСЫ МОДУЛЬНОЙ КОНТРОЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ № 1

1. What is language?
2. What planes of language do you know?
3. Describe syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of lingual units.
4. How many levels of language and their functions do you know?
5. What is a morphemic structure of the word?
6. What types of morphological opposition do you know?
7. What is a morpheme? What types of morphemes and their functions do you know?
8. What is a word? What stems of words and their types do you know?
9. Which syntactical and analytical forms of English words are most often used?
10. Enumerate the notional and functional parts of speech of the English language. What are their functions?
11. Describe the syntactico-distributional classification of words.
12. Comment on the set of formal features of the noun.
13. Can you enumerate categorial functional properties of the noun?
14. What is the explicit classification of the noun subclass opposition?
15. What is the oppositional structure of the category of gender in the English noun?
16. Describe subclasses of English nouns with regard to the category of number.
17. Comment on the case as the morphological category of the noun.
18. What are specific forms of the outward structure of the verb?
19. What types of the verb stems can you name?
20. Describe the system of grammatical categories of the verb.
21. Do you know anything about semantic and lexico-grammatical features of the verbals?

МОДУЛЬ 2

Тема 6. SYNTAX. BASIC SYNTACTIC NOTIONS

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать базовые понятия синтаксиса;
- иметь представление об основных принципах классификации групп слов;
- различать типы синтаксических отношений;
- знать средства выражения предикации.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What does syntax study?
2. Dwell upon different syntactic theories.
3. What is the main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar.
4. What does Constructional analysis of syntactic units deal with?
5. Describe Pragmatic approach to the study of syntactic units.
6. Dwell upon Speech Act Theory.
7. What is a syntactic unit? Dwell upon basic syntactic notions.
8. What is the difference between the phrase and the sentence?
9. What types of syntactic relations do syntactic units go into?
10. What does text linguistics study?
11. Speak about predication and its types.

MODULE 2

Part 6. SYNTAX. BASIC SYNTACTIC NOTIONS

Problems to discuss:

1. General characteristics of syntax.
2. Kinds of syntactic theories (brief characteristics): Transformational-Generative Grammar. Constructional Syntax.

Communicative Syntax. Speech Act Theory. Textlinguistics. Discourse analysis.

3. Basic syntactic notions: Syntactic unit. Syntactic meaning. Syntactic form. Syntactic function. Syntactic position. Syntactic relations (Coordination. Subordination. Predication).

Key words: syntax, syntactic unit, phrase, transformational grammar, syntactic relations, syntactic position, predication, sentence, kernel, constructional analysis, utterance, discourse analysis, coordination, subordination.

Recommended Reading:

1. Иванова И.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка / И.Г. Иванова, В.В. Бурлакова, Г.Г. Почепцов. – М. : Высшая школа, 1981. – 285 с. – С. 186–207.

2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке) : учебное пособие / Л.А. Козлова. – Изд. 2-е, испр. – Барнаул : АлтГПА, 2010 – 249 с. – С. 169–188.

3. Серль Дж. Косвенные речевые акты // НЗЛ. Вып. 17. М. : 1986. – С. 195–220.

4. Ilysh B.A. The Structure of Modern English / B.A. Ilysh. – Leningrad : Prosveshcheniye, 1971 – 370 p. – P. 198–230.

BASIC NOTIONS

Syntax is the part of grammar which studies phrases (minor syntax) and sentences (major syntax). The word “syntax” in its root sense, means “arranging together”. The basic unit of syntax is ***the sentence***. ***Phrase*** is a separate linguistic unit which must be considered on a separate level of linguistic analysis. Phrase is broadly defined as every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but not an analytical form of some word (e.g.: the perfect forms of verbs). Structural identity of a phrase in a sentence can be shown through the methods of substitution and representation developed by V.V. Burlakova. The difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or process, just as a word is. Each component of a phrase can undergo

changes according to its grammatical categories (write letters – wrote a letter – writes letters, etc.). The sentence, on the contrary, is a unit with every word having its definite form. Any formal change would produce a new sentence. Sentence is a unit of communication, and intonation is one of the most important features of a sentence, which distinguishes it from a phrase.

Syntactic theories

Transformational-Generative Grammar

The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar Zellig Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of ‘generating’ (constructing) sentences. The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

- (1) NV – John sings.
- (2) NVAdj. – John is happy.
- (3) NVN – John is a man.
- (4) NVN – John hit the man.
- (5) NVNN – John gave the man a book.
- (6) NVPrep.N – The book is on the table.

It should be noted that (3) differs from (4) because the former admits no passive transformation. Transformational method proves useful for analysing sentences from the point of their deep structure.

Constructional Syntax. Constructional analysis of syntactic units was initiated by Prof. G. Pocheptsov in his book published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, the element him in the sentence I saw him there yesterday is constructionally significant because it is impossible to omit it. At the same time the elements there

and yesterday are constructionally insignificant – they can be omitted without destroying the whole structure.

Communicative Syntax

Communicative Syntax is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis. Both the theme and the rheme constitute the informative structure of utterances. The theme is something that is known already while the rheme represents some new information. Depending on the contextual informative value any sentence element can act as the theme or the rheme: Who is at home? – John is at home. Where is John? – John is at home.

Pragmatic approach to the study of syntactic units can briefly be described as the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals.

Speech Act Theory

Speech Act Theory was first introduced by John Austin. The notion of a speech act presupposes that an utterance can be said with different intentions or purposes and therefore can influence the speaker and situation in different ways:

It's cold here.

I just state the fact.

I want you to do something about it (close the window).

I'm threatening you.

I'm seeking for an excuse for not doing something.

I want you to feel guilty of it.

Accordingly, we can distinguish different speech acts.

Text linguistics studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis.

Discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

Basic syntactic notions

The syntactic level of language can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: *syntactic unit*, *syntactic form*, *syntactic meaning*, *syntactic function*, *syntactic position* and *syntactic*

relations. **Syntactic unit** is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. **Syntactic meaning** is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences. **Syntactic form** may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern). E.g.: *John hits the ball* – N1 + V + N2. **Syntactic function** is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: in the word-group a young girl the word 'young' is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: *his broad back, a back district, to go back, to back smth.* **Syntactic relations** are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types – *coordination, subordination* and *predication*.

Coordination – syntagmatic relations of independence. They can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – boy and girls. Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: ladies and gentlemen. Forms of connection within such relations may be copulative (you and me), disjunctive (you or me), adversative (strict but just) and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level only).

Subordination – syntagmatic relations of dependence. They are established between the constituents of different linguistic ranks. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – adverbial (to speak loudly), objective (to ride a horse) and attributive (a funny clown). Forms of subordination can be different: agreement (this book – these books), government (help us), adjournment (the use of modifying particles just, only, even, etc.) and enclosure (the use of modal words and their equivalents really, after all, etc.). **Predication** – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level) and

secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes).

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Match the following coordinative connectors to the relations between the clauses that they denote:

thus, while, besides, and, yet, not only ... but also, both, nevertheless, or, so, neither... nor, likewise, but, therefore, as well as, then, moreover, only, besides, again, further, for

- a) copulative relations _____
- b) adversative relations _____
- c) disjunctive relations _____
- d) causative - consecutive relations _____

Task 2. State the syntactic and the semantic functions of the underlined words in the sentences:

1. During the Renaissance Latin was seen as the language of a golden age (L. Berk). 2. There was a sudden scraping of chairs (J. Fowles). 3. I took a long and a hot bath (G. Greene). 4. Weekends were usually lonely. 5. Seattle is often foggy. 6. I remembered that day of the picnic long back (R.P. Warren). 7. Forgetting serves a very important function, and it's a by-product of learning. 8. Eastern parts of Britain will start the day dry and fairly bright with a touch of ground frost in some sheltered areas (MS) 9. Outrage greeted the Employment Secretary in the Commons as he announced a drastic shake-up in adult jobs for training (MS) 10. The 1940s and 1950s saw several desperate attempts to answer these and similar questions (R. Matthew). 11. When I got back from Hungary I did not have the 'why do I live here in Moscow' feeling. 12. Smoke curled thinly from one of the near chimneys (D. du Maurier). 13. She bade him a casual and demure good night (J. Galsworthy). 14. It was his nature to be communicative

(D. du Maurier). 16. For all these years I kept my mouth closed (Amy Tan). 17. She smiles a pussy cat smile (M. Atwood).

Task 3. State the type of the predicate in the following sentences:

1. It made his mad desire to destroy her come back (Lawrence).
2. Good gracious, Mr. Holmes, you are surely not going to leave me in this abrupt fashion! (Doyle).
3. Mrs. Forrester began to be discouraged (Maugham).
4. Miriam, walking home with Geoffrey, watched the moon rise big and red and misty (Lawrence).
5. The house must be lived in, but now, at this moment, it was empty (Christie).

Тема 7. THE WORD-GROUP THEORY. THE SENTENCE. CLASSIFICATIONS OF SENTENCES

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать основные принципы синтаксического моделирования предложения, а также формальный, семантический, функциональный (актуальный и прагматический) аспекты предложения;
- иметь представление о коммуникативной (функциональной) перспективе предложения;
- знать различные классификации предложений.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is a word group? How can word groups be classified?
2. What is a sentence? What is the structural minimum of the sentence?
3. What are the most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit? What is the difference between the sentence and the word?
4. Dwell upon different approaches to the study of the sentence.

5. What do you know about communicative types of sentences?
6. Characterize the modern theory of actual division of the sentence.
7. Speak about the kinds of “contextual” division of the sentence.
8. Speak about semantic classification of simple sentences.
9. What types of connection of clauses do you know?

Part 7. THE WORD-GROUP THEORY. THE SENTENCE. CLASSIFICATIONS OF SENTENCES

Problems to discuss:

1. Definition and general characteristics of the word-group.
2. Classification and types of word-groups.
3. Subordinate word-groups: The noun-phrase (NP). Noun-phrases with pre-posed adjuncts. Noun-phrases with post-posed adjuncts. The verb-phrase. Classification of verb-phrases. Predicative word-groups.
4. The sentence and the utterance. Different approaches to the study of the sentence. Classifications of Sentences.

Key words: word-group, syntagmatic relations, syntagmatic grouping, noun-phrase, verb-phrase, equipotent connection, dominational connection, valency, combinability, premodification, postmodification, complementation, primary predication, secondary predication, sentence, immediate constituents, principal and secondary parts of the sentence, oppositional analysis, constructional analysis, kernels, the principles of classification of sentences.

Recommended Reading:

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BASIC NOTIONS

The word group

There are a lot of definitions concerning the word-group. The most adequate one seems to be the one given by M. Blokh who states that words in an utterance enter into different syntagmatic relations with one another. There can be syntagmatic groupings of notional words alone, syntagmatic groupings of notional words with functional words, and syntagmatic groupings of functional words alone [27, p. 229]. Groupings of notional words fall into two mutually opposite types by their grammatical and semantic properties.

According to M. Blokh groupings of the first type are constituted by words related to one another on an equal rank, so that, for a case of a two-word combination, neither of them serves as a modifier of the other. Depending on this feature, these combinations can be called "*equipotent*".

Groupings of the second type are formed by words which are syntactically unequal in the sense that, for a case of a two-word combination, one of them plays the role of a modifier of the other. Due to this feature, combinations of the latter type can be called "*dominational*".

