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ст. преподаватель Акбуюков Мурат

УМК по дисциплине «Основы теории изучаемого языка» по специальности 531100 Лингвистика «Теория и практика межкультурной коммуникации» соответствует представленной рабочей программой дисциплины, требованиям ГОС ВПО.

Содержание УМК

| | |
|---|----------|
| 1. Извлечение из ГОС ВПО специальности Цель и задача курса | 3 |
| 2. Место курса в системе соответствующих областей знания Требования к уровню освоения содержания курса | 3 - 4 |
| 3. Объем дисциплины и виды учебной работы План распределения часов | 5 |
| 4. Календарно-тематическое планирования | 6 - 14 |
| 5. Содержание дисциплины | 15 - 70 |
| 6. Образовательные технологии | 70 |
| 7. Темы самостоятельных работ | 71 - 73 |
| 8. Литература Методические рекомендации по организации изучения дисциплины | 73 – 75 |
| 9. Глоссарии | 75 - 77 |
| 10. Фонд оценочных средств | 78 – 85 |
| 11. Тест | 86 – 110 |

РАБОЧАЯ ПРОГРАММА УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

«Основы теории изучаемого языка»

531100 «Теория и практика межкультурной коммуникации»

Кафедра межкультурной коммуникации и лингвистики

Курс: **IV** Семестр: **VII - VIII**

Лекционные занятия: **32 час.**

Практические занятия: **32 час.**

Самостоятельная работа: **56 час.**

Всего: **120 час.**

Экзамен: **VII - VIII семестр**

Рабочая программа обсуждена на заседании кафедры

от «__» _____ 2018_ г., протокол № _____

Заведующий кафедры _____ к,ф.н. доцент Сатыбалдиева Г.А.
(подпись) (ф.и.о.)

Составитель _____ старший преп. Акбуюков М.М.
(подпись) (ф.и.о.)

Рецензент _____ д.ф.н. профессор Эшиев А.М.
(подпись) (ф.и.о.)

Организационно - методический раздел

Извлечение из ГОС ВПО специальности (направления подготовки)

Программа по курсу «**Основы теории изучаемого языка**» составлена в соответствии с Государственным образовательным стандартом для подготовки лингвистов по специальности 531100 «Теория и практика межкультурной коммуникации» и предназначена для студентов, изучающих английский язык в качестве основной специальности.

В программу входит организационно-методический раздел (цель курса, задачи курса; требования к уровню освоения содержания курса с учетом требований ГОС ВПО); содержание курса (календарно-тематический план; темы и краткое содержание курса; форма итогового контроля (вопросы к модулю; критерии оценки экзамена); учебно-методическое обеспечение курса (основная литература; дополнительная литература); фонд оценочных средств.

Цели и задачи дисциплины

Целью дисциплины является формирование знаний по общим направлениям изучения английского языка, основным разделам теоретической грамматики, теоретической фонетики, лексикологии английского языка, лингвистических проблемах в указанных областях, основных задачах этих подразделов языкознания и методах исследований, использующихся в них; овладение базовыми принципами и методами лингвистического анализа, отношение указанного круга теоретических проблем лингвистики с деятельностью лингвиста- практика. Изучение дисциплины направлено на развитие навыков аналитического восприятия лингвистических данных, владения информацией по синхроническому и диахроническому развитию единиц и формированию законов языка, умения производить лингвистический анализ на различных уровнях языка, овладение основными приемами лингвистических исследований, теоретическими сведениями о единицах языка и их функционировании.

Место дисциплины в структуре ООП

Дисциплина профессионального цикла, вариативной части. По своей проблематике «Основы теории изучаемого языка» является одной из основных дисциплин. Для изучения данной дисциплины студент должен обладать базовыми знаниями, полученными им из дисциплины «Основы языкознания».

В частности, студент должен знать:

- основные направления лингвистических исследований XIX-XX веков,
- крупнейших ученых, занимавшихся изучением языковых явлений в синхронии и диахронии, и их вклад в науку,
- морфологические и синтаксические особенности романских языков (на примере латыни),
- грамматические категории различных частей речи в индоевропейских языках (на примере латыни и греческого языка). Основные вехи развития единиц всех уровней языка;
- систему грамматики, лексики, фонетическую систему английского языка, включая знания об историческом развитии уровней языка;
- основы теоретической грамматики (как основы научной грамматики), лексикологии (учение о слове, его границах и значении), фонетики (учение о фонеме, классификацию фонем), стилистики (теорию функциональных стилей, основные подходы к исследованию текста, основы поэтики), а также истории (основные этапы истории развития языка,

основы этимологического анализа, законы развития языковых единиц) английского языка, ориентироваться в классификациях, правилах и языковых законах;

- основные методы лингвистического анализа.

Обучающийся должен владеть:

- наследием отечественной и зарубежной научной мысли, направленной на решение общегуманитарных задач,
- культурой мышления, способностью к анализу, обобщению информации, постановке целей и выбору путей их достижения, владеть культурой устной и письменной речи,
- системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка,
- основами современной информационной и библиографической культуры,
- стандартными методиками поиска, анализа и обработки материала исследования,
- способностью оценить качество исследования в данной предметной области, соотнести новую информацию с уже имеющейся, логично и последовательно представить результаты собственного исследования.

Обучающийся должен уметь:

- применять методы и средства познания, обучения и самоконтроля для своего интеллектуального развития, повышения культурного уровня, профессиональной компетенции,
- работать с основными информационно-поисковыми системами,
- работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией,
- работать с традиционными носителями информации, учебниками, словарями,
- работать с информацией в глобальных компьютерных сетях,
- работать с электронными словарями и другими электронными ресурсами для решения лингвистических задач,
- использовать понятийный аппарат философии, теоретической и прикладной лингвистики для решения профессиональных задач,
- структурировать и интегрировать знания из различных областей профессиональной деятельности и обладает способностью их творческого использования и развития в ходе решения профессиональных задач,
- видеть междисциплинарные связи изучаемых дисциплин и понимает их значение для будущей профессиональной деятельности.
- использовать полученные знания о единицах языка, их классификациях и методах анализа на практике при ведении научной деятельности
- анализировать конкретные примеры и описывать свои действия (производить грамматический, синтаксический, морфологический, контекстуальный и этимологический анализ языковых единиц).

Требования к результатам освоения дисциплины

Студент должен обладать следующими компетенциями:

- владеть культурой мышления, способностью к анализу, обобщению информации, постановке целей и выбору путей их достижения, владеет культурой устной и письменной речи (ИК-1);
- владеет системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей, функционирование изучаемого иностранного языка (ПК-1):
- работать с электронными словарями и другими электронными ресурсами для решения задач (ПК-21):
- владеет теоретическими основами обучения иностранным языкам, обладает способностями межкультурной коммуникации (ПК-22):

Краткое содержание дисциплины

| № | Общая трудоемкость | Часы | Семестр |
|---|-------------------------|------|----------|
| | Всего: | 120 | |
| 1 | Аудиторное | | |
| 2 | Лекционное | 32 | VII-VIII |
| 3 | Практическое | 32 | VII-VIII |
| 4 | Лабораторное | | |
| 5 | Самос. работа студентов | 56 | VII-VIII |

План распределения часов. Семестр VII

| № | Наименование раздела | Количес тва | Аудитор ные | Лекцион ные | Неделя | Практич еские | Неделя | СРС | Неделя |
|---|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------|------------------|--------|-----|--------|
| 1 | Phonetic as a branch of linguistic. The phoneme theory. | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 8 | 2 |
| 2 | Classification of consonants and vowels. Assimilation. | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 8 | 2 |
| 3 | Intonational structure of English sentence. Pronunciation standard of British English. | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 8 | 2 |
| 4 | The object of lexicology. Old English. Historical background. | 12 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| | Total: | 60 | 32 | 16 | | 16 | | 28 | |

План распределения часов. Семестр VIII

| № | Наименование раздела | Количес тва | Аудитор ные | Лекцион ные | Неделя | Практич еские | Неделя | СРС | Неделя |
|---|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------|------------------|--------|-----|--------|
| 1 | Morphemes. Phraseology. Homonymy in English. | 22 | 12 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 10 | 3 |
| 2 | General characteristics of English | 16 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 8 | 2 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|----|----|----|---|----|---|----|---|
| | language. Lexicography. | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | The subject of theoretical grammar. Parts of speech. The sentence | 22 | 12 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 10 | 3 |
| | Total: | 60 | 32 | 16 | | 16 | | 28 | |

Объем дисциплины и виды учебной работы:

Продолжительность курса – VII – VIII семестр

Метод преподавания – лекционные и практические занятия

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины – **120 часов**

Лекционные занятия – **16 часов**

Практические занятия – **16 часов**

VII семестр – **32 часов**

Самостоятельная работа – **28 часов**

VII семестр – **28 часов**

Лекционные занятия – **16 часов**

Практические занятия – **16 часов**

VIII семестр – **32 часов**

Самостоятельная работа – **28 часов**

VIII семестр – **28 часов**

Календарно-тематическое планирование Семестр VII

| # | Раздел | Наименование темы занятия (лекционные) | Кол-во часов | Обсуждаемые вопросы | Рекомендуемая литература (обязательная и дополнительная) |
|-----------------|--------|--|-----------------|--|---|
| Модуль 1 | | | | | |
| 1 | Part 1 | Phonetic as a branch of linguistics. | 2 | 1. Branches of phonetic. 2. Phonetic and phonology. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------|--------|---|---|--|--|
| 2 | | The phoneme theory. | 2 | 1. Baudouin De Courtney. 2. The first period. 3. The second period. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. |
| 3 | | Classification of consonants and vowels. | 2 | 1. The degree of noise. 2. The manner of articulation. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. |
| 4 | | Assimilation, accommodation. | 2 | 1. Types of assimilation. 2. Degrees of assimilation. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. |
| Модуль 2 | | | | | |
| 5 | | Intonational structure of English sentence. | 2 | 1. Intonation as a unity of speech melody, prominence of words, tempo, voice-tember and rhythm. 2. Component of intonational structure. 3. Functions and intonational structure of the English language. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. |
| 6 | | Pronunciation standard of British English. | 2 | Pronunciation standard of British English. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. |
| 7 | Part 2 | The object of Lexicology. | 2 | 1. The theoretical and practical value | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского |

| | | | | | |
|---|--|---|----|--|--|
| | | | | of English Lexicology. 2. The connection of Lexicology with Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar and other branches of Linguistics. | языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. |
| 8 | | Old English. Historical background. | 2 | 1. Pre- Germanic Britain. 2. Germanic settlement of Britain. 3. Beginning of English. 4. Events of external history between the 5th and 11th. 5. Historical background from the 11th to 15th c. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. |
| | | Total: | 16 | | |

Календарно-тематическое планирование Семестр VII

| # | Раздел | Наименование темы занятия (практические) | Кол. час. | Обсуждаемые вопросы | Рекомендуемая литература (обязательная и дополнительная) | Форма контроля |
|-----------------|--------|--|--------------|--|---|----------------------|
| Модуль 1 | | | | | | |
| 1 | | Phonetic as a branch of linguistics. | 2 | 1. Branches of phonetic. 2. Phonetic and phonology. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устно и письменно |
| 2 | | The phoneme theory. | 2 | 1. Baudouin De Courtney. 2. The first period. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. | Устно и письменно |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------|--|---|---|--|--|-------------------|
| | | | | 3. The second period. | 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | |
| 3 | | Classification of consonants and vowels. | 2 | 1. The degree of noise. 2. The manner of articulation. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устно и письменно |
| 4 | | Assimilation, accommodation. | 2 | 1. Types of assimilation. 2. Degrees of assimilation. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устно и письменно |
| Модуль 2 | | | | | | |
| 5 | | Intonational structure of English sentence. | 2 | 1. Intonation as a unity of speech melody, prominence of words, tempo, voice-tember and rhythm. 2. Component of intonational structure. 3. Functions and intonational structure of the English language. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устно и письменно |
| 6 | | Pronunciation standard of British English. | 2 | Pronunciation standard of British English. | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, | Устно и письменно |

| | | | | | | |
|---|--------|-------------------------------------|----|--|---|-------------------|
| | | | | | М., 1998 г. | |
| 7 | Part 2 | The object of Lexicology. | 2 | 1. The theoretical and practical value of English Lexicology. 2. The connection of Lexicology with Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar and other branches of Linguistics. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устно и письменно |
| 8 | | Old English. Historical background. | 2 | 1. Pre- Germanic Britain. 2. Germanic settlement of Britain. 3. Beginning of English. 4. Events of external history between the 5 th and 11 th . 5. Historical background from the 11 th to 15 th c. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устно и письменно |
| | | Total: | 16 | | | |

Календарно-тематическое планирование Семестр VIII

| # | Раздел | Наименование темы занятия (лекционные) | Кол. час. | Обсуждаемые вопросы | Рекомендуемая литература (обязательная и дополнительная) |
|-----------------|--------|--|-----------|--|---|
| Модуль 1 | | | | | |
| 1 | Part 1 | Morphemes | 2 | 1. Free and bound morphemes. 2. Morphological classification of Words. 3. Word-Families. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------|--|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | 4. Word-building. | Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. |
| 2 | | Phraseology | 2 | 1. The problem of defining phraseological units. 2. Ways of forming phraseological units. 3. Different classifications of phraseological units. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. |
| 3 | | Homonymy in English. | 2 | 1. Sources of homonymy. 2. Classification of homonyms. 3. Synonyms. Sources of synonymy. 4. Types of synonyms. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. |
| 4 | | General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world. | 2 | General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. |
| Модуль 2 | | | | | |
| 5 | | Lexicography | 2 | 1. Types of dictionaries. 2. Content and arrangement of dictionaries. 3. Some of the main problems of Lexicography. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. |

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| 6 | Part 3 | The subject matter of theoretical grammar. | 2 | 1. The object of the theoretical grammar. 2. Grammatical forms and grammatical meaning < grammatical category. | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. |
| 7 | | Parts of speech. | 2 | 1. Classification of parts of speech. 2. Notional and functional parts of speech. 3. Lexical, grammatical and syntactic characteristics of parts of speech. | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. |
| 8 | | The sentence. Principles of classification of sentences. | 2 | 1. Sentence. General characteristics. 2. Classification of the sentence according to the purpose of the utterance. 3. Classification of sentence according to the structure. | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. |
| | | Total: | 16 | | |

Календарно-тематическое планирование Семестр VIII

| # | Раздел | Наименование темы занятия (практические) | Кол. час. | Обсуждаемые вопросы | Рекомендуемая литература (обязательная и дополнительная) | Форма контроля |
|-----------------|--------|--|-----------|---|---|-------------------|
| Модуль 1 | | | | | | |
| 1 | Part 1 | Morphemes. | 2 | 1. Free and bound morphemes. 2. Morphological classification of Words. 3. Word-Families. 4. Word-building. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по | Устно и письменно |

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| | | | | | лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | |
| 2 | | Phraseology. | 2 | 1. The problem of defining phraseological units. 2. Ways of forming phraseological units. 3. Different classifications of phraseological units. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устно и письменно |
| 3 | | Homonymy in English. | 2 | 1. Sources of homonymy. 2. Classification of homonyms. 3. Synonyms. Sources of synonymy. 4. Types of synonyms. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устно и письменно |
| 4 | | General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world. | 2 | Standard English variants and dialects: Cockney, Scottish English, Irish English, Welsh English. | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устно и письменно |
| Модуль 2 | | | | | | |

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|---|--------|--|---|--|---|-------------------|
| 5 | | Lexicography. | 2 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Types of dictionaries. 2. Content and arrangement of dictionaries. 3. Some of the main problems of Lexicography. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устно и письменно |
| 6 | Part 3 | The subject matter of theoretical grammar. | 2 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The object of the theoretical grammar. 2. Grammatical forms and grammatical meaning<grammatical category. | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. | Устно и письменно |
| 7 | | Parts of speech. | 2 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Classification of parts of speech. 2. Notional and functional parts of speech. 3. Lexical, grammatical and syntactic characteristics of parts of speech | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. | Устно и письменно |
| 8 | | The sentence. Principles of classification of sentences. | 2 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sentence. General characteristics. 2. Classification of the sentence according to the purpose of the utterance. 3 Classification | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. | Устно и письменно |

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| | | | | of sentence according to the structure. | | |
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Содержание дисциплины семестр VII

Lecture 1 Phonetic as a branch of linguistics

- 1. Phonetics as a branch of linguistics**
- 2. Aspects and units of phonetics**
- 3. Branches of phonetics**
- 4. Methods of phonetic analysis**

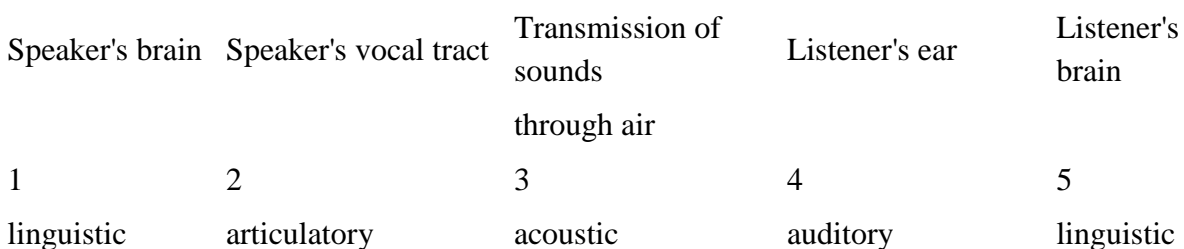
1. Phonetics as a branch of linguistics

The branch of linguistics which studies a language by examining the inventory, structure and functions of the speech sounds is called phonetics.

Phonetics is an independent branch of linguistics like lexicology or grammar. These linguistic sciences study language from three different points of view. Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of language, with the origin and development of words, with their meaning and word building. Grammar defines the rules governing the modification of words and the combination of words into sentences. Phonetics studies the outer form of a language; its sound matter. Phoneticians investigate phonemes and allophones, the syllabic structure, the distribution of stress and intonation. Phonetics is the study of the way humans make, transmit, and receive speech sounds. It studies the ways in which the sounds are organized into a system of units and the variation of the units in all types and styles of spoken language. Phonetics is a basic branch of linguistics. Neither linguistic theory nor linguistic practice can do without phonetics. No kind of linguistic study can be made without constant consideration of the material on the expression level.

2. Aspects and units of phonetics

Human speech is the result of a highly complicated series of events. Let us consider the speech chain, which may be diagrammed in simplified form like this:



The formation of the concept takes place in the brain of a speaker. This stage may be called psychological. The message formed within the brain is transmitted along the nervous system to the speech organs. Therefore, we may say that the human brain controls the behaviour of the articulating organs which effects in producing a particular pattern of speech sounds. This second stage may be called physiological. The movements of the speech apparatus disturb the air stream thus producing sound waves. Consequently, the third stage may be called physical or acoustic. Further, any communication requires a listener, as well as a speaker. So the last stages are the reception of the sound waves by the

listener's hearing physiological apparatus, the transmission of the spoken message through the nervous system to the brain and the linguistic interpretation of the information conveyed. . The sound phenomena have different aspects:

- (a) the articulatory aspect;
- (b) the acoustic aspect;
- (c) the auditory (perceptive) aspect;
- (d) the functional (linguistic) aspect.

Now it is possible to show the correlation between the stages of the speech chain and the aspects of the sound matter.

Articulation comprises all the movements and positions of the speech organs necessary to pronounce a speech sound. According to their main sound-producing functions, the speech organs can be divided into the following four groups:

- (1) the power mechanism;
- (2) the vibration mechanism;
- (3) the resonator mechanism;
- (4) the obstruction mechanism.

The functions of the power mechanism consist in the supply of the energy in the form of the air pressure and in regulating the force of the air stream. The power mechanism includes: (1) the diaphragm, (2) the lungs, (3) the bronchi, (4) the windpipe, or trachea. The glottis and the supra-glottal cavities enter into the power mechanism as parts of the respiratory tract. The vibration mechanism consists of the larynx, or voice box, containing the vocal cords. The most important function of the vocal cords is their role in the production of voice. The pharynx, the mouth, and the nasal cavity function as the principal resonators thus constituting the resonator mechanism. The obstruction mechanism (the tongue, the lips, the teeth, and the palate) forms the different types of obstructions.

The acoustic aspect studies sound waves. The basic vibrations of the vocal cords over their whole length produce the fundamental tone of voice. The simultaneous vibrations of each part of the vocal cords produce partial tones (overtones and harmonics). The number of vibrations per second is called frequency. Frequency of basic vibrations of the vocal cords is the fundamental frequency. Fundamental frequency determines the pitch of the voice and forms an acoustic basis of speech melody. Intensity of speech sounds depends on the amplitude of vibration.

The auditory (sound-perception) aspect, on the one hand, is a physiological mechanism. We can perceive sound waves within a range of 16 Hz-20.000 Hz with a difference in 3 Hz. The human ear transforms mechanical vibrations of the air into nervous and transmits them to brain. The listener hears the acoustic features of the fundamental frequency, formant frequency, intensity and duration in terms of perceptible categories of pitch, quality, loudness and length. On the other hand, it is also a psychological mechanism. The point is that repetitions of what might be heard as the same utterance are only coincidentally, if ever, acoustically identical. Phonetic identity is a theoretical ideal. Phonetic similarity, not phonetic identity, is the criterion with which we operate in the linguistic analysis.

Functional aspect. Phonemes, syllables, stress, and intonation are linguistic phenomena. They constitute meaningful units (morphemes, words, word-forms, utterances). Sounds of speech perform different linguistic functions.

Let's have a look at the correlation of some phonetic terms discussed above.

| | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|
| articulatory characteristics | acoustic properties | auditory(perceptible) qualities | linguistic phenomena |
|------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|

| | | | |
|---|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| vibration of the vocal cords | fundamental frequency | melody | pitch |
| different positions and movements of speech organs | formant frequency | quality (timbre) | phoneme |
| the amplitude of vibrations | intensity | loudness | stress |
| the quantity of time during which the sound is pronounced | duration | length | tempo, rhythm, pauses |

The phonetic system of language is a set of phonetic units arranged in an orderly way to replace each other in a given framework. Phonetics is divided into two major components (or systems): segmental phonetics, which is concerned with individual sounds (i.e. "segments" of speech) and suprasegmental phonetics dealing with the larger units of connected speech: syllables, words, phrases and texts.

1. Segmental units are sounds of speech (vowels and consonants) which form the vocalic and consonantal systems;
2. Suprasegmental, or prosodic, units are syllables, accentual (rhythmic) units, intonation groups, utterances, which form the subsystem of pitch, stress, rhythm, tempo, pauses.

Thus, we may define phonetics as a branch of linguistics that studies speech sounds in the broad sense, comprising segmental sounds, suprasegmental units and prosodic phenomena (pitch, stress, tempo, rhythm, pauses).

Let us consider the four components of the phonetic system of language.

The first and the basic component of the phonetic structure of language is the *system of its segmental phonemes* existing in the material form of their allophones. The phonemic component has 3 aspects, or manifestations:

1. the system of its phonemes as discrete isolated units;
2. the distribution of the allophones of the phonemes;
3. the methods of joining speech sounds together in words and at their junction, or the methods of effecting VC, CV, CC, and VV transitions.

The second component is *the syllabic structure of words*. The syllabic structure has two aspects, which are inseparable from each other: syllable formation and syllable division.

The third component is *the accentual structure of words* as items of vocabulary (i.e. as pronounced in isolation). The accentual structure of words has three aspects: the physical (acoustic) nature of word accent; the position of the accent in disyllabic (or benate) and polysyllabic words; the degrees of word accent.

The fourth component of the phonetic system is *the intonational structure of utterances*. The four components of the phonetic system of language (*phonemic, syllabic, accentual and intonational*) all constitute its pronunciation (in the broad sense of the term).

3. Branches of phonetics

1. We know that the phonic medium can be studied from four points of view: the articulatory, the acoustic, the auditory, and the functional.

We may consider the branches of phonetics according to these aspects. **Articulatory phonetics** is the study of the way the vocal organs are used to produce speech sounds. **Acoustic phonetics** is the study of the physical properties of speech sounds. **Auditory phonetics** is the study of the way people perceive speech sounds. Of these three branches of phonetics, the longest established, and until recently the most highly developed, is articulatory phonetics. For this reason, most of terms used by linguists to refer to speech-sounds are articulatory in origin.

Phoneticians are also interested in the way in which sound phenomena function in a particular language. In other words, they study the abstract side of the sounds of language. The branch of phonetics concerned with the study of the functional (linguistic) aspect of speech sounds is called **phonology**. By contrast with phonetics, which studies all possible sounds that the human vocal apparatus can make, phonology studies only those contrasts in sound which make differences of meaning within language.

2. Besides the four branches of phonetics described above, there are other divisions of the science. We may speak of **general phonetics and the phonetics of a particular language (special or descriptive phonetics)**. General phonetics studies all the sound-producing possibilities of the human speech apparatus and the ways they are used for purpose of communication. The phonetics of a particular language studies the contemporary phonetic system of the particular language, i.e. the system of its pronunciation, and gives a description of all the phonetic units of the language. Descriptive phonetics is based on general phonetics.

Linguists distinguish also **historical phonetics** which aim is to trace and establish the successive changes in the phonetic system of a given language (or a language family) at different stages of its development. Historical phonetics is a part of the history of language.

There is also **comparative phonetics** closely connected with historical phonetics with the aim to study the correlation between the phonetic systems of two or more languages and find out the correspondences between the speech sounds of kindred languages.

Phonetics can also be **theoretical and practical**.

Practical, or normative, phonetics that studies the substance, the material form of phonetic phenomena in relation to meaning.

Theoretical phonetics is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language. This dichotomy is that which holds between theoretical and applied linguists. Briefly, theoretical linguistics studies language with a view to constructing theory of its structure and functions and without regard to any practical applications that the investigation of language might have. Applied linguistics has as its concerns the application of the concepts and findings of linguistics to a variety of practical tasks, including language teaching.

All the branches of phonetics are closely connected not only with one another but also with other branches of linguistics. This connection is determined by the fact that language is a system components of which are inseparably connected with one another.

Phonetics is also connected with many other sciences. Acoustic phonetics is connected with physics and mathematics. Articulatory phonetics is connected with physiology, anatomy, and anthropology.

Historical phonetics is connected with general history of the people whose language is studied; it is also connected with archaeology. Phonology is connected with communication (information) theory, mathematics, and statistics.

4. Methods of phonetic analysis

We distinguish between the subjective, introspective method of phonetic investigation and the objective method.

The oldest, simplest and most readily available method is the method of direct observation. This method consists in observing the movements and positions of one's own or other people's organs of speech in pronouncing various speech sounds, as well as in analyzing one's own kinaesthetic sensations during the articulation of speech sound in comparing them with auditory impressions.

Objective methods involve the use of various instrumental techniques (palatography, laryngoscopy, photography, cinematography, X-ray photography and cinematography and electromyography). This type of investigation together with direct observation is widely used in experimental phonetics. The

objective and subjective methods are complementary and not opposite to one another. Nowadays we may use the up-to-date complex set to fix the articulatory parameters of speech - so called articulograph. The stream of speech within a single utterance is called a continuum. There are only a few points in this stream which constitute natural breaks or which show an articulatorily, auditorily or acoustically steady state being momentarily preserved and which could therefore serve as the basis for the analytic segmentation of the continuum into real phonetic units. There are 2 major methods of segmentation of the stream of speech: PARAMETRIC and LINEAR.

The parametric approach gives the analysis of the activities of the vocal organs for pronunciation of different words, it gives the details of articulatory movements in speech. The parametric approach is especially helpful in speech technology when trying to design computer-based machines that can produce and recognize speech. The linear approach is a more artificial way of analyzing speech as compared to the parametric analysis. The concept which is shared between the parametric and linear analysis is the notion of speech as the product of the action of a number of independently controllable components co-varying in time. This product can be referred to as a phonetic feature (according to J. Laver). Thus the principal difference between a linear and parametric approaches lies in the relation between a feature and its possible values. In a linear approach a given feature can have only a limited number of values (or categories). For example, the phonetic feature “pitch – height” can be given solely the values: high, mid and low and the analysis would then have only these categories at the disposal for the description of the relative height of the momentary pitch of the speaker’s voice. Thus linear categories are discrete not continuous. Conversely, in the parametric approach the potential values that a feature may display are continuous but not discrete. They are limited in their discriminative power only by the sensitivity of the measuring system available. So the parametric approach more transparently reflects the dynamic, time-varying nature of vocal performance. For this reason it is the linear approach which is taken in most textbooks.

According to J. Laver the linear units of phonetic organization are as follows:

- 1) feature;
- 2) segment;
- 3) syllable;
- 4) setting;
- 5) utterance;
- 6) speaking turn.

Let’s now give a brief description to all of them.

A feature is a minimum descriptor showing how segments of other phonetic units differ from each other. Phonological features fall into classes and this gives rise to superordinate (соподчинять) them. For example the feature “sonorant” is applied to the phonological units called: “vowels” – “glides, nasals, lateral”.