Equipotent connection in groupings of notional words is realized either with the help of conjunctions (syndetically), or without the help of conjunctions (asyndetically).

Dominational connection, as different from equipotent connection, is effected in such a way that one of the constituents of the combination is principal (dominating) and the other is subordinate (dominated). The principal element is commonly called the “kernel”, “kernel element”, or “headword”; the subordinate element, respectively, the “adjunct”, “adjunct-word”, “expansion” [27, p. 232].

Thus, according to the type of syntagmatic relations word-groups can be classified into: *coordinate* (you and me), *subordinate* (to see a house, a nice dress) and *predicative* (him coming, for him to come).

According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word-groups fall into **noun-phrases (NP)** – a cup of tea, **verb-phrases (VP)** – to run fast, to see a house, **adjective phrases (AP)** – good for you, **adverbial phrases (DP)** – so quickly, **pronoun phrases (IP)** – something strange, nothing to do.

The formation of the subordinate word-group depends on the *valency* of its constituents. Valency is a potential ability of words to combine. Actual realization of valency in speech is called *combinability*.

Noun word-groups are widely spread in English. This may be explained by a potential ability of the noun to go into combinations with practically all parts of speech. A *noun-phrase* includes either a single noun or a group of words that function like a single noun.

One of the tests for a noun phrase is that it can be replaced by a pronoun. The group of words that functions like a single noun consists of a noun-head and an adjunct or adjuncts with relations of modification between them. Three types of modification distinguished are: *premodification* and *postmodification*, the former comprises all the units placed before the head: two smart hard-working students (adjuncts used in pre-head position are called pre-posed adjuncts), the latter comprises all the units placed after the head: students from Boston (adjuncts used in post-head position are called post-posed adjuncts). There can also be mixed modification that comprises all the units in

both pre-head and post-head position: two smart hard-working students from Boston.

In noun-phrases with pre-posed modifiers we generally find pronouns (demonstrative (that), genitive (her), indefinite (some)); numerals, nouns, adjective phrases (AP) – [My very old memories] return easily; verbal phrases – [Carelessly organized meetings] annoy everyone; nouns in the genitive case or Genitive NP (GenNP) – [My friend's hobby] is knitting. The grammatical relations observed in NPs with pre-posed adjuncts may convey the following meanings:

1. Subject-predicate relations: weather change.
2. Object relations: health service, women hater.
3. Adverbial relations:
 - a) of time: morning star;
 - b) place: world peace, country house;
 - c) comparison: button eyes;
 - d) purpose: tooth brush.

NPs with post-posed modifiers may be classified according to the way of connection into *prepositionless* (tea strong), and *prepositional* (a cup of tea).

The ***verb-phrase*** is a definite kind of the subordinate phrase with the verb as the head. The verb is considered to be the semantic and structural centre not only of the VP but of the whole sentence as the verb plays an important role in making up primary predication that serves the basis for the sentence. VPs are more complex than NPs as there are a lot of ways in which verbs may be combined in actual usage. Valent properties of different verbs and their semantics make it possible to divide all the verbs into several groups depending on the nature of their complements. VPs can be classified according to the nature of their post-ad adjuncts – verb post adjuncts may be nominal (to see a house) and adverbial (to behave well). Consequently, we distinguish nominal, adverbial and mixed complementation. According to the structure VPs may be basic or simple (to take a book) – all elements are obligatory; expanded (to read and translate the text, to read books and newspapers) and extended (to read an English book).

Predicative word combinations are distinguished on the basis of ***secondary predication***. Like sentences, predicative word-groups are

binary in their structure but actually differ essentially in their organization. The sentence is an independent communicative unit based on primary predication while the predicative word-group is a dependent syntactic unit that makes up a part of the sentence. The predicative word-group consists of a nominal element (noun, pronoun) and a non-finite form of the verb: N + Vnon-fin. The other name for these structures is verbal phrases. There are Gerundial, Infinitive and Participial word-groups (complexes) in the English language: his reading, for me to know, the boy running, etc.)

The sentence

The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition, which would enable us by applying it in every particular case to find out whether a certain linguistic unit was a sentence or not.

According to academician **G. Pocheptsov**, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualizes a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. But this definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

Different approaches to the study of the sentence

Principal and secondary parts of the sentence

The subject and the predicate are the backbone of any sentence and the bearers of predication and modality. The subject and predicate modify each other (they are mutually dependent), while the secondary parts of the sentence serve to only modify the subject or the predicate or one another, or the whole sentence. The sentence generally can exist even without them. Thus we can say that the status of the subject and predicate is unique as well as their mutual relations based on interdependence, while the rest of the parts of the sentence are immediately or intermediary dependent on the subject or/and the predicate. That is why any sentence is first and foremost parsed into the subject group and the predicate group.

Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis

Each language has its own way of structural grouping. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is immediate constituents. Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, to single out different levels of meaning: [The old man] [saw [a black dog] [there]].

Oppositional analysis

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis.

E.g.: *two member sentence: one member sentence (John worked.: John! Work! Or: I speak English: I don't speak English.*

Constructional analysis

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are constructionally significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes as necessary and important as the main ones. If we omit the object and the adverbial modifier in the following sentences they will become grammatically and semantically unmarked: Bill closed the door; she behaved well. The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures).

Classifications of Sentences

The problem of classification of sentences is a highly complicated one, first of all, the question of the principles of classification, and of the notions on which it can be based should be considered.

A. Types of sentences according to types of communication:

- 1) declarative;
- 2) interrogative;
- 3) imperative.

Traditional grammar books say that declarative sentences make statements (It's raining), imperative sentences issue directives (Close the door), and interrogative sentences ask questions (What time is it?). But

that analysis is oversimplified, even misleading. The notion of exclamatory sentences and their relation to the three established types of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences also presents some difficulty.