The concept of **the segment** is that of a unit anchored in a short of speech by a set of a phonetic feature-values which are relatively unchanging. The segment is the main construct of phonetic theory. There are 3 main different phases of articulation of any segment. A segment can be classified in terms of the maximum degree of constriction of the vocal tract which is reached during **the medial phase**. Preceding this medial phase is **the onset phase** and following it is **the offset phase**. Going back to features we can speak about features on a segmental level classifying them into:

subsegmental, segmental and suprasegmental features.

For example, subsegmental can be represented by the nasality heard in the late part of the pronunciation of the vowel in the word “soon”;

a segmental feature may be limited to a medial phase of a single segment, e.g. an audible friction that characterizes the medial phase of the sound S in the word “east”;

a suprasegmental feature runs throughout the pronunciation of all the segments in the word “forceful”. Thus a segment is considered on structural and temporal grounds and supported by general phonological considerations. A typical duration for a speech segment at normal speaking rate lies approximately between 30 and 300 milliseconds.

From the phonetic point of view it is hard to give a definition to the **phonetic syllable**. Attempts to provide acoustic or auditory definitions have so far proved to be equally unsatisfactory. One of the chief difficulties lies in determining the possible boundaries of such a phonetic unit as:

“eight sheep can each eat cheaply” . A decision about the syllabic affiliation of the segments cannot be taken with only phonetic criteria in mind!! Phonological and lexical criteria necessarily play their part.

The concept of **the phonological syllable** enjoys no more general consensus than that of a phonetic one. According to J. Laver the phonological syllable can be defined as “a complex unit of nuclear and marginal elements, where nuclear elements are vowels and marginal are consonants. Thus nuclear elements are syllabic and marginal elements are non-syllabic.

The phonetic setting. If one examines an utterance from a single speaker delivered in a characteristic voice quality, it's often evident, that the speaker is imposing a nuclear bias on the vocal performance tending to make the vocal cords keep returning during speech towards some habitual state. Examples of this may be as follows:

- a) the tendency of a speaker to keep the jaw in a relatively close position;
- b) to set the lips in a habitually rounded position;
- c) to have a rather whispery type of phonation.

Thus a setting is featural property of a stretch of speech which can be as long as the whole utterance or shorter, characterizing only part of the utterance even down to a segment. Settings are frequently used as extra linguistic indicators of an individual speaker's identity and as social indicators of regional groups. A smile, for instance, performed on part or all the utterance would be an example of medium term setting for paralinguistic purposes of attitudinal communication. One of the benefits of introducing the concept of setting for scientists of phonetics is that it can be used as a theoretical device to explain the basis of phonetic similarity between segments. Any 2 segments that share a given setting are thereby phonetically more similar to each other than those which display no setting in common.

The utterance and the speaking turn. The utterance is a stretch of speech by a single speaker bounded by silence and containing no pauses.

T.e. speaking turn consists of one speaker's contribution to a conversation up to the point in time where the floor is yielded to another participant. Each speaking turn contains one or more utterances. Both the speaking turn and the utterance are the natural units of analysis, whereas the other 4 (the feature, the segment, the setting and the syllable) are analytically imposed.

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Lecture 2 The phoneme theory

1. Baudouin De Courtney

2. The first period

3. The second period

The phoneme theory came into being in Russia. It was founded by professor I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay (1845 – 1929), who was the founder of the Kazan linguistic school. The fundamental principles of the phoneme theory were worked out by him during the 1870s. His teaching eventually became known in Western Europe primarily through his disciples. He was a representer of the so-called psychological school of linguistics, which was current in his time. According to his theory a speech sound is a sound of a definite acoustic quality, produced by the organs of speech. Any given speech sound is incapable of variation. A Phoneme is defined by him as a group of related sounds of a given language, which are so used in connected speech, that no one of them ever occurs in positions, which any other can occupy. Speech sounds which belong to the same phoneme cannot distinguish one word from another, but phonemes distinguish one word from another in the same language. Baudouin de Courtenay's point of view was later developed by his disciple Lev Scherba (1880 – 1944). He separated phonetics from phonology and stated that sounds are not only articulatory and acoustic units, but they also possess functional qualities. Scherba noticed that in actual speech we pronounce a greater variety of sounds than we are aware of. In every language all these sounds are united in a comparatively small number of sound types. These sound types are capable of distinguishing meanings and forms of words. They serve the purpose of social intercourse. These sound types are called phonemes. And the actual speech sounds that we pronounce and the individual representing the universal are called phonemic variant or allophones. Scherba's conception is a truly materialistic theory of the phoneme. He was the first to define the phoneme as a real independent distinctive unit, which manifests itself in the form of its allophones.

There are some other views on the nature of the phoneme. From physical point of view the phoneme is a family of related sounds in which various members of the family must show articulatory similarity to one another and at the same time no member of the family may occur in the same phonetic context. This approach overestimates the material aspect of the phoneme since it views the phoneme as a group of articulatory similar sounds without any regard to its functional and abstract aspects. The physical point of view was put forward by Daniel Johnes, he was the head of London school of phonology. A similar approach is expressed by the French linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. He viewed the phoneme as a sum of acoustic impressions and articulatory movements. The opposite approach is reflected in the so-called functional view. It regards the phoneme as the minimal sound unit by which meanings may be differentiated without much regard to actually pronounced speech sounds. According to this conception the phoneme is not a family of sounds since in every sound not all the articulatory features are involved in the differentiation of meanings. Only the features helping differentiate meanings are called distinctive and they make the phoneme corresponding to them. That's why the approach excludes non-distinctive features from the phoneme. The approach was first expressed by Nikolay Trubetskoy, the head of the Prague linguistic school. He defines phoneme as a unity of phonologically relevant features. He wrote that when the phoneme is neutralized it becomes an archiphoneme, which is an abstraction combining the distinctive features common to two phonemes (лук — луг, k and g are one archiphoneme). According to his view-point both 'k' and 'g' in the Russian words 'luk' and 'lug' represent the archiphoneme 'k', which is neither voiced, nor voiceless.

A similar view is expressed by American phoneticians, who define the phoneme as a bunch of distinctive features and as an abstractional fiction.

The 1st problem of phonological analysis is to establish the phonemes in a definite language. This can be done with the help of particular phonological rules. There exist 2 principal methods of phonological analysis: distributional and semantic.

1) **The distributional method** is based on the phonological rule that different phonemes can freely occur in one and the same position, while allophones of one and the same phoneme occur in different positions. E.g. /pi:/ - /bi:/, p and b are in the same position. That's why the distributional method of analysis is a purely formal method of identifying the phonemes of a language. This method works even if a linguist doesn't know the language he analysis.

2) **The semantic method** is based on the phonological rule that a phoneme can distinguish words when opposed to one another or to a zero phoneme in an identical phonetic position. The oppositions when a phoneme is opposed to a phoneme is called a phonological opposition, e.g. sees – seat. When a phoneme is opposed to a zero phoneme is called zero opposition, e.g. sea – seas. The pairs of words which differ only in one speech sound are called minimal pairs. The semantic method attaches great significant to meaning. The investigator studies the function of sounds by collecting minimal pairs of words in the language. If 2 speech sounds distinguish words with different meanings they form a phonological opposition and are realizations of 2 different phonemes. If not they are allophones of one and the same phoneme. The method was used to study the phonetic structure of the small nations of the former Soviet Union and it helped to create written forms of these languages.

There are some cases when the establishment of phonological oppositions is not enough to determine the phonetic status of the sound. In the English language there are some sounds of a complex nature. They are /tʃ,dʒ,tr,dr,ts,dz/. In the English language these sounds form phonological oppositions and distinguish words. Head - hedge, tie - try, die - dry, buds - buzz, eat - each, head - hats. Are all those combination mono-phonemic or bi-phonemic? There are rules worked out by Nikolay Trubetsky which help to answer this question: 1) a phoneme is indivisible, that's why no syllabic division can occur within a phoneme; 2) a phoneme is produced by one articulatory effort; 3) the duration of a phoneme should not exceed the duration of other phonemes in the language. The combination of /tʃ,dʒ/ in such words as cheese, jail are monophonemic, because acoustic physiological analysis proved that these sounds are produced by one articulatory effort and no syllabic divisions occur within these phonemes. The clusters /ts,dz/ are bi-phonemic combinations because their duration exceeds the average duration of the sounds /t,d,s,z/. /tr,dr/: the phonetic status of these clusters is not decided yet. Daniel Johnes calls them affricates, as well as /tʃ,dʒ/, but most phoneticians regard them as bi-phonemic clusters. The same problem concerns the phonemic status of the English diphthongs and so-called triphthongs, whether they are mono-phonemic or bi-phonemic. The syllabic and articulatory indivisibility of English diphthongs determines their mono-phonemic character in English. Triphthongs /aiə,auə/: It has been proved that they cannot be considered as mono-phonemic, because they are not produced by single articulatory effort and there is an increase in the force of articulation of intensity not only for the first element, but for the 2nd as well. Moreover the syllabic division generally occurs between the diphthong and the third element, e.g. 'flower'. So that's why they are combinations of a diphthong and a neutral vowel. In this way it was established that in Standard English pronunciation which is called received pronunciation there are 12 vowels monophthongs, 8 diphthongs and 24 consonant phonemes.

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Lecture 3 Principles of classification of English consonants and vowels.

Consonants are made with air stream that meets an obstruction in the mouth or nasal cavities. That is why in the production of consonant sounds there is a certain degree of noise.

Consonants are the bones of a word and give it its basic shape. English accents differ mainly in vowels, the consonants are more or less the same wherever English is spoken. So if your vowels are not perfect you may still be understood by the listener, but if the consonants are imperfect there may be some misunderstanding.

The sentence "W-l y- -nv-t- m-l- th- p-t-?" "Will you invite me to the party?" is easy for understanding even if all the vowel letters would be left out. But if we leave all the consonant letters out : "-i- -ou i—i- e-e -o —e -a-y" it is impossible to make any sense out of it.

On the articulatory level the consonants change:

1. In the degree of noise.
2. In the manner of articulation.
3. In the place of articulation.

The manner of articulation of consonants is determined by the type of obstruction. The obstructions may be complete, incomplete and momentary. When the obstruction is complete the organs of speech are in contact and the air stream meets a closure in the mouth or nasal cavities as in the production of the English [p, b, t, d, k, g, tf, dj, m, n, ŋ] .

In case of an incomplete obstruction the active organ of speech moves towards the point of articulation and the air stream goes through the narrowing between them as in the production of the English [f, v, s, z, d, h, w, l, r, j] and the Russian [ф, ф']. Momentary obstructions are formed in the production of the Russian sonorants [p, p'] when the tip of the tongue taps quickly several times against the teeth ridge.

According to the manner of articulation consonants may be of four groups:

4. Occlusive.
5. Constrictive.
6. Occlusive-constrictive (affricates).
7. Rolled.

1. **Occlusive** consonants are sounds in the production which the air stream meets a complete obstruction in mouth.

Occlusive voiced consonants are: the English [b, d, g].

Occlusive voiceless consonants are: the English [p, t, k].

2. **Constrictive** consonants are those in the production of which the air stream meets an incomplete obstruction in the resonator, so the air passage is constricted. Both noise consonants and sonorants may be constrictive.

Constrictive noise consonants are called fricatives.

The English fricatives: [f, v, s, z, h].

The English voiced fricatives: [v, d, z, ʒ].

The English voiceless fricatives: [f, s, h].

3. **Occlusive-constrictive** consonants or **affricates** are noise consonant sounds produced with a complete obstruction which is slowly released and the air escapes from the mouth with some friction.

There are only two occlusive-constrictives in English: [tf, dz] . The English [dz] is voiced and weak; [tf] is voiceless and strong .

4. **Rolled** consonants are sounds pronounced with periodical momentary obstructions when the tip of the tongue taps quickly several times against the teeth ridge and vibrates in the air stream. (They are the Russian [p, p']).

The place of articulation is determined by the active organ of speech against the point of articulation. There may be one place of articulation or focus, or two places of articulation or foci when active organs of speech contact with two points of articulation. In the first case consonants are called unicentral, in the second they are bicentral.

According to the position of the active organ of speech against the point of articulation consonants may be:

1. Labial
2. Lingual
3. Glottal

Labial consonants are made by the lips. They may be bilabial and labio-dental. Bilabial consonants are produced when both lips are active: [p, b, m, w].

Labio-dental consonants are articulated with the lower lip against the edge of the upper teeth: [f, v].

Lingual consonants are classified into forelingual, mediolingual and backlingual.

Forelingual consonants are articulated with the tip or the blade of the tongue. According to its work they may be:

apical, if the tip of the tongue is active [t, d, s, z, tf, n, l].

caucuminal, if the tip of the tongue is at the back part of the teeth ridge, but a depression is formed in the blade of the tongue as [r]. According to the place of obstruction forelingual consonants may be:

interdental, dental., alveolar, post-alveolar., palato-alveolar.

Interdental consonants are made with the tip of the tongue projected between the teeth: the English [ð, θ].

Dental consonants are produced with the blade of the tongue against the upper teeth.

Alveolar consonants are articulated with the tip against the upper teeth ridge: the English [t, d, s, z, n, l].

Post-alveolar consonants are made when the tip or the blade of the tongue is against the back part of the teeth ridge or just behind it: the English [r].

Palato-alveolar consonants are made with the tip or the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge and the front part of the tongue raised towards the hard palate, thus having two places of articulation.

Vowels are normally made with the **air stream** that meets no closure or narrowing in the mouth, pharyngeal and nasal cavities. That is why in the production of vowel sounds there is no **noise component** characteristic of consonant sounds.

On the **articulatory level** the description of vowels notes changes:

- 1) in the **stability of articulation**;
- 2) in the **tongue position**;
- 3) in the **lip position**;
- 4) in the **character of the vowel end**.

Besides that vowels differ in respect of their length.

1. Stability of Articulation. All English vowels are divided into three groups: pure vowels or **monophthongs**, **diphthongs** and **diphthongoids**.

Monophthongs are vowels the articulation of which is almost unchanging. The quality of such vowels is relatively pure. There are 10 monophthongs in English.

In the pronunciation of **diphthongs** the organs of speech glide from one vowel position to another within one syllable. The starting point, the nucleus, is strong and distinct. The glide which shows the direction of the quality change is very weak. In fact diphthongs consist of two clearly perceptible vowel elements. There are 8 diphthongs in English.

In the pronunciation of **diphthongoids** the articulation is slightly changing but the difference between the starting point and the end is not so distinct as it is in the case of diphthongs. There are two diphthongoids in English: [i:], [u:].

2. Tongue Positions. The changes in the position of the tongue determine largely the shape of the mouth and pharyngeal cavities. The tongue may move forward and backward, up and down, thus changing the quality of vowel sounds.

(1) When the tongue moves forward and backward various parts of it may be raised in the direction of the palate.

When the tongue is in the front part of the mouth and the front part of it is raised to the hard palate a **front vowel** is pronounced. This is the position for the English vowels [i:], [æ], [e].

When the tongue is in the front part of the mouth but slightly retracted, and the part of the tongue nearer to centre than to front is raised, a **front-retracted vowel** is pronounced. Such is the position for the English vowel [ɪ].

When the front of the tongue is raised towards the back part of the hard palate the **vowel** is called **central**. This is the position for the English vowels [ʌ], [ɜ:].

When the tongue is in the back part of the mouth and the back of it is raised towards the soft palate a **back vowel** is pronounced. This is the position for the English vowels [a:], [o], [o:], [u:].

When the tongue is in the back part of the mouth but is slightly advanced and the central part of it is raised towards the front part of the soft palate a **back-advanced vowel** is pronounced. This is the position for the English vowel [u].

(2) Moving up and down in the mouth various parts of the tongue may be raised to different height towards the roof of the mouth.

When the front or the back of the tongue is raised high towards the palate the **vowel** is called **close**. This is the way the English vowels [i], [i:], [u], [u:] are pronounced.

When the front or the back of the tongue is as low as possible in the mouth **open vowels** are pronounced. This is the way to pronounce the English vowels [æ], [a:], [o], [o:].

When the highest part of the tongue occupies the position intermediate between the close and the open one **mid vowels** are pronounced. This is the position for the English vowels [e], [ʌ], [ɜ:], [ə].

3. Lip Position. The shape of the mouth cavity is also largely dependent on the position of the lips. When the lips are neutral or spread the vowels are termed **unrounded**.

When the lips are drawn together so that the opening between them is more or less round the vowel is called **rounded**.

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Lecture 4 Assimilation and its types.

1. Types of assimilation.

2. Degrees of assimilation.

Assimilation is a process of alternation of speech sounds as a result of which one of the sounds becomes fully or partially similar to the adjoining one. The influence of the neighboring sounds in English can act in *progressive, regressive or reciprocal (double, mutual)* direction.

1. When some articulatory features of the following sound are changed under the influence of the preceding sound, which remains unchanged, assimilation is called *progressive*. e.g. The pronunciation of the plural suffix *-s* of nouns depends on the quality of a preceding consonant: it is pronounced as [z] after voiced consonants (pens [penz], calls [ko:lz]) and as [s] after voiceless consonants (desks [desks], books [buks]). Within the words sandwich, grandmother, etc under the influence of [n] the consonant [d] changed into [n] and then disappeared (sandwich ['sxnwidz → 'sxnwidz])

2. When the following sounds influences the articulation of the preceding one assimilation is called *regressive*. e.g. Within the word *width* and in the word combination *in them*, the alveolar [d] and [n] become dental before the interdental [t] and [d].

3. *Reciprocal (mutual, double)* assimilation means complex mutual influence of the adjacent sounds. e.g. Within the word *tree* [tri:] the sonorant [r] is partly devoiced under the influence of the voiceless [t] and the alveolar [t] becomes [post-alveolar] before the post-alveolar [r].

Assimilation can affect the place of obstruction and the active organ of speech; the work of the vocal cords; the position of the lips; the position of the soft palate; the manner of the release of plosive consonants.

1. Modification of the place of obstruction and the active organ of speech.

Assimilation may take place within a word and also at word boundaries. The following three important cases should be noticed:

a) The alveolar allophones of [t, d, n, l, s, z] are replaced by the dental variants when immediately followed by the interdental [t] or [d]. e.g. within a word: *breadth, tenth* at word boundaries: *Put that down! Read this! on the desk.*

b) The post-alveolar [t] and [d] are heard before the post-alveolar sonorant [r]. e.g. within a word: *trip, true, trunk, dream, drink, dry*. At word-boundaries: *at rest, would read*

2. Changing in the work of vocal cords (voicing or devoicing).

a) The sonorants [m, n, l, w, r, j] are partially devoiced when preceded by voiceless consonants [s, p, t, k, f, t, s]. e.g. within words: [m̥] – *small*, [n̥] – *sneer*, [j̥] – *stupid, tune, pure, few*, [w̥] – *sweep, square*, [r̥] – *spread, try, cream*, [l̥] – *slow, place climb*. At word boundaries the sonorants [l, r, w]

are slightly voiced if with the adjacent words they form a phrasal word or a rhythmic group. e.g. *at last, at rest.*

b) Contractive forms of the verbs “is” and “has” may retain voice or be devoiced depending on the preceding consonants. e.g. *That’s right* [Dxts rait]

c) The assimilative voicing or devoicing of the possessive suffix –’s or –s’, the plural suffix –(e)s of nouns and of the third person singular present indefinite of verbs depends on the quality of the preceding consonant. These suffixes are pronounced as:

[z] after all voiced consonants except [z] and [ʒ] and after all vowel sounds. e.g. *girls* [ge:lz], *rooms* [ru(:)mz]

[s] after all voiceless consonants except [s] and [ʃ], e.g. *books* [buks], *writes* [raits]

[ɪz] after [s, z] or [ʃ, ʒ] e.g. *dishes* [dɪʃɪz]

d) The assimilative voicing or devoicing of the suffix –ed of regular verbs also depends on the quality of the preceding consonant. The ending –ed is pronounced as:

[d] after all voiced consonants except [d] and after all vowel sounds. e.g. *lived* [lɪvd], *played* [pleɪd]

[t] after all voiceless consonants except [t]. e.g. *worked* [we:kt],

[ɪd] after [d] and [t] e.g. *intended* [ɪn’tendɪd], *extended* [ɪk’stendɪd]

In English regressive voicing or devoicing is found only in few cases of historical assimilation within a compound word when the semantic independence of the first component is lost. e.g. *fivepence* [’faɪfɛns], *gooseberry* [’gu:zb(ə)rɪ]

Regressive voicing or devoicing may also take place in closely connected pairs of words. e.g. I have to [aɪ hɔ:ftu], I used to [aɪ ju:sttu], does she [dɔ:sɪ].

3. Changes in the lip position.

Consonants followed by the sonorant [w] change their lip position. They become lip-rounded in anticipation of [w]. e.g. *twinkle, quite, swan, language*

4. Changes in the position of the soft palate.

Nasal consonants may influence the adjacent plosives. This type of assimilation is not typical of English. Sometimes [d] changes into [n] under the influence of the preceding [n]. e.g.

handsome [’hɔ:ndsqm → ’hɔ:nnsqm → ’hɔ:nsm]

Nasalisation affects mainly the alveolar consonants, especially adjacent to the negative *n’t*, and is characteristic of very rapid speech. e.g. *She wouldn’t do it* [sɪ wunnt dh ɪt]

5. Changes in the manner of the release of plosive consonants.

English plosives don’t always have a sudden oral release of air. The main variants are:

a) **Loss of plosion**

A plosive loses its plosion, if it is followed by another plosive or affricate, e.g. within a word: *accommodation, attraction, bookcase* at word boundaries: *what time, went down, that child, that joke*

b) **Nasal plosion**

When a plosive is followed by a syllabic [n] or [m], it has no release of his own, the so-called nasal plosion is produced. In such sequences the closure for the plosive is made normally, but the release is produced not by a removal of the oral closure, which is retained, but by the lowering of the soft palate, which allows the compressed air to escape through the nasal cavity to form the nasal consonant. e.g. within a word: *happen* ['hæpən], *shipmate* ['ʃɪpmet]

at word boundaries: *sob noisily*, *stop moaning*

c) **Lateral plosion**

In the sequences of a plosive immediately followed by [l] the closure produced for the plosive is not released till after [l]. Before [l] the release is made by a sudden lowering of the sides of the tongue, and the air escapes along the sides of the tongue with the lateral plosion.

e.g. *please*, *cattle*, *black*, *candle*.

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Lecture 5 Intonational structure of English sentence.

1. Intonation as a unity of speech melody, prominence of words, tempo, voice-tember and rhythm.

2. Component of intonational structure.

3. Functions and intonational structure of the English language.

It is fairly obvious that words are seldom pronounced by themselves, as vocabulary items. They are usually arranged into sentences in accordance with the grammatical and phonetic structures of the language. And, as we know, one of the components of the phonetic structure of a language is its intonation. Intonation is the main factor that turns a word a group of words into a sentence.

Intonation is defined differently by different phoneticians here and abroad. Most foreign linguists consider intonation as variation in voice pitch. For instance, L. Armstrong and I. Ward make it clear that: "By intonation we mean the rise and fall of the pitch of the voice when we speak". The components of intonation all function together, they all inseparable form one another. Speech melody is one of the leading components of intonation. It is closely connected with sentence stress. Each intonation group may consist of the following sections: pre-head, head, body, nucleus, tail. There are six main types of body:

- 1) regular descending;
- 2) broken descending;
- 3) low;
- 4) ascending;
- 5) sliding;
- 6) scandent.

There are eight main types of nuclear tones: high fall, low fall, low rise, high rise, fall-rise, rise-fall, rise-fall-rise, level.

The tail may be: descending, level or ascending. Sentence stress is one of the important component of the intonational structure. Sentence-stress is a special prominence which is given to one or more words so as to single them out from other words in the same intonation-group. Stress may be syntagmatic, syntactic and logical.

Syntagmatic stress is placed on the semantic centre of the sense-group which is the nucleus.

Syntactic stress singles out the other semantically important words of the sentence.

When the semantic centre is shifted from the last notional word of the sentence to some other words we get logical stress.

Tempo, rhythm and pauses are considered to be temporal (проходящий) components of intonation. Tempo is the rate, or duration of speech. It may be slow, formal or quick. Through tempo we appreciate the relative importance of sentences and their sense-groups. The more important parts of a sentence are pronounced at a slow tempo, the less important ones are said quickly.

Tempo is closely connected with rhythm. Our speech is subdivided rhythmically into unites. Speech rhythm may be defined as a regular recurrence of stressed and unstressed syllables. Rhythmic characteristics of speech have been looked into by people for a long time.

Rhythm is closely connected with stress. Sense-groups in English are divided into rhythmical groups. Each rhythmical group consists of a stressed syllable alone, or combined with one or more unstressed syllables attached to it.

Pauses are closely connected with other components of intonation. Between intonation-group there may be pauses of different lengths. At the end of a sentence the pause is long. It is indicated by a double vertical bar. A pause between clauses is short, it is indicated with a large vertical bar. There is a non-obligatory pause between parts of the sentence. It is a very short one and is indicated with a wavy vertical line.

The last component of intonation is voice-tamber, or voice quality. It is a common knowledge that sentences may be pronounced with different voice coloring expressing all shades of emotions, such as joy, happiness, sadness, irony, indifference, indignation, hostility, and many others. **Voice-tamber** is connected with the pitch of the voice and the tempo of speech.

We do not know anything about the physical nature of this phenomenon, because the voice-tamber component has not been investigated at all.

All the components of intonation exist and develop together. English intonation as a whole carries important information and like all other phonetic phenomena (phoneme, syllable, accent) intonation also fulfills three main functions: constitutive, distinctive, recognitive.

The constitutive function of intonation consists in the fact that:

- 1) each syllable of each section of an intonation-group has a certain pitch and cannot exist without it;
- 2) the end of an intonation-group is marked by a change of pitch direction or pitch level. (This constitutive function is often called sentence-delimiting function.);
- 3) each intonation-group must have at least one prominent word which is pronounced with sentence-stress;
- 4) an intonation-group cannot exist without the temporal component either, because each intonation-group is pronounced at a certain tempo, it has its own rhythm, the end of an intonation-group is indicated by a pause, etc.

All this proves that intonation (or rather all its components) fulfill the constitutive function. No sentence can exist without intonation. (intonation is present in any written sentence as well.)

The most important is the distinctive function of intonation which manifests itself in the fact that intonation as a whole is capable of differentiating one sense-group or sentence from another sense-group or sentence. The role of different components of intonation in differentiating sentences is not of equal importance, though. Some components play the leading role, while others play a subsidiary role. The distinctive function of intonation is most vividly observed in phonological oppositions. The number of phonological oppositions is quite considerable. According different intonational

components sentence may sound categorical and non-categorical, emphatic and unemphatic, as a statement or general question, a statement or exclamation etc.

The third function of intonation is its recognitive function. It consists in the use of the right intonation pattern in the sentence.

Nowadays there are exist two principal methods of indicating intonation: in the line of text and outside the line of text. In both methods only its pitch and force components can be indicated. The method of indicating intonation outside of text is represented by the well-known system of tonograms. Two horizontal lines show graphically the upper and the lower limits of the human voice pitch. Different signs are used between the lines to indicate the stressed and unstressed syllables.

L. E. Armstrong and I. C. Ward introduced the system of lines (now called dashes) corresponding to stressed syllables, and dots corresponding to unstressed ones. Downward curves represent falling tones, upward curves represent rising tones. This system was introduced in 1925 and its long existence has proved it to be both easy and useful.

Another group of linguists used large and small dots for stressed and unstressed syllables. Large dots with tail-like curves indicated falling and rising tones depending on the direction of the curve.

Rodger Kingdon used wedge-like signs for stressed syllables and small dots for unstressed ones.

Worth mentioning is the music notation system which is used when it is necessary to show the exact stress-pattern or uneven rhythms. The system of indicating intonation outside the line of text is rather valuable because the intonation may be shown on the staves with great accuracy. But we must admit that it is very difficult to see both the tonogram and the text at first glance.

Intonation may also be shown in the line of text itself which may be written either in phonetic transcription or in orthographic spelling. Several systems are distinguished here too:

H. E. Palmer's system was widely spread and used most commonly in our country until recently. He distinguished the following kinds of nuclear tones:

- 1) falling nucleus
- 2) rising nucleus;
- 3) falling nucleus with intensification;
- 4) falling-rising nucleus.

The syllables preceding the nucleus are marked thus:

- 1) superior head;
- 2) scandent head;
- 3) inferior head.

R. Kingdon has introduced the so-called "tonetic stress-mark system", which indicates speech melody as well as sentence-stress.

R. Kingdon's "tonetic stress-mark system" has the great advantage of indicating intonation in printed texts. Such texts can be written quickly and with no difficulty whatever.