B. Types of Sentences according to structure

- 1) simple;
- 2) composite.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Write your own sentences according to the following kernel sentence structures:

- N V
- N V N
- N V pr N
- N V N N
- N V D
- N be N
- N be pr N
- N be D
- N be A

Task 2. Transform the following kernel sentences into noun phrases:

- A. Children played games.
- B. The hunter killed a deer.
- C. The frogs croak.
- D. The machine works.

Task 3. Analyze the following sentence according to different models of sentence analysis:

A young girl looked at her watch impatiently.

Task 4. Define the subject and its type in the sentences below. State what it is expressed by:

1. Don't tell him the truth. It is of no sense. 2. It is stuff here. Is the window shut? It's already open. 3. One often has problems of such kind. 4. It was so kind of you to help her in that situation. 5. You cannot judge a tree by its bark.

Task 5. Define and analyze the predicate in the following sentences:

1. Don't talk! 2. She is on our side. 3. The band had ceased playing. 4. The moon was shining cold and bright. 5. It's time we were making a move. 6. Reference books must not be taken away from the reading room. 7. My son a gentleman! 8. Her memory was as blank as paper. 9. The girl gave a smile. 10. It was enough the way she looked at him.

Task 6. Analyze the following sentences according to the given items:

- a) propositions and their expressions;**
- b) noun phrases,**
- c) subordinate clauses, if any;**
- d) transitional elements,**
- e) predicates;**
- f) kernel sentences, their patterns and semantics:**

1) The old car being sold so profitably, it sounds incredible! 2) What surprised me was that there was nobody seen outside. 3) Reserving judgements is a matter of infinite hope. 4) And, after boasting this way of my tolerance, I come to the admission that it has a limit. 5) Is the weather not likely to change? 6. I observed the doctor sniffing and sniffing, like someone tasting a bad egg. 7) He spoke as if I were a child that needed to be distracted. 8) Hercule Poirot to sleep while murder is committed! 9) He found his neighbour very pretty. 10) I must have stood for a few moments listening to the whip and snap of the curtains and the groan of a picture on the wall.

Тема 8. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE AND ITS TYPES

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- анализировать различные определения простого предложения;
- знать основные категории предложения: предикативность, модальность и отрицание;
- уметь различить первичную и вторичную предикации;
- знать средства выражения различных типов модальности;
- знать классификацию простых предложений;
- отличать одночленные предложения от эллиптических;
- выделять основные черты категории отрицания.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is the specific feature of the predication in the simple sentence? Dwell upon its role in the sentence; types of predication: primary vs. secondary; explicit vs. implicit predication;
2. Speak about modality: its heterogeneous nature; the two types of modality: primary (objective) and secondary (subjective); the culture- and gender-sensitive character of modality.
3. What can you say about negation and its types: complete vs. partial; grammatical vs. lexical; explicit vs. implicit; direct vs. transferred negation; negation and the communicative type of the sentence; the specific features of negation in English?
4. Speak about semantic classification of simple sentences.
5. Dwell upon the transition zone between simple and composite sentences.

Part 8. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE AND ITS TYPES

Problems to discuss:

1. The simple sentence and its characteristics.
2. The main categories of the sentence.
3. One member sentences.

4. Two-member sentences.
5. Semantic classification of simple sentences.

Key words: predicativity, primary predication, secondary predication, explicit predication, implicit predication, negation, primary modality, secondary modality, one member sentence, two-member sentence, elliptical sentence.

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BASIC NOTIONS

The simple sentence and its characteristics

The simple sentence occupies the central position in syntax. It has always been in the focus of linguistic attention. The sentence is a many-sided. Its main aspects are form, meaning and function. The definition and the understanding of the sentence largely depend on the aspect of the sentence which is in the focus of attention. Studied from the **formal** point of view the sentence is defined as *a group of words based on predicative relations*. From the view point of its **meaning** the sentence is defined as *an expression of a complete thought or a judgment about an event of reality*. Considered from its **function** aspect the sentence is defined as *a minimum unit of communication* and each sentence is uttered with a certain communicative aim: either to produce a statement,

or to make a request, or to ask for information. Perhaps the most exhaustive definition would be the one that would embrace all the three aspects.

The main categories of the sentence

The main categories of the sentence are *predicativity, modality and negation*. There exist many definitions of **predicativity**. One of them is the following: predicativity is a category which refers the nominative contents of the sentence to reality [27, 243]. The second sentential category is **modality**. It also has a lot of various definitions and interpretations: the Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary defines modality as a functional-semantic category which expresses different types of the relations between the utterance and reality as well as different types of subjective evaluation of the information contained in the utterance. Thus, modality expresses two types of relations and consequently includes two levels. For this reason scholars usually differentiate between two types of modality: *objective*, or primary and *subjective*, or secondary. These two types of modality were first introduced on the material of the Russian language by **V.V. Vinogradov**. One more sentential category is **negation** which shows that the relations established between the components of the sentence do not exist in reality, from the speaker's point of view (**A.M. Peshkovsky**), or that the speaker denies the truth of the proposition (**Ch. Bally**).

The structural aspect of the sentence deals with the structural organization of the sentence, it reveals the mechanisms of deriving sentences and structural types of sentences. It has been usual for some time now to classify sentences into two-member and one-member sentences.

One member sentences

One-member sentences in English are of two types:

- nominal sentences;
- verbal sentences.