American descriptivist indicate intonation in the line of text with the so-called 'stair-steps' which are based on Kenneth L. Pike's system. Pike distinguishes 4 levels of speech melody: low, mid (normal), high and extra high. In the USA it is the only system in indicating intonation in printed text and it is considered there to be the most teachable because of its clarity and simplicity. It is really quite easy to read but the process of drawing the stair-steps is rather slow and laborious. That's why American system hasn't been adopted in our country. So for indicating intonation in the line of text the most widely used are the British intonation system and Kingdon's "tonetic stress-mark system". For indicating intonation outside the line of text the most widely used is L. E. Armstrong and I. C. Ward' system of staves.

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Lecture 6 Pronunciation standard of British English

The national languages of today are products of a long historical evolution. Their roots can be traced back to the local dialects of the feudal period. At the beginning of the epoch of feudalism, the inhabitants of the different principalities, duchies, kingdoms that composed a feudal state, lived in comparative isolation and spoke their own dialects. There was no trade, practically no education; there were few causes for migrations of people, and, consequently, the local dialects of the time developed within their own territories. With the growth of commerce, a new interest in travelling, and the spread of learning towards the end of the epoch of feudalism, the isolation between the different parts of the same feudal state began to break up. Due to various causes – political, cultural, commercial, economic – one of the local dialects took precedence over all the others. That outstanding dialect became the foundation of the national language of the state. *The national language of England* developed on the basis of the London dialect, because London expanded rapidly into an important centre of commerce, industry and learning as early as *the 14th century*. The speech of aristocracy and the court phonetically was that of the London area. Then it lost its local characteristics and was finally fixed as a ruling-class accent, often referred to as "King's English". It was also the accent taught at public schools. The process of formation of the national language of England was accompanied by the development of its literary form. This process was accelerated by the spread of learning and literature.

The special characteristics of literary English are its **grammatical structure**, **vocabulary** and **phonetic structure**. A person speaking literary English is marked at once as being educated, it is considered that he speaks "good", "correct" English. The pronunciation of educated people is usually termed "**Received Pronunciation**" by English phoneticians. In Russian, the term "Literary Pronunciation" is commonly used. The growth of a language is a spontaneous process. At the same time the literary form of a language is nearly always preserved with great care; it is maintained and extended by educational institutions, the radio and by television. Received Pronunciation has been accepted everywhere for the teaching of English to foreigners. If a choice is at all possible, it is between the British and the American pronunciation standards. British Received Pronunciation is the recognized and accepted literary form of pronunciation. It is upheld by public opinion. It has been described in a great number of books by English phoneticians.

The American pronunciation standard should not be chosen for teaching purposes for a number of very valid reasons:

- 1) The American pronunciation standard is comparatively *new* and has no long tradition to back it.
- 2) Besides, it is less uniform than British Received Pronunciation.

Although one of the great advantages of British Received Pronunciation is its **uniformity**, this does not mean that B. R. P. is absolutely rigid and allows of no variations. Different individual variants of the same phoneme are used by different speakers. Besides, there are variations in the pronunciation of the same word (e. g. poor, sure, direction, often).

A person does not always pronounce the same words in the same way. The pronunciation of one and the same person may be different on different occasions; for instance, when delivering a lecture, speaking over the radio or giving a dictation exercise, when talking to official persons or chatting with friends. These different ways of pronouncing words are called "*styles of pronunciation*".

Prof. D. Jones has classified pronunciation styles in the following manner:

- the rapid familiar style,
- the slower colloquial style,
- the natural style used in addressing a fair-sized audience,
- the acquired style of the stage,
- the acquired styles used in singing.

But there is no indication as to the characteristic features of each style, nor is any principle given that might help to distinguish one style from another.

Some authors confuse styles of pronunciation with literary styles. **Prof. R. I. Avanesov** mentions the following styles: common colloquial, poetic, academic, the style of public address, low colloquial. These several styles are represented in the following scheme:

- literary style,
- colloquial style (stylistically neutral),
- low colloquial.

The first subdivision includes the three more elevated styles (poetic, academic, the style of public address. The author remarks, however, that no distinct phonetic features of any of these styles can be quoted.

Prof. L. V. Shcherba differentiates *the full style* from *the colloquial style*. The distinctive principle is the degree of carefulness with which words are pronounced.

The full style is characterized by a moderately slow tempo and a careful pronunciation. The words are pronounced in their full form, without vowel reduction or loss of consonants, without unnecessary (non-obligatory) assimilations (e. g. singing).

The colloquial style differs from the full style both in tempo and in clearness. The peculiarities of this style differ in each different language.

In Prof. L. V. Scerba's classification, the most essential features which differentiate the two styles are emphasized. Besides this basic subdivision of styles, it is useful to distinguish two main types of the colloquial style:

- 1) the careful colloquial style (which may have subdivisions in tempo) and
- 2) the careless colloquial style, which differs from the careful colloquial style in the free use of non-obligatory assimilations, such as: wanna = want to, gona = going to etc.

In studying a foreign language, one should begin by learning the words in their full form (the full style), then master the careful colloquial style; it is of no use to learn the rapid careless colloquial style, it should be avoided. The two styles of pronunciation in English are chiefly distinguished by the use of strong forms of all the words in the full style, and by the use of weak forms of the form words and of a number of other common words in the colloquial style. The careful colloquial style and the careless colloquial style differ in the degree of carefulness and in tempo.

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Lecture 7 The object of Lexicology

1. The theoretical and practical value of English Lexicology.

2. The connection of Lexicology with Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar and other branches of Linguistics.

3. The term motivation

1. Lexicology (from Greek *lexis* `word` and *logos* learning) is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the characteristics of words as the main units of language.

Vocabulary - the system formed by the sum of all the words of a language.

Word - the basic unit of a language characterized by definite phonetic and grammatical form.

Each word has some aspects:

1) It has a sound form because it is a certain arrangement of phonemes;

2) It has its morphological structure, being also a certain arrangement of morphemes, when used in actual speech, it may occur in different word forms, and signal various meanings.

There are two types of Lexicology.

General Lexicology deals with the general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.

Special Lexicology is the lexicology of a particular language (e.g. English, Russian, etc.), i.e. the study and description of its words and vocabulary. Special Lexicology may be historical and descriptive.

Historical Lexicology discusses the origin of words, their change and development and investigates the forces modifying their structure and meaning.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words, their structure.

2. The word is studied in other branches of Linguistics and not in Lexicology only. And Lexicology in its turn is closely connected with General linguistics, the History of the language, Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar. The connection of Lexicology with Phonetics is important. Because on the acoustic level words consist of phonemes, and phonemes participate in signification. They have no meaning of their own but they are used to build up morphemes which serve to distinguish between meanings. E.g. Our queer old dean – our dear old queen (compare). A close connection between lexicology and grammar is conditioned by the ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and have some lexico-grammatical characteristics of the word class to which they belong. Lexicology is linked with the history of a language since the latter investigates the changes and the development of the vocabulary of a language. There is also a close relationship between lexicology and stylistics. Stylistics, but from a different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, synonymy, polysemy, differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues.

3. The term motivation is used to denote the relationship existing between the morphemic or phonemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other. There are three main types of motivation: phonetical motivation, morphological and semantic motivation.

E.g. The word hiss is motivated by a certain similarity between the sounds which make it up, and those referred to by the sense: its motivation is phonetical. Examples are also: bang, buzz, giggle, whistle etc.

The derived word rethink is motivated as its morphological structure suggests the idea of thinking again. Its motivation is morphological.

Semantic motivation is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meanings.

E.g. Mouth denotes a part of the human face, and at the same time it can mean metaphorically any opening or outlet: the mouth of a river, for instance.

If there is no influence of other words on the word under discussion, the word under discussion is said to be non-motivated. From the historical point of view, motivation changes in the course of time. Words that are non-motivated at present may have lost their motivation due to changes in the vocabulary.

E.g. The verb earn doesn't suggest any necessary connection with agriculture at present. Historical analysis shows that it is derived from OE *earnian* "to harvest". In ME this connection no longer exists, the motivation is lost and earn is now a non-motivated word. Word – the basic unit of language, directly corresponds to the object of thought (referent) – which is a generalized reverberation of a certain 'slice', 'piece' of objective reality – and by immediately referring to it names the thing meant.

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Lecture 8 Old English. Historical background.

1. Pre- Germanic Britain.

2. Germanic settlement of Britain.

3. Beginning of English.

4. Events of external history between the 5th and 11th.

5. Historical background from the 11th to 15th c.

The history of the English language begins with the invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes in the 5th c. of our era. Before description of these events it is essential to recall a few preceding facts of history relevant to the development of English. Prior to the Germanic invasion the British Isles must have been inhabited for at least fifty thousand years by Celtic tribes: the Picts and the Scots in the North and the Britons in the South.

In the first century BC the Romans under Julius Caesar made two raids on Britain, in 55 and 54 BC. Caesar attacked Britain for economic reasons - to obtain tin, pearls and corn, - and also for strategic reasons, since rebels and refugees from Gaul found support among their British kinsmen. But this stay was a short one. Only in AD 43 Britain was again invaded by Roman legions under Emperor Claudius, and towards the end of the century was made a province of the Roman Empire. Roman civilization - paved roads, powerful walls of military camps - completely transformed the country. The Latin language superseded the Celtic dialects in townships and countryside in the south-east. In the 4th century, when Christianity was introduced in the Roman empire, it also began spreading among the Britons. The Romans ruled Britain for almost four hundred years, up to the early 5th century. In 410 Roman legions were recalled from Britain to defend Italy from the advancing Goths; so the Britons had to rely on their own forces in the coming struggle with Germanic tribes. The only permanent linguistic sign of their presence proved to be the place names of some of their major settlements - such as the towns now ending in -chester (derived from the Latin word for 'camp', castra), and a small number of

loan words, such as *stræt* ('street, road', from *strata*), *weal* ('wall', from *vallum*), *pipor* ('pepper', from *piper*), *win* ('wine', from *vinum*).

It was about mid-5th century that Britain was conquered by Germanic tribes. There is an account in Bede's *Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation* reporting the invasion of Britain in AD 449 by warlike tribes from north-west Europe - the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, who lived in the regions now known as the Netherlands, Germany, and Denmark. Bede's account was written in Latin in about AD 731. The invaders were first called 'Saxons', but Latin writers later began to refer to them as 'Angles' (*Angli*), regardless of which tribe they belonged to. Until around AD 1000, the nation was called *Anglecynn* (nation of the Angles), and then *Englalond* (land of the Angles). The language was always referred to as English (the *sc* spelling was used for the sound *sh*), and this has led to the modern name. The conquerors settled in Britain in the following way. The Angles occupied most of the territory north of the Thames up to the Firth of Forth; the Saxons, the territory south of the Thames and some stretches north of it; the Jutes settled in Kent and in the Isle of Wight. Its original territory was England (in the strict sense) except Cornwall, Wales, and Strathclyde (a region in the north-west). These western regions the Britons succeeded in holding, and they were conquered much later: Cornwall in the 9th, Strathclyde in the 11th, and Wales in the 13th century.

The Scottish Highlands, where neither Romans nor Teutons had penetrated, were inhabited by Picts and Scots. The Scots language, belonging to the Celtic group, has survived in the Highlands up to our own days. Ireland also remained Celtic: the first attempts at conquering it were made in the 12th century. Now a few words as to significance of the invasion. When the Angles, Saxons and Jutes settled on the island of Great Britain, they were separated from all their kinsmen, which resulted in the differentiation of their speech. The slight difference between their dialects and those of the other Germanic tribes, no longer levelled by communication, had a tendency to grow, and in the course of time it brought about the development of a separate language - the English language.

On the other hand, the fact that the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes came to live together on the same island and fought the same enemy contributed much to their being gradually united into one people - the English people. Therefore the Anglo-Saxon invasion of Great Britain is usually considered the beginning of the history of the English people and the history of the English language.

As a result of the invasion seven Germanic kingdoms were formed in Britain. The Angles formed three kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia. The Saxons also founded three kingdoms: Wessex, Essex, Sussex. The Jutes founded one kingdom - Kent. The main dialect divisions (see map) reflect the settlements of the invading tribes, with their different linguistic backgrounds, and these divisions are still apparent in the country today. The area occupied by the Angles produced two main dialects: Mercian was spoken in the Midlands, roughly between the River Thames and the River Humber, and as far west as the boundary with present-day Wales; Northumbrian was spoken to the north of Mercian, extending into the eastern lowlands of present-day Scotland, where it confronted the Celtic language of the Britons of Strathclyde. Kentish, spoken by the Jutes, was used mainly in the area of present-day Kent and the Isle of Wight. The rest of England, south of the Thames and west as far as Cornwall (where Celtic was also spoken), was settled by Saxons, the dialect being known as West Saxon. Most of the Old English manuscripts are written in West Saxon, because it was the kingdom of Wessex, under King Alfred, which became the leading political and cultural force at the end of the 9th century. However, modern standard English is descended not from West Saxon, but from Mercian, as this was the dialect spoken in the area around London, when that city became powerful in the Middle Ages.

The history of English is one of repeated invasions, with newcomers to the islands bringing their own language with them, and leaving a fair amount of its vocabulary behind when they left or were assimilated. In the Anglo-Saxon period, there were two major influences of this kind.

First we must mention the introduction of Christianity in the 7th century. The Christian missionaries not only introduced literacy. They also brought a huge Latin vocabulary, some of which was taken over into Old English. The missionary influence resulted in around 450 new words coming into the language, mainly to do with the church and its services, but including many domestic and biological words. The vast majority have survived in modern times. Some of them are: abbot, altar, angel, cancer, candle, cucumber, elephant, fever, grammatical, history, idol, lobster, marshmallow, master, noon, nun, offer, paper, place, plant, pope, purple, radish, rule, school, scorpion, sock, temple, tiger, title.

Another result of this influence was the substitution of the Latin alphabet, called Runic, used before that. The second big linguistic invasion came as a result of the Danish (Viking) raids on Britain, which began in AD 787 and continued at intervals until the beginning of the eleventh century. Within a century, the Danes controlled most of eastern England. Only the kingdom of Wessex remained independent. In the year 878 Alfred, king of Wessex gained an overwhelming victory over the Scandinavians and made them sign the treaty in which the Danes agreed to settle only in the north-east third of the country - east of a line running roughly from Chester to London - an area that was subject to Danish law, and which thus became known as the Danelaw. Within the Danelaw the Scandinavians lived side by side with the Anglo-Saxons and a constant process of assimilation was going on for centuries, which had a marked influence on both languages. In 991 a further invasion brought a series of victories for the Danish army, and resulted in the English king, Ethelred, being forced into exile, and the Danes seizing the throne. For the next 25 years England was ruled by Danish kings. The result of this prolonged period of contact was a large number of Danish settlements with Scandinavian names. There are over 1500 place-names of Scandinavian origin in England, especially in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire. Over 600 places end in -by, the Danish word for 'farm' or 'town' - Derby, Grimsby, Rugby, etc. Many end in -thorp ('village'), as in Althorp and Linthorpe. Many Scandinavian personal names (e.g. surnames ending in -son, such as Davidson and Henderson) are also found in these areas.

The closeness of the contact between the Anglo-Saxons and the Danish settlers during this period of 250 years is clearly shown by the extensive borrowings. In the long term, over 1800 words of definite or probable Scandinavian origin entered the language, and are still found in present-day standard English. Several thousands more continued to be used in regional dialects, especially those of the north-east. Some of the commonest words in English came into the language at the time, such as both, same, get, give, and take. Three of the Old English personal pronouns were replaced by Scandinavian forms (they, them, their). And - the most remarkable invasion of all - the invading language even took over a form of the verb to be, the most widely used English verb. Are, is of Scandinavian origin.

Old English was first written using the runic alphabet. This alphabet was used in northern Europe, in Scandinavia, present-day Germany, and the British Isles, and has been preserved in about 4000 inscription and a few manuscripts. It dates from around the third century AD. No one knows exactly where the alphabet came from. It is a development of one of the alphabets of southern Europe, probably the Roman, which runes resemble closely. The modifications which Latin letters underwent in the runic alphabet are accounted for by the technique of writing used by Germanic tribes in those early times. Namely, writing at the time did not mean putting a colour or paint on some surface: it meant cutting letters into wood or engraving them on stone or bone. So the letters are angular; straight lines are preferred. Horizontal lines were not made as the knife used to cut it merely separated fibres of the wood, and eventually, when the knife was removed, the fibres of the wood joined again, and no trace of a line

remained visible. So horizontal lines were tilted upwards or downwards. Curves were replaced by broken lines. And one more peculiarity of the runic alphabet not satisfactorily explained yet: tilted lines stretching from top to bottom were avoided: they were shortened in one way or another.

The common runic alphabet used throughout the area consisted of twenty four letters. It is written both from left to right and from right to left. Each letter had a name, and the alphabet as a whole is called the 'futhorc' (in Britain), from the names of its first six letters (in a similar way to our name 'alphabet', derived from the first two letters of the Greek alphabet, alpha and beta). The version found in Britain used extra letters to cope with the range of sounds found in Old English, and at its most developed form, in ninth century Northumbria, consisted of thirty-one letters.

Neither on the mainland nor in Britain were the runes ever used for everyday writing or for putting down poetry and prose works. When runes came to use in manuscripts, they were commonly used to convey 'secret' information (the very name 'runes' means 'secret'). In one manuscript, a collection of riddles contains items in which runes are used to provide clues to the solution. In another, an author's name is hidden - written in runic letters interspersed throughout a text. Over the centuries, the symbolic power of runes (perhaps arising from the way each symbol had a name, and represented a concept) has often been recognized. Runes continued to be used in Scandinavia until as late as the nineteenth century. Even in the 20th century, they can be found in tales of mystery and imagination.

The most famous runic inscriptions in Britain appear on Ruthwell Cross, near Dumfries, a stone monument some 5 metres tall, and around the sides of a small bone box known as the Franks Casket (named after the British archeologist A.W.Franks who discovered it in the 19th c. and presented to the British Museum). The earliest evidence of Old English is a runic inscription on a gold medallion found at Undley in Suffolk in 1982, which has been dated AD 450-80.

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Содержание дисциплины

Практические семестр VII

Тема1 Phonetic as a branch of linguistics

- 1. Phonetics as a branch of linguistics**
- 2. Aspects and units of phonetics**
- 3. Branches of phonetics**
- 4. Methods of phonetic analysis**

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Тема 2 The phoneme theory

- 1. Baudouin De Courtney**
- 2. The first period**
- 3. The second period**

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Тема 3 Principles of classification of English consonants and vowels.

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Тема 4 Assimilation and its types.

1. Types of assimilation.

2. Degrees of assimilation.

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Тема 6 Pronunciation standard of British English

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Тема 7 The object of Lexicology

1. The theoretical and practical value of English Lexicology.

2. The connection of Lexicology with Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar and other branches of Linguistics.

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Тема: 8 Old English. Historical background.

1. Pre- Germanic Britain.

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Содержание дисциплины семестр VIII

Lecture 1 Morphemes

1. Free and bound morphemes.

2. Morphological classification of Words.

3. Word-Families.

4. Word-building.

Words consist of morphemes. The term “morpheme” is derived from Greek *morphe* — 'form' + *-erne*. The Greek suffix *-erne* has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest unit (cf. *phoneme*,

sememe). **The morpheme** is the smallest meaningful unit of form. Morphemes cannot be segmented into smaller units without losing their constitutive essence, i.e. two-facedness — association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-pattern. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words but not independently.

Morphemes may have different phonetic shapes. In the word-cluster *please, pleasing, pleasure, pleasant* the root morpheme is represented by the phonetic shapes: [pli:z-] in *please, pleasing*; [plɛz-] in *pleasure*; [plez-] in *pleasant*. All the representations of the given morpheme are called **allomorphs** or morpheme variants. 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 and 2) non-root morphemes.

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. The root-morpheme is isolated as the morpheme common to a set of words making up a word-cluster, e.g. the morpheme *teach-* in *to teach, teacher, teaching*.

Non-root morphemes include inflectional morphemes (or inflections) and affixational morphemes (or affixes). Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms, whereas affixes are relevant for building various types of stems. Lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes.

Affixes are divided into prefixes and suffixes. A **prefix** is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its lexical meaning. A **suffix** is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class.

Structurally morphemes fall into three types: 1) free morphemes; 2) bound morphemes; 3) semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes.

A **free morpheme** is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form. For example, the root-morpheme *friend-* of the noun *friendship* is naturally qualified as a free morpheme because it coincides with one of the forms of the word *friend*.

A **bound morpheme** occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are bound morphemes for they always make part of a word.

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*.

Structurally derivational bases fall into three groups: 1. Bases that coincide with morphological stems, e.g. *dutiful, dutifully; to day-dream, daydreamer*,

Stems that serve as this class of bases may be of different derivational types thus forming derivational bases of different degrees of complexity:

a) root stems, which consist of only one, semantically non-motivated constituent, e.g. *pocket, motion, retain*;

b) derived stems, which are semantically or structurally motivated formed by means of different word-building processes such as affixation, conversion, abbreviation, types of shortenings.

c) compound stems are always binary formed by combining two free e.g. *match-box* (two simple stems), *letter-writer* (one simple and one derived stem); *aircraft-carrier* (a compound and derived stem).

2. Bases that coincide with word-forms, e.g. *unsmiling, paper-bound*. This class of bases is represented by verbal word-forms — the present and the past participles. The collocability of this class of derivational bases is confined to: 1) a few derivational affixes such as the prefix *un-* and the suffix *-ly*,

e.g. *unnamed, unknown; smilingly, knowingly*; 2) other bases which coincide only with nominal and adjectival stems, e.g. *mocking-bird, dancing-girl, ice-bound, easygoing*.

3. Bases that coincide with word-groups, e.g. *flat-waisted, second-rateness*.

A derivational pattern is a regular meaningful arrangement, a structure that imposes rigid rules on the order and the nature of the derivational bases and affixes that may be brought together. DPs are studied with the help of distributional analysis at different levels.

Simplification is defined as a morphological process by which a word of a complex morphological structure loses the meaning of its separate morphological parts and becomes a mere symbol of the notion given.

Aims and Principles of Morphemic and Word-formation Analysis

A synchronic description of the English vocabulary deals with its present-day system and its patterns of word-formation. If the analysis is limited to stating the number and type of morphemes that make up the word, it is called *morphemic analysis*.

A structural *word-formation analysis* studies the structural correlation with other words, the structural patterns or rules on which words are built. This is carried out with the help of the principle of binary oppositions, i.e. by studying the partly similar elements and the differences which are functionally relevant; in our case this difference is sufficient to create a new word.

Word-formation is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. A distinction is made between two principal types of word-formation: word-derivation and word-composition.

The basic ways of forming words in **word-derivation** are affixation and conversion.

Affixation is the formation of a new word with the help of affixes, e.g. *heartless* (from *heart*), *to overdo* (from *to do*). **Affixation** is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of stems. Affixation includes suffixation and prefixation. Distinction between suffixal and prefixal derivatives is made according to the last stage of derivation. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a different part of speech. Suffixes can be classified into different types in accordance with different principles.

1. According to the lexico-grammatical character of the base suffixes are usually added to, they may be:

- a) deverbial suffixes (those added to the verbal base), e.g. *-er* (*speaker*); *-ing* (*reading*);
- b) denominal suffixes (those added to the nominal base), e.g. *-less* (*endless*); *-ful* (*armful*);
- c) deadjectival suffixes (those added to the adjectival base), e.g. *-en* (*widen*); *-ly* (*rapidly*).

2. According to the part of speech formed suffixes fall into several groups:

- a) noun-forming suffixes: *-age* (*breakage, bondage*); *-ance/-ence* (*assistance, reference*); *-dom* (*freedom, kingdom*); *-er* (*teacher, baker*); *-ess* (*lioness, actress*); *-ing* (*building, washing*); *-hood* (*manhood, childhood*); *-ness* (*tenderness, prettiness*); *-ship* (*relationship, partnership*);
- b) adjective-forming suffixes: *-able/-ible/-uble* (*unbearable, audible, soluble*); *-al* (*formal, official*); *-ic* (*poetic*); *-ant/-ent* (*repentant, dependent*); *-ed* (*wooded, shaped*); *-ful* (*delightful, doubtful*); *-ish* (*reddish, bookish*);
- c) numeral-forming suffixes: *-fold* (*twofold*); *-teen* (*fourteen*); *-th* (*seventh*); *-ty* (*sixty*);
- d) verb-forming suffixes: *-ate* (*facilitate*); *-er* (*glimmer*); *-fy/-ify* (*terrify, speechify*); *-ize* (*equalize, harmonize*); *-ish* (*establish*);
- e) adverb-forming suffixes: *-ly* (*quickly, coldly*); *-ward/-wards* (*upward, northwards*); *-wise* (*likewise*).

3. Semantically suffixes fall into:

- a) monosemantic, e.g. the suffix *-ess* has only one meaning “female” — *tigress, tailoress*;
- b) polysemantic, e.g., the suffix *-hood* has two meanings: 1) n “condition or quality” — *falsehood, womanhood*; 2) “collection or group” — *brotherhood*.

4. According to their generalizing denotational meaning suffixes may fall into several groups. For instance, noun-suffixes fall into those denoting:

- a) the agent of the action, e.g. *-er (baker); -ant (assistant)*;
- b) appurtenance, e.g. *-an/-ian (Victorian, Russian); -ese (Chinese)*;
- c) collectivity, e.g. *-dom (officialdom); -ry (peasantry)*;
- d) diminutiveness, e.g. *-ie (birdie); -let (cloudlet); -ling (wolfling)*.

5. According to their stylistic reference suffixes may be classified into:

- a) those characterized by neutral stylistic reference, e.g. *-able (agree-able); -er (writer); -ing (meeting)*;
- b) those having a certain stylistic value, e.g. *-oid (asteroid); -tron (cyclotron)*. These suffixes occur usually in terms and are bookish.

Productive affixes are those used to form new words in the period in question.

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the base. They 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 rewrite < to write*.

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles.

1. According to the lexico-grammatical character of the base prefixes are usually added to, they may be:

- a) deverbal (those added to the verbal base), e.g. *re- (rewrite); over- (overdo); out- (outstay)*;
- b) denominal (those added to the nominal base), e.g. *un- (unbutton); de- (detrain); ex- (ex-president)*;
- c) deadjectival (those added to the adjectival base), e.g. *un- (uneasy); bi- (biannual)*.

2. According to the class of words they preferably form prefixes are divided into:

- a) verb-forming prefixes, e.g. *en-/em (embed, enclose); be- (befriend); de- (dethrone)*;
- b) noun-forming prefixes, e.g. *non- (non-smoker); sub- (subcommittee); ex- (ex-husband)*;
- c) adjective-forming prefixes, e.g. *un- (unfair); il- (illiterate); ir- (irregular)*.
- d) adverb-forming prefixes, e.g. *un- (unfortunately); up- (uphill)*.

3. Semantically prefixes fall into:

- a) monosemantic, e.g. the prefix *ex-* has only one meaning 'former' — *ex-boxer*;
- b) polysemantic, e.g. the prefix *dis-* has four meanings: 1) 'not' (*disadvantage*); 2) 'reversal or absence of an action or state' (*diseconomy, disaffirm*); 3) 'removal of' (*to disbranch*); 4) 'completeness or intensification of an unpleasant action' (*disgruntled*).

4. According to their generalizing denotational meaning prefixes fall into:

- a) negative prefixes, e.g. *un- (ungrateful); non- (nonpolitical); in- (incorrect); dis- (disloyal); a- (amoral)*;
- b) reversative prefixes, e.g. *un₂- (untie); de- (decentralize); dis₂- (disconnect)*;
- c) pejorative prefixes, e.g. *mis- (mispronounce); mal- (maltreat); pseudo- (pseudo-scientific)*;
- d) prefixes of time and order, e.g. *fore- (foretell); pre- (pre-war); post- (post-war), ex- (ex-president)*;
- e) prefix of repetition: *re- (rebuild, rewrite)*;

f) locative prefixes, e.g. *super-* (*superstructure*), *sub-* (*subway*), *inter-* (*inter-continental*), *trans-* (*transatlantic*).

5. According to their stylistic reference prefixes fall into:

a) those characterized by neutral stylistic reference, e.g. *over-* (*oversee*); *under-* (*underestimate*); *un-* (*unknown*);

b) those possessing quite a definite stylistic value, e.g. *pseudo-* (*pseudo-classical*); *super-* (*superstructure*); *ultra-* (*ultraviolet*); *uni-* (*unilateral*); *bi-* (*bifocal*). These prefixes are of a literary-bookish character.

Derivatives are characterized by a specific component called a **word-building meaning**. The problem of the definition of a word-building meaning and the ways of its expression attracts the attention of many linguists. But there is a divergency of views as to the solution of this problem. We define a **word-building meaning** as a component of the lexical meaning of any derived word determined by the type of the semantic relationship of a derived word and its base. As a rule, a word-building meaning is constituted on the basic meaning of the stem of a derived word. The semantics of a derived stem is of a paramount importance in forming the word-building meaning of a derived word.