Nominal sentences are those in which the principal part is expressed by a noun. They are typical of descriptions. Nominal sentences may be:

- unextended: *Silence. Summer. Midnight;*

– extended: *English spring flowers!*

Verbal sentences are those in which the principal part is expressed by a non-finite form of the verb, either an infinitive or a gerund. Infinitive and gerundial one-member sentences are mostly used to describe different emotional perceptions of reality: *To think of that! Living at the mercy of a woman!*

Two-member sentences

The basic pattern of a simple sentence in English is one subject-predicate unit, that is, it has two main (principal) positions: those of the subject and of the predicate. It is the pattern of a two-member sentence. There are several variations of this basic pattern, depending mainly on the kind of verb occupying the predicate position. The verb in the predicate position may be intransitive, transitive, intransitive or a link verb I.

Here are the main variants of the fundamental (basic) pattern:

1. John ran.
2. John is a student.
3. John is clever.
4. John learned French.
5. John gives Mary his books in London.
6. John lives there.
7. We found John guilty.
8. We found John a bore.

A two-member sentence may be either complete or incomplete (elliptical). An *elliptical* sentence is a sentence in which one or more word-forms in the principal positions are omitted. Ellipsis here refers only to the structural elements of the sentence, not the informational ones. This means that those words can be omitted, because they have only grammatical, structural relevance, and do not carry any new relevant information. In English elliptical sentences are only those having no word-forms in the subject and predicate positions, i.e. in the positions which constitute the structural core of the sentence.

There are several types of elliptical sentences:

1. Sentences without a word-form in the subject position: *Looks like rain.*

2. Sentences without word-forms in the subject position and part of the predicate position. In such cases the omitted part of the predicate may be either an auxiliary verb (*Heard nothing about him lately*) or a link verb (*Nice of you to come*).

3. Sentences without a word-form only in part of the predicate position, which may be an auxiliary or a link verb: *All settled*.

4. Sentences without word-forms both in the subject and the predicate position. Such ellipses occur in various responses: *What were you thinking about? – You*.

5. Sentences without a word-form in the predicate position. Such ellipses occur only in replies to questions: *What's happened? - Nothing*.

The semantic classification of simple sentences

The semantic classification of simple sentences should be made at least on the three bases:

a) on the basis of *the subject categorial meanings* simple sentences are divided into *personal* and *impersonal*. The further division of the personal sentences is into *human* and *non-human*; human – into *definite* and *indefinite*; non-human – into *animate* and *inanimate*. The further essential division of impersonal sentences is into *factual* (*It rains, It is five o'clock*) and *perceptual* (*It smells of hay here*);

b) on the basis of *the predicate categorial meanings* simple sentences are divided into *process-featuring* (“verbal”) and, in the broad sense, *substance-featuring* (including substance as such and substantive quality – “nominal”). Among the process-featuring sentences *actional* and *statal* ones are to be discriminated (*The window is opening. – The window is glistening in the sun.*); among the substance-featuring sentences *factual* and *perceptual* ones are to be discriminated (*The sea is rough – The place seems quiet*);

c) on the basis of the subject-object relation simple sentences should be divided into *subjective* (*John lives in London*), *objective* (*John reads a book*) and *neutral* or “potentially” objective (*John reads*), capable of implying both the transitive action of the syntactic person and the syntactic person's intransitive characteristic.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Point out cases of secondary and implicit predication in the following sentences and comment on the ways of their expression:

1. I guessed her to be about twenty-two or three (J. Fowles).
2. She must now imagine herself to have been his first great influence and inspiration (E. George). 3. With rage and hatred in my heart I finished (E. George). 4. He sat with his coffee undrunk (G. Greene). 5. I had seen Mr. Kellada vehement and voluble before, but never so voluble and vehement (S. Maugham). 6. She kissed me for my silence (P. Taylor). 7. Mr. Kellada stopped with his mouth open (S. Maugham). 8. I never saw you for a quitter (E. George). 9. With all their cleverness they had never mastered the secret of finding out what another human being was thinking (G. Orwell). 10. When once more alone, I reviewed the information (Ch. Bronte). 11. He likes his women thin (J. Susann).

Task 2. Identify types of the one-member sentences given below and comment on the modality contained in the infinitival one-member sentences:

1. Night. A lady's bed-chamber in Bulgaria, in a small town near the Dragoman Pass, late in November in the year 1885 (Shaw). 2. The sixth of March, 1886 (Idem). 3. The landing dock of the Cunard Line (Fitch). 4. Living room in the house of Philip Phillimore (L. Mitchel). 5. To have her company so warmly solicited! (J. Austen). 6. No birds singing in the dawn. A light wind making the palm trees sway their necks with a faint dry formal clicking. The wonderful hushing of rain on Mareotis (Durrel). 7. Fear not, fair lady! (Idem). 8. And what if he had seen them embracing in the moonlight? (Huxley). 9. Get away from me! (M. Mitchel). 10. Fear not, fair lady! (Idem). 11. To be alive! To have youth and the world before one. To think of the eyes and the smile of some youth of the region who by the merest chance had passed her and looked and who might never look again, but who, nevertheless, in so doing, had stirred her young soul to dreams (Dreiser).

Task 3. Comment on the modal meanings of the means of expressing secondary modality in the sentences:

1. "I don't think for a moment that you are in love with you husband. I think you dislike him. I shouldn't be surprised if you hated him. But I'm quite sure that you're afraid of him (S. Maugham). 2. I am afraid I'll have to ask you to leave (I. Shaw). 3. I suppose you wouldn't know whether the land about there was freehold? (J. Galsworthy). 4. He went out to the open vestibule and sat down on a folding-chair, and the station slid away and the backs of unfamiliar buildings moved by. Then out into the spring fields, where a yellow trolley raced them for a minute with the people in it who might once have seen the pale magic of her face along the casual street. (F.S. Fitzgerald) 5. Her husband was there. "I expect he'd like a cup of tea," he said. "Oh, I think it's rather late for tea, isn't it?" She looked at me gently, her mild, rather fine eyes full of kindness. "You don't want any tea, do you?" I was thirsty and hungry, for my lunch consisted only of a scone and butter and a cup of coffee, but I did not like to say so. I refused tea (S. Maugham). 6. "It was an accident!" "It must have been" (J. Galsworthy).

Тема 9. THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE AND ITS TYPES

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать определение сложного предложения и его структурные, семантические и коммуникативные особенности;
- иметь представление о двух типах сложного предложения: сложносочиненного и сложноподчиненного, а также о бессоюзном типе связи между частями сложного предложения;
- характеризовать семантические отношения между компонентами сложного предложения.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is the composite sentence? Point out its structure, semantic and communicative peculiarities.

2. How can you characterize the two types of composite sentence: the complex and the compound sentence?

3. What are the main semantic relations between the clauses connected coordinatively?

4. What do you know about the problem of asyndetic type of connection between the clauses in a composite sentence?

5. Can you give a detailed characteristic of the compound sentence and point out the semantic relations between its components?

6. Dwell upon the specificity of the semi-compound sentence in the classification of sentences on the structural principle.

Part 9. THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE AND ITS TYPES

Problems to discuss:

1. The composite sentence as different from the simple sentence.

2. The principal types of construction of the composite sentences.

3. The compound sentence. The main semantic relations between the clauses of the compound sentence.

4. The complex sentence. The categorial-semantic groups of the subordinate clauses.

Key words: predicative unit, polypredicative construction, composite sentence, asyndetic type of connection, subordination, coordination, subordinate clauses, monolithic and segregative sentence structures.

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BASIC NOTIONS

The composite sentence, as different from the simple sentence, is formed by two or more predicative lines. Each predicative unit in a composite sentence makes up a clause in it. Composite sentences display two principal types of construction: subordination and coordination.

By *coordination* the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank; by *subordination* – as units of unequal rank, one being categorically dominated by the other.

The means of combining clauses into a polypredicative sentence are divided into *syndetic*, i.e. conjunctive, and *asyndetic*, i.e. non-conjunctive.

All composite sentences are to be classed into *compound sentences* (coordinating their clauses) and *complex sentences* (subordinating their clauses).

The compound sentence is a composite sentence built on the principle of coordination and is derived from two or more base sentences. Coordination, the same as subordination, can be expressed either syndetically (by means of coordinative connectors) or asyndetically. The main semantic relations between the clauses connected coordinatively are *copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, resultative*.

The complex sentence is a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from two or more base sentences one. The complex sentence of minimal composition includes two clauses - a principal one and a subordinate one. The subordinate clause is joint to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector (subordinator), or, with some types of clauses, asyndetically.

Prof. Bloch introduced the terms *monolithic* and *segregative* sentence structures. Monolith complex sentences are sentences with a clause of deployment of obligatory type. **Monolith complex** sentences can be of 4 subtypes:

1. **Merger** complex sentences with subject and predicative clauses.

2. **Valiancy monolith** complexes with object clauses and valiancy determined adverbial clauses. For example: *I don't know when I'll go. Put the book where you have taken it from.* (place)

3. **Correlation monolith** complexes based on subordinative correlations. In some books they are called clauses of proportion and preference. For example: *The more I think of her, the more I fell in love with her.*

4. **Arrangement monolith** complexes formed by constructions whose obligatory connection between the principle and subordinate clauses is determined by the order of the clauses. For example: *If he comes, tell him to wait.*

The rest of complex sentences are characterized by **segregative structures**. And the maximum degree of syntactic option is characteristic of **subordinative parenthetical connections**.

From the point of view of their **general nominative features** all the subordinate clauses can be divided into three **categorial-semantic groups**. The first group includes clauses that name an event as a certain fact. These pure fact-clauses may be terminologically defined as **"substantive-nominal"**. Their substantive-nominal nature is easily checked by a substitute test: *That his arrival remained unnoticed confused him very much.* => *That fact confused him very much.*

The second group of clauses also names an event-fact, but, as different from the first group, this event-fact is referred to as giving a characteristic to some substantive entity. Such clauses can be called **"qualification-nominal"**: *The passenger who came in the last left the door open.* => *That passenger left the door open.*

The third group of clauses makes their event-nomination into a dynamic relation characteristic of another event or a process or a quality of various descriptions. It would be quite natural to call these clauses **"adverbial"**. Adverbial clauses are best tested not by a replacement, but by a definite transformation. *Describe the picture as you see it.* => *Describe the picture in the manner you see it.*

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. State the type of the following sentences and divide them into clauses (if possible):

1. The women, who were no less startled, exchanged quizzical, significant glances when Chicken George and Tom set off together down the road (Ray Bradbury). 2. Captain Beatty, keeping his dignity, backed slowly through the front door, his pink face burnt and shiny from a thousand fires and night excitements (Ray Bradbury). 3. He made more soft sounds. He stumbled towards the bed and shoved the book clumsily under the cold pillow. He fell into bed and his wife cried out, startled (Ray Bradbury). 4. She had been betrayed. That was it. Devils! Devils! ... And after all he had said to her! And all his and his wife's care for her! And now the neighbours! His business! The police! A public trial! Possibly a sentence – a death sentence! God in heaven! His own daughter, too! (Th. Dreiser) 5. Montag had done nothing. His hand had done it all, his hand, with a brain of its own, with a conscience and a curiosity in each trembling finger, had turned thief. Now, it plunged the book back under his arm, pressed it tight to sweating armpit, rushed out empty, with a magician's flourish! Look here! Innocent! Look! (Ray Bradbury).