In Modern English conversion is highly productive in replenishing the word-stock with new words. The term **conversion**, which some linguists find inadequate, refers to the numerous cases of phonetic and spelling identity of word-forms, primarily the so-called initial forms, of two and more words belonging to different parts of speech. Conversion has been the subject of many linguistic discussions since 1891 when H. Sweet first used the term in *A New English Grammar*. Various opinions have been expressed on the nature and character of conversion in the English language, and different conceptions of conversion have been put forward. We share the point of view on **conversion** as a morphological-syntactic word-building means of a word of one part of speech from the stem or wordform of another part of speech by means of changing its paradigm (if any) and environment characteristic of a word of a definite part of speech. We stress that the basic form of the original and the basic forms of the derived words are always homonymous. It is not correct to divide conversion into full and partial. The so-called partially converted adjectives such as *the poor*, *the rich*, *the wounded* are real **substantives** formed by conversion. This view has won the recognition of linguists both in Russia and abroad: the article of his was included into the bibliographical data of the most fundamental works on English word-formation over two centuries.

The main reason for the wide-spread development of conversion in present-day English is no doubt the absence of morphological elements serving as classifying signals or, in other words, the absence of formal signs, in most cases marking the part of speech to which the word belongs. The majority of converted words belonging to different parts of speech are words of traditional conversion, they are recorded in dictionaries, e.g. *to cook*, *to capture*, *to chair*, *to cage*. The individual or occasional use of conversion is also very frequent; verbs and adjectives are converted from nouns and other parts of speech or vice versa for the sake of bringing out the meaning more vividly in a given context only.

Word-composition is one of the highly productive types of word-formation in Modern English. In some manuals on English lexicology published in our country composition is defined as a type of word-building in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems. I.V. Arnold writes: "Compound words are words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms". But it is impossible to create a compound word by joining more than two stems because every derived or compound word may be divided only into two immediate constituents. That is why any compound word is created by means of joining together only two stems which are free stems. Every free stem is homonymous to a separate word in the vocabulary. It is necessary to underline that free stems

may be root stems, derived stems, compound stems and even compound derivatives. We understand compound words or compounds as words which are made up of two immediate constituents which are both derivational bases. The structural cohesion of a compound may depend on the unity of stress, solid or hyphenated spelling, semantic unity, unity of morphological and syntactic functioning, or, more often, on several of those factors. The integrity of a compound is manifested in its indivisibility. Compound words can be classified according to different principles.

1. According to the relations between the ICs compound words fall into two classes: 1) coordinative compounds and 2) subordinative compounds.

In **coordinative compounds** the two ICs are semantically equally important. The coordinative compounds fall into three groups:

- a) reduplicative compounds which are made up by the repetition of the same base, e.g. *pooh-pooh, fifty-fifty*;
- b) compounds formed by joining the phonically varied rhythmic twin forms, e.g. *chit-chat, zig-zag* (with the same initial consonants but different vowels); *walkie-talkie, clap-trap* (with different initial consonants but the same vowels);
- c) additive compounds which are built on stems of the independently functioning words of the same part of speech, e.g. *actor-manager, queen-bee*.

In **subordinative compounds** the components are neither structurally nor semantically equal in importance but are based on the domination of the head-member which is, as a rule, the second IC, e.g. *stone-deaf, age-long*. The second IC preconditions the part-of-speech meaning of the whole compound.

2. According to the part of speech compounds represent they fall into:

- 1) **compound nouns**, e.g. *sunbeam, maidservant*;
- 2) **compound adjectives**, e.g. *heart-free, far-reaching*;
- 3) **compound pronouns**, e.g. *somebody, nothing*;
- 4) **compound adverbs**, e.g. *nowhere, inside*;

3. According to the means of composition compound words are classified into:

- 1) compounds composed without connecting elements, e.g. *Heartache, dog-house*;
- 2) compounds composed with the help of a vowel or a consonant as linking element, e.g. *handicraft, speedometer, statesman*;
- 3) compounds composed with the help of linking elements represented by preposition or conjunction stems, e.g. *son-in-law, pepper-and-salt*.

Shortening is the formation of a word by cutting off a part of the word. According to the part of the word that is cut off (initial, middle or final) there are the following types of shortenings: 1) initial (apheresis), e.g. *fend* (v) < *defend*, *phone* < *telephone*; 2) medial (or syncope), e.g. *specs* < *spectacles*, *fancy* < *fantasy*; 3) final (or apocope), e.g. *ad, advert* < *advertisement*, *veg* < *vegetables*; 4) both initial and final, e.g. *flu* < *influenza*, *fridge* < *refrigerator*.

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

Graphical abbreviation is the formation of a word from the initial letters of a word combination. There are two basic types of acronyms: 1) acronyms which are read as ordinary English words, e.g.

UNESCO [ju: 'neskau] — *the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*; 2) acronyms with the alphabetic reading, e.g. *BBC* ['bi: 'bi: 'si:] — *the British Broadcasting Corporation*.

Back-formation is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words. The process is based on analogy. For example, the word *to butle* 'to act or serve as a butler' is derived by subtraction of *-er* from a supposedly verbal stem in the noun *butler*.

Non-productive ways of forming words in the English language are sound-interchange, sound imitation, distinctive stress.

Sound-interchange is 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). In some cases vowel-interchange is combined with suffixation: *strong* — *strength*; 2) consonant-interchange: *advice* — *to advise*.

Consonant-interchange and vowel-interchange may be combined together: *life* — *to live*.

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

Distinctive stress is the formation of a word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word: *'increase* (n) — *in'crease* (v), *'absent* (adj).

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Lecture 2 Phraseology

1. The problem of defining phraseological units.
2. Ways of forming phraseological units.
3. Different classifications of phraseological units.

Phraseology is a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions, which like words name various objects and phenomena. They exist in the language as ready-made units.

A Phraseological unit (PU) can be defined as a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech, but is reproduced as a ready-made unit.

It is a group of words whose meaning cannot be deduced by examining the meaning of the constituent lexemes.

The essential features of PU are:

- 1) lack of motivation;
- 2) stability of the lexical components.

A dark horse is actually not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite.

A bull in a china shop: the idiom describes a clumsy person.

A white elephant – it is a waste of money because it is completely useless.

The green-eyed monster is jealousy, the image being drawn from Othello.

To let the cat out of the bag : to let some secret become known.

To bark up the wrong tree means ‘to follow a false scent; to look for somebody or something in a wrong place; to expect from somebody what he is unlikely to do’.

The idiom is not infrequently used in detective stories: **The police are barking up the wrong tree as usual**, i.e. they suspect somebody who has nothing to do with the crime.

The ambiguity of these interesting word-groups may lead to an amusing misunderstanding, especially for children who are apt to accept words at their face value.

- Little Johnnie (crying): *Mummy, mummy, my auntie Jane is dead.*

- Mother: *Nonsense, child! She phoned me 5 minutes ago.*

Little Johnnie: *But I heard Mrs. Brown say that her neighbours cut her dead.*

To cut somebody dead means ‘to rudely ignore somebody; to pretend not to know or recognize him’.

Puns are frequently based on the ambiguousness of idioms:

- *Isn't our Kate a marvel! I wish you could have seen her at the Harrisons' party yesterday. If I'd collected **the bricks she dropped** all over the place, I could built a villa'.*

To drop a brick means ‘to say unintentionally a quite indiscreet or tactless thing that shocks and offended people’.

The author of the “Book of English Idioms” Collins write: “In standard spoken and written English today idioms is an established and essential element that, used with care, ornaments and enriches the language.”

Used with care is an important warning because speech overloaded with idioms loses its freshness and originality. Idioms, after all, are ready-made speech units, and their continual repetition sometimes wears them out: they lose their colours and become trite clichés.

In modern linguistics, there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian scholars use the term “phraseological units” introduced by academician V.V. Vinogradov. The term “idiom” used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Russian phraseology but is applied mostly to only a certain type of phraseological unit as it will be clear from further explanations.

There are some other terms: set-expressions, set-phrases, phrases, fixed word-groups, collocations.

The ‘freedom’ of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary.

Nothing is entirely ‘free’ in speech as its linear relationships are governed, restricted and regulated, on the one hand, by requirements of logic and common sense and, on the other, by the rules of grammar and combinability.

A black-eyed girl but not of *a black-eyed table*.

The child was glad is quite correct, but *a glad child* is wrong.

Free word-groups are so called not because of any absolute freedom in using them but simply because they are each time built up anew in the speech process whereas idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structures.

Free-word groups vs phraseological units

The border-line between free or variable word-groups and phraseological units is not clearly defined. The free word-groups are only relatively free as collocability of their member-words is fundamentally delimited by their lexical and syntactic valency. Phraseological units are comparatively stable and semantically inseparable. Between the extremes of complete motivation and variability of member-words and lack of motivation combined with complete stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure there are innumerable border-line cases.

There are differences between word-groups and phraseological units

The difference often is in the interrelation of lexical components, e.g. *Blue ribbon* (or *red, brown, etc.*), but *blue ribbon* – an honour given to the winner of the first prize in a competition – no substitution is possible in a phraseological unit;

Stretch one's legs – размять ноги, прогуляться (а не «протянуть ноги»),

See eye to eye – быть полностью согласным (а не «видеться с глазу на глаз»),

Under one's hand – за собственной подписью (а не «под рукой»),

Stew in one's own juice – страдать по своей собственной глупости (а не «вариться в собственном соку»).

In free word-groups each of its constituents preserves its denotational meaning.

In the case of phraseological units however the denotational meaning belongs to the word-group as a single semantically inseparable unit. For example, compare a free word-group *a white elephant* (белый слон) and a phraseological unit *white elephant* (обуза, подарок, от которого не знаешь как избавиться).

Distinctive features of free-word groups and phraseological units

Free word-groups are but relatively free: they may possess some of the features characteristic of phraseological units. On the other hand, phraseological units are heterogeneous. Alongside absolutely unchangeable phraseological units, there are expressions that allow some degree of substitution. Phraseology is concerned with all types of set expressions including those that stand for certain sentences.

Classifications of phraseological units

Semantic classification of phraseological units (V.V. Vinogradov) is based on the motivation of the unit.

1. Phraseological fusions are units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts. The meaning of PFs is unmotivated at the present stage of language development, e.g. *red tape* (бюрократизм, волокита),

a mare's nest (иллюзия, нечто несуществующее),

My aunt! (вот те на!, вот так штука!, ну и ну!). The meaning of the components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole;

2. Phraseological unities are expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components; the meaning of the whole is based on the transferred meanings of the components, e.g.

to show one's teeth (to be unfriendly),

to stand to one's guns (to refuse to change one's opinion), etc.

They are motivated expressions.

3. Phraseological collocations are not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically, e.g. *to meet requirements, to attain success*.

In this group of PUs some substitutions are possible which do not destroy the meaning of the metaphoric element, e.g. *to meet the needs, to meet the demand, to meet the necessity; to have success, to lose success*.

These substitutions are not synonymical and the meaning of the whole changes, while the meaning of the verb *meet* and the noun *success* are kept intact.

Structural classification of phraseological units (A.I. Smirnitsky)

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky classified PUs as highly idiomatic set expressions functioning as word equivalents, and characterized by their semantic and grammatical unity. He suggested three classes of stereotyped phrases:

1. Traditional phrases (*nice distinction, rough sketch*;

2. Phraseological combinations (*to fall in love, to get up*);

1. Idioms (*to wash one's dirty linen in public*);

The second group (phraseological combinations) fall into two subgroups:

1. One-top phraseological units, which were compared with derived words;

a) **Verb-adverb PUs of the type *to give up***, e.g. *to bring up, to try out, to look up, to drop in*, etc.

b) **PUs of the type *to be tired***, e.g. *to be surprised, to be up to*, etc.

c) **Prepositional substantive units**, e.g. *by heart*.

2. Two-top phraseological units, which were compared with compound words.

a) **Attributive-nominal**, e.g. *brains trust, white elephant, blind alley*. Units of this type function as noun equivalents;

b) **Verb-nominal phrases**, e.g. *to know the ropes, to take place*, etc.

a) **Phraseological repetitions**, e.g. *ups and downs, rough and ready, flat as a pancake*. They function as adverbs or adjectives equivalents;

b) **Adverbial multi-top units**, e.g. *every other day*.

Structural – semantic classification of phraseological units (A.V. Koonin)

Prof. Koonin distinguishes: phraseological units, phraseomatic units and borderline (mixed) cases. phraseological units have fully or partly transferred meaning, while phraseomatic units are used in their literal meaning. Phraseological and phraseomatic units are characterized by phraseological stability that distinguishes them from free phrases and compound words.

Prof. A.V. Koonin develops the theory of stability which consists of the following aspects:

1. Stability of usage, i.e. phraseological units are reproduced ready-made, not created in speech;

2. lexical stability, i.e. the components of phraseological units are either irreplaceable or partially replaceable within the bounds of phraseological variance:

Lexical: *a skeleton in the cupboard / closet* (family's secret), *a blind pig / tiger* (to sell alcohol illegally);

Grammatical: *to be in deep water / waters* (to be in a difficult situation), *a stony heart – a heart of stone* (a stern or cruel nature);

Positional: *a square peg in a round hole – a round peg in a square hole* (a person in a situation unsuited to their abilities or character), *to dot the i's and cross the t's – to cross one's t's and dot one's i's* (ensure that all details are correct);

Quantitative: *Tom, Dick and Harry – every Tom, Dick and Harry* (anybody and everybody);

Mixed variants: *raise/stir up the nest of hornets' nest about one's ears – to arouse/stir up the nest of hornets* (to destroy the nest of wasps).

3. Semantic stability is based on lexical stability of phraseological units. In spite of occasional changes the meaning of a phraseological unit is preserved. It may only be specified, made more precise, weakened or strengthened.

4. Syntactic stability.

The characteristic features of phraseological units are:

1. ready-made reproduction,
2. structural divisibility,
3. morphological stability,
4. permanence of lexical composition,
5. semantic unity,
6. syntactic fixity.

Prof. A.V. Koonin's definition: 'a phraseological unit is a stable word-group with wholly or partially transferred meaning.'

Phraseological units are subdivided into 4 classes according to the function in communication determined by structural-semantic characteristics.