Task 2. Analyze the following sentences according to the given items:

- a) propositions and their expressions;**
- b) noun phrases;**
- c) subordinate clauses;**
- d) transitional elements;**
- e) predicates;**
- f) kernel sentences, their patterns and semantics.**

1. Why were her own relations so rich, and Phil never knew where the money was coming from for tomorrow's tobacco? (J. Galsworthy). 2. He shrugged his shoulders, shook his head, cast up his eyes, but said nothing (Washington Irving). 3. At the southern extremity, just so far distant that the window-panes dazzled into each other, rose the meeting-house, a dingy old barnlike building, with an

enormously disproportioned steeple sticking up straight into heaven, as high as the Tower of Babel, and the cause of nearly as much confusion in its day (Nathaniel Hawthorne). 4. What was to be done? Tell Dan he must come home? Confide in June? (J. Galsworthy) 5. To think that any one should write such a thing of me! How dare they?! (Th. Dreiser). 6. That was my mission, you imagined. It was not, but where was I to go? (O. Wilde) 17. That was all right; I meant what I said. Why should I feel guilty about it? (J. Braine).

Task 3. Define the type of the monolith complexes in the following sentences. Which of the sentences is not monolithic?

1. If he asks for help, give him some money. 2. What I knew was nobody's business. 3. Hardly had I started the conversation when she interrupted me. 4. It was at this point that Paul had come bustling into the room. 5. Put the book where you've taken it from. 6. He decided to quit, because the job was ruining his family. 7. The more I think of it, the more I believe her words.

Тема 10. THE UTTERANCE

Цель изучения

Изучив данную тему, студент должен:

- знать отличие высказывания от предложения;
- знать основные категории высказывания с точки зрения его информативной структуры – темы и ремы;
- иметь представление об актуальном членении предложения;
- уметь определять функциональный тип высказывания.

Для самоконтроля по теме необходимо ответить на следующие вопросы:

1. What is the utterance?
2. Dwell upon the utterance theories.
3. How can you characterize the theme and the rheme as the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective – actual division of the sentence?

4. Which are the rheme marking devices? Can you give examples of sentences containing two or more informative centres?
5. Dwell upon the functional typology of utterances.

Part 10. THE UTTERANCE

Problems to discuss:

1. The utterance. The utterance theories.
2. The utterance categories.
3. Informative structure of the utterance.
4. Functional typology of utterances.

Key words: utterance, speech, properties of utterances, prosodic features, maxims, utterance categories, the theme, the rheme, actual division of the sentence.

Recommended Reading:

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5. Morokhovskaya E. Fundamentals of Theoretical English Grammar / E. Morokhovskaya. – Kyiv : Higher School, 1984. – 287 p. – P. 254–268.

BASIC NOTIONS

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is *the unit of speech*. It is the smallest unit of speech and can be defined as a continuous piece

of speech beginning and ending with a clear pause. In the case of oral languages, it is generally but not always bounded by silence. Utterances do not exist in written language, only their representations do. They can be represented and delineated in written language in many ways. In oral/spoken language utterances have several features. Prosodic features include stress, intonation, and tone of voice, as well as ellipsis, which are words that the listener inserts in spoken language to fill gaps. Other features include: fillers (“and stuff”); accent/dialect; deictic expressions, which are utterances like “over there!” which need further explanation to be understood; simple conjunctions (“and”, “but”, etc.); and colloquial lexis which are everyday informal words.

The utterance theories

Gricean maxims

Paul Grice (1989) came up with four maxims necessary in order to have a collegial conversation in which utterances are understood:

- a) ***maxim of Quantity***: provide the right amount of information needed for that conversation;
- b) ***maxim of Quality***: provide information that is true;
- c) ***maxim of Relation***: provide information that is relevant to the topic at hand;
- d) ***maxim of Manner***: give order to your utterances throughout conversation, be clear.

Bakhtin's theory of utterance

A philosopher **Mikhail Bakhtin** emphasized that an utterance and a sentence are not the same thing. According to Bakhtin, sentences do not indicate a change of speech subject, and thus do not automatically satisfy one of the four properties of utterances. According to him, the sentence as a language unit is grammatical in nature, while an utterance is “ethical”. According to Mikhail Bakhtin, there are four accepted properties that utterances should have:

1. ***Boundaries*** – All utterances must be bounded by a “change of speech subject”. This usually means, as previously mentioned, that they are bounded by silence.
2. ***Responsivity or dialogicity*** – The utterance must be either responding/following a previous utterance or generating dialogue.

3. **Finalization** – An utterance must have a clear ending, and only occurs if the speaker has said everything he or she wishes to say.

4. **Generic form** – The choice of the speech genre is determined based on the specific circumstances and sphere in which the dialogue occurs.

The utterance categories

The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be **the theme** and **the rheme**.

They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) – **actual division of the sentence** (most language analysts stick to the term “sentence” but actually they mean “utterance”).

In English, there is a “standard” word order of Subject + Verb + Object: The cat ate the rat – here we have a standard structure (N1 + V + N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

1. The rat was eaten by the cat.
2. It was the cat that ate the rat.
3. It was the rat that the cat ate.
4. What the cat did was ate the rat.
5. The cat, it ate the rat.

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as given information or **the theme**. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as new information or **the rheme**.

Informative structure of the utterance

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts nowadays. It is well recognized that the rheme marking devices are:

1. Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate the rat*.
2. Intonation.

3. The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): *A gentleman is waiting for you.*

4. The use of 'there is', 'there are'. There is a cat in the room.

5. The use of special devices, like 'as for', 'but for', etc.: *As for him, I don't know.*

6. Inverted word order: *Here comes the sun.*

7. The use of emphatic constructions: *It was the cat that ate the rat.*

However, sometimes the most important information is not expressed formally: *The cat ate the rat after all.* The rheme here is "the rat". At the same time there is very important information which is hidden or implicit: the cat was not supposed to do it, or – it was hard for the cat to catch the rat, or – the cat is a vegetarian (this hidden information will depend on the context or situation). In other words, we may say that this sentence contains two informative centres, or two rhemes – explicit and implicit.

Functional typology of utterances

Actional utterance: N + Vact. + Complement – actional predicate

Performative utterance: I + Vperf./Vsay – performative predicate

Characterizing utterance: N + Vbe + A/Q – characterizing predicate.

PRACTICAL ASSIGNMENTS

Task 1. Identify the theme and the rheme in the following utterances:

1. Our friends have invited us. 2. Smoking is harmful for our health. 3. Jim went to Boston yesterday. 4. When it reaches a golden coloring, take the meat out of the casserole. 5. Jump when you see the mattress under you. 6. I'm worried about a friend of mine. 7. John is a very active guy: after his graduation he left to get a PhD at Harvard. 8. If you land on Mars, there will be a \$ 1,000,000 prize for you.

Task 2. Read the text and state the type of the utterances:

When I went she wouldn't speak to me. She told them to send me away. I swore that I forgave her everything, but she wouldn't listen. She

tried to beat her head against the wall. The doctor told me that I mustn't remain with her. She kept on saying, "Send him away!" I went, and waited in the studio. And when 37 the ambulance came and they put her on a stretcher, they made me go in the kitchen so that she shouldn't know I was there. While I dressed – for Stroeve wished me to go at once with him to the hospital – he told me that he had arranged for his wife to have a private room, so that she might at least be spared the sordid promiscuity of a ward. On our way he explained to me why he desired my presence; if she still refused to see him, perhaps she would see me. He begged me to repeat to her that he loved her still; he would reproach her for nothing, but desired only to help her; he made no claim on her, and on her recovery would not seek to induce her to return to him; she would be perfectly free. But when we arrived at the hospital, a gaunt, cheerless building, the mere sight of which was enough to make one's heart sick, and after being directed from this official to that, up endless stairs and through long bare corridors, found the doctor in charge of the case, we were told that the patient was too ill to see anyone that day. The doctor was a little bearded man in white, with an off-hand manner. He evidently looked upon a case as a case, and anxious relatives as a nuisance which must be treated with firmness. Moreover, to him the affair was commonplace; it was just a hysterical woman who had quarreled with her lover and taken poison; it was constantly happening. At first he thought that Dirk was the cause of the disaster, and he was needlessly brusque with him. When I explained that he was the husband, anxious to forgive, the doctor looked at him suddenly, with curious, searching eyes. I seemed to see in them a hint of mockery; it was true that Stroeve had the head of the husband who is deceived. The doctor faintly shrugged his shoulders (the text is taken from "The Moon and Sixpence" by W. Somerset Maugham: Maugham W. Somerset. The Moon and Sixpence // W. Somerset Maugham. Moscow, 1972. – P. 132–133).

ПРИМЕРНЫЕ ВОПРОСЫ МОДУЛЬНОЙ КОНТРОЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ № 2

1. Speak about communicative types of sentences?
2. Dwell upon the modern theory of actual division of the sentence.
3. What kinds of “contextual” division of the sentence do you know?
4. What can you say about the predication in the simple sentence?
5. Speak about semantic classification of simple sentences.
6. What is the difference between the sentence and the word?
7. What types of connection of clauses do you know?
8. What are the most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit?
9. Characterize different approaches to the study of the sentence.
10. What is the specific feature of the predication in the simple sentence? Dwell upon its role in the sentence; types of predication: primary vs. secondary; explicit vs. implicit predication
11. What is modality? What types of modality do you know?
12. What can you say about negation and its types?
13. Speak about semantic classification of simple sentences.
14. Dwell upon the transition zone between simple and composite sentences.
15. What is the composite sentence? Point out its structure, semantic and communicative peculiarities. How can you characterize the two types of composite sentence: the complex and the compound sentence?
16. What are the main semantic relations between the clauses connected coordinatively? What do you know about the problem of asyndetic type of connection between the clauses in a composite sentence?
17. What is the utterance? Dwell upon the utterance theories.
18. How can you characterize the theme and the rheme as the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective – actual division of the sentence?

19. Dwell upon the informative structure of the utterance. Which are the rheme marking devices? Can you give examples of sentences containing two or more informative centres?

20. What are the types of sentences according to their functions? (Functional typology of utterances).

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ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Учебно-методическое пособие «Теоретический курс английского языка» дает студентам представление о современном состоянии словарного состава английского языка, системном характере английской лексики, различных способах словообразования, знакомит с современными представлениями о грамматике английского языка, ее специфике, а также с лингвистическими методами исследования английского языка. Курс развивает навыки использования понятийного аппарата в описании лексических и грамматических явлений, проведения лексическо-семантического и грамматического анализа

Пособие содержит четкий план подготовки студентов к семинарско-практическим занятиям по каждой из двух дисциплин «Теоретического курса английского языка» и нацелено на конкретные результаты: студенты получают знания в образовательной программе и выполняют достаточный объем самостоятельной подготовки к занятию, повышают уровень теоретической подготовки не только к занятиям, но и к комплексному решению задач лингвистического анализа.

Учебно-методическое пособие учитывает возможность самостоятельной творческой активности студентов, что явилось результатом тщательной подборки заданий для самостоятельной работы студентов по курсу. Однако авторы осознают необходимость разработки ряда интерактивных заданий с целью формирования у студентов навыков работы в команде, обмена идеями, взаимоконтроля, поэтому намерены продолжить работу по его усовершенствованию, которое они усматривают также в расширении тем курса и в разработке большего количества практических заданий, в том числе с применением новейших образовательных технологий.

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