Functional classification

1. nominative phraseological units, standing for certain notions: *a bull in a china shop*;
2. nominative-communicative phraseological units, standing for certain notions in the Active voice, and may be used in Passive constructions: *to cross the Rubicon – the Rubicon is crossed!*
3. interjectional phraseological units, standing for certain notions interjections: *a pretty (nice) kettle of fish! For crying out loud!*
4. Communicative phraseological units standing for sentences (proverbs and sayings): *Still waters run deep. The world is a nice place.*

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Lecture 3 Homonymy in English.

- 1. Sources of homonymy.**
- 2. Classification of homonyms.**
- 3. Synonyms. Sources of synonymy.**
- 4. Types of synonyms**

Language processing considerations have often been used to explain aspects of language structure and evolution. According to Bates and MacWhinney, this view "is a kind of linguistic Darwinism, an argument that languages look the way they do for functional or adaptive reasons". However, as in adaptationist accounts of biological structures and evolution, this approach can lead to the creation of "just so" stories. In order to avoid these problems, case-by-case analyses must be replaced by statistical investigations of linguistic corpora. In addition, independent evidence for the relative "adaptiveness" of certain linguistic structures must be obtained. We will use this approach to study a linguistic phenomenon – homonymy. That seems to be maladaptive both intuitively and empirically and has been frequently subjected to informal adaptationist arguments. A statistical analysis of English homonyms then uncovered a reliable bias against the usage of homonyms from the same grammatical class. A subsequent experiment provided independent evidence that such homonyms are in fact more confusing than those from different grammatical classes. In a simple code each sign has only one meaning, and each meaning is associated with only one sign. This one-to-one relationship is not realized in natural languages. When several related meanings are associated with the same group of sounds within one part of speech, the word is called polysemantic, when two or more unrelated meanings are associated with the same form – the words are homonyms. The intense development of homonymy in the English language is obviously due not to one single factor but to several interrelated causes, such as the monosyllabic character of English and its analytic structure. The abundance of homonyms is also closely connected with such a characteristic feature of the English language as the phonetic identity of word and stem or, in other words, the predominance of free forms among the most frequent roots. It is quite obvious that if the frequency of words stands in some inverse relationship to their length, the monosyllabic words will be the most frequent. Moreover, as the most frequent words are also highly polysemantic, it is only natural that they develop meanings, which in the course of time may deviate

very far from the central one. In general, homonymy is intentionally sought to provoke positive, negative or awkward connotations. Concerning the selection of initials, homonymy with shortened words serves the purpose of manipulation. The demotivated process of a shortened word hereby leads to re-motivation. The form is homonymously identical with an already lexicalized linguistic unit, which makes it easier to pronounce or recall, thus standing out from the majority of acronyms. This homonymous unit has a secondary semantic relation to the linguistic unit.

Homonymy of names functions as personified metaphor with the result that the homonymous name leads to abstraction. The resultant new word coincides in its phonological realization with an existing word in English. However, there is no logical connection between the meaning of the acronym and the meaning of the already existing word, which explains a great part of the humor it produces.

In the course of time the number of homonyms on the whole increases, although occasionally the conflict of homonyms ends in word loss.

Determination of Homonymy

Two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and in many cases origin are called *homonyms*. The term is derived from Greek “*homonymous*” (*homos* – “the same” and *onoma* – “name”) and thus expresses very well the sameness of name combined with the difference in meaning. There is an obvious difference between the meanings of the symbol *fast* in such combinations as *run fast* ‘quickly’ and *stand fast* ‘firmly’. The difference is even more pronounced if we observe cases where *fast* is a noun or a verb as in the following proverbs:

*“A clean fast is better than a dirty breakfast;
Who feasts till he is sick, must fast till he is well.”*

Fast as an isolated word, therefore, may be regarded as a variable that can assume several different values depending on the conditions of usage, or, in other words distribution. All the possible values of each linguistic sign are listed in the dictionaries. It is the duty of lexicographers to define the boundaries of each word, i.e. to differentiate homonyms and to unite variants deciding in each case whether the different meanings belong to the same polysemantic word or whether there are grounds to treat them as two or more separate words identical in form. In speech, however, as a rule only one of all the possible values is determined by the context, so that no ambiguity may normally arise. There is no danger, for instance, that the listener would wish to substitute the meaning ‘quick’ into the sentence: *It is absurd to have hard and fast rules about anything*², or think that *fast rules* here are ‘rules of diet’. Combinations when two or more meanings are possible are either deliberate puns, or result from carelessness. Both meanings of *liver*, i.e. ‘a living person’ and ‘the organ that secretes bile’ are, for instance, intentionally present in the following play upon words:

1. *“Is life worth living?” “It depends upon the liver.”*
2. *“What do you do with the fruit?” “We eat what we can, and what we can’t eat we can”*

Very seldom can ambiguity of this kind interfere with understanding. The following example is unambiguous, although the words *back* and *part* have

1. Arnold “The English Word”
2. Oscar Wild “Two Society Comedies”

several homonyms, and maid and heart are polysemantic:

*“Maid of Athens, ere we part,
Give, oh give me back my heart”¹*

Homonymy exists in many languages, but in English it is particularly frequent, especially among monosyllabic words. In the list of 2540 homonyms given in the “Oxford English Dictionary” 89% are

monosyllabic words and only 9.1% are words of two syllables. From the viewpoint of their morphological structure, they are mostly one-morpheme words.

Classifications of Homonyms

The standard way of classification (given by I.V. Arnold)

The most widely accepted classification is that recognizing homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.

| | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Pronunciation | Pronunciation | |
| Spelling | Same | Different |
| Same | A. Homonym proper | C. Homograph (or heteronym) |
| Different | B. Homophone (or heteronym) | D. Allonym |

Most words differ from each other in both spelling and pronunciation – therefore they belong to the cell D in this table – I shall call them allonyms. Not so many linguists distinguish this category. But it must be admitted that Keith C. Ivey, in his discussion of homonyms, recognizes this fact and writes:

*These familiar with combinatorics may have noticed that there is a fourth possible category based on spelling and pronunciation: words that differ in spelling and pronunciation as well as meaning and origin (alligator/true). These pairs are technically known as **different words**.*

1. G.G. Byron, Peter Washington “Poems of Lord Byron”

Unfortunately, this seemingly neat solution doesn't work because all heteronyms are different words as Ivey's examples show. He illustrates homophones with board/bored, clearly two different words though pronounced alike, and his example of homographs (the verb desert/the noun desert) again shows, by their pronunciation, that they are different words. Even his example of a homonym -- words having both the same sound and spelling, as illustrated by "to quail and a quail" -- clearly shows they are different words. Lexicographers underline this point by writing separate entries for different words, whether or not they have the same spelling and pronunciation. One could stipulate a phrase, like uniquely different words to represent category D, but this expedient is cumbersome and not transparent. A simpler solution, I believe, can be found by means of a neologism. It is not difficult to think of a suitable term. An allonym is a word that differs in spelling and pronunciation from all other words, whereas both homonyms and heteronyms identify words that are the same, in some ways, as other words. No doubt in ordinary usage, we will have little need for this term, although it would simplify lexical explanation if one could start by making the claim that the most words in English are allonyms. The clear exceptions are other groups.

Different words that are spelled and pronounced the same way are classed in cell A and are correctly called homonyms proper – but some writers, confusingly, call them heteronyms. When different words are spelled the same way but pronounced differently, they belong to category B. It is precise to call them homographs and they are sometimes misleadingly called heteronyms. By contrast, when different words are pronounced the same way but spelled differently, we may properly call them homophones – rarely, they have also been called heteronyms.

Homonyms proper

Homonyms proper are words, as I have already mentioned, identical in pronunciation and spelling, like *fast* and *liver* above. Other examples are: *back* n ‘part of the body’ – *back* adv ‘away from the front’ – *back* v ‘go back’; *ball* n ‘a gathering of people for dancing’ – *ball* n ‘round object used in games’; *bark* n ‘the noise made by dog’ – *bark* v ‘to utter sharp explosive cries’ – *bark* n ‘the skin of a tree’ – *bark* n

‘a sailing ship’; *base* n ‘bottom’ – *base* v ‘build or place upon’ – *base* a ‘mean’; *bay* n ‘part of the sea or lake filling wide-mouth opening of land’ – *bay* n ‘recess in a house or room’ – *bay* v ‘bark’ – *bay* n ‘the European laurel’.

The important point is that homonyms are distinct words: not different meanings within one word.

Homophones

Homophones are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning:

air – *hair*; *arms* – *alms*; *buy* – *by*; *him* – *hymn*; *knight* – *night*; *not* – *knot*; *or* – *oar*; *piece* – *peace*; *rain* – *reign*; *scent* – *cent*; *steel* – *steal*; *storey* – *story*; *write* – *right* and many others.

In the sentence *The play-wright on my right thinks it right that some conventional rite should symbolize the right of every man to write as he pleases* the sound complex [rait] is a noun, an adjective, an adverb and a verb, has four different spellings and six different meanings. The difference may be confined to the use of a capital letter as in *bill* and *Bill*, in the following example:

“How much is my milk bill?”

“Excuse me, Madam, but my name is John.”

On the other hand, whole sentences may be homophonic: *The sons raise meat* – *The sun’s rays meet*. To understand these one needs a wider context. If you hear the second in the course of a lecture in optics, you will understand it without thinking of the possibility of the first.

Homographs

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling:

bow [bou] – *bow* [bau]; *lead* [li:d] – *lead* [led]; *row* [rou] – *row* [rau]; *sewer* [‘sou] – *sewer* [sjue]; *tear* [tie] – *tear* [tee]; *wind* [wind] – *wind* [waind] and many more.

It has been often argued that homographs constitute a phenomenon that should be kept apart from homonymy, as the object of linguistics is sound language. This viewpoint can hardly be accepted. Because of the effects of education and culture written English is a generalized national form of expression. An average speaker does not separate the written and oral form. On the contrary he is more likely to analyze the words in terms of letters than in terms of phonemes with which he is less familiar. That is why a linguist must take into consideration both the spelling and the pronunciation of words when analyzing cases of identity of form and diversity of content.

Classification given by A.I. Smirnitsky

The classification, which I have mentioned above, is certainly not precise enough and does not reflect certain important features of these words, and, most important of all, their status as parts of speech. The examples given their show those homonyms may belong to both to the same and to different categories of parts of speech. Obviously, the classification of homonyms should reflect this distinctive feature. Also, the paradigm of each word should be considered, because it has been observed that the paradigms of some homonyms coincide completely, and of others only partially.

Accordingly, Professor A.I. Smirnitsky classifieds homonyms into two large classes:

- a) full homonyms
- b) partial homonyms

Full homonyms

Full lexical homonyms are words, which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.

Match n – a game, a contest

Match n – a short piece of wood used for producing fire

Wren n – a member of the Women’s Royal Naval Service

Wren n – a bird

Partial homonyms

Partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups:

A. Simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words, which belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradigms have only one identical form, but it is never the same form, as will be soon from the examples:

(to) found v

found v (past indef., past part. of to find)

(to) lay v

lay v (past indef. of to lie)

(to) bound v

bound v (past indef., past part. of to bind)

B. Complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words of different categories of parts of speech, which have identical form in their paradigms.

Rose n

Rose v (past indef. of to rise)

Maid n

Made v (past indef., past part. of to make)

Left adj

Left v (past indef., past part. of to leave)

Bean n

Been v (past part. of to be)

One num

Won v (past indef., past part. of to win)

C. Partial lexical homonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms.

to lie (lay, lain) v

to lie (lied, lied) v

to hang (hung, hung) v

to hang (hanged, hanged) v

to can (canned, canned)

(I) can (could)

Other aspects of classification

Various types of classification for homonyms have been suggested. A comprehensive system may be worked out if we are guided by the theory of oppositions and in classifying the homonyms take into consideration the difference or sameness in their lexical and grammatical meaning, paradigm and basic form. As both form and meaning can be further subdivided, the combination of distinctive features by which two words are compared becomes more complicated – there are four features: the form may be phonetical and graphical, the meaning – lexical and grammatical, a word may also have a paradigm of grammatical forms different from the basic form.

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Lecture 4 General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world.

It is natural that the English language is not used with uniformity in the British Isles and in Australia, in the USA and -in New Zealand, in Canada and in India, etc. The English language also has some peculiarities in Wales, Scotland, in other parts of the British Isles and America. Is the nature of these varieties the same? Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial variants of a national language and local dialects. Variants of a language are regional varieties of a standard literary language characterized by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and by their own literary norms. Dialects are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities, they are set off (more or less sharply) from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

Close inspection of the varieties mentioned above reveals that they are essentially different in character. It is not difficult to establish that the varieties spoken in small areas are local dialects. The status of the other varieties is more difficult to establish. It is over half a century already that the nature of the two main variants of the English language, British and American (Br and AE) has been discussed. Some American linguists, H. L. Mencken for one, spoke of two separate languages with a steady flood of linguistic influence first (up to about 1914) from Britain to America, and since then from America to the British Isles. They even proclaim that the American influence on British English is so powerful that there will come a time when the American standard will be established in Britain. Other linguists regard the language of the USA as a dialect of English.

Still more questionable is the position of Australian English (AuE) and Canadian English (CnE). The differences between the English language as spoken in Britain, the USA, Australia and Canada are immediately noticeable in the field of phonetics. However these distinctions are confined to the articulatory-acoustics characteristics of some phonemes, to some differences in the use of others and to the differences in the rhythm and intonation of speech. The few phonemes characteristic of American pronunciation and alien to British literary norms can as a rule be observed in British dialects.

The variations in vocabulary, to be considered below, are not very numerous. Most of them are divergences in the semantic structure of words and in their usage. The dissimilarities in grammar like AE *gotten*, *proven* for BE *got*, *proved* are scarce. For the most part these dissimilarities consist in the preference of this or that grammatical category or form to some others. For example, the preference of Past Indefinite to Present Perfect, the formation of the Future Tense with *will* as the only auxiliary verb for all persons, and some others. Recent investigations have also shown that the Present Continuous form in the meaning of Future is used twice as frequently in BE as in the American, Canadian and Australian variants; infinitive constructions are used more rarely in AE than in BE and AuE and passive constructions are, on the contrary, more frequent in America than in Britain and in Australia. Since BE, AE and AuE have essentially the same grammar system, phonetic system and vocabulary, they cannot be regarded as different languages. Nor can they be referred to local dialects; because they serve all spheres of verbal communication in society, within their territorial area they have dialectal differences of their own; besides they differ far less than local dialects (e.g. far less than the dialects of Dewsbury and Howden, two English" towns in Yorkshire some forty miles apart). Another consideration is that AE has its own literary norm and AuE is developing one. Thus we must speak of three variants of the English national language having different accepted literary standards, one spoken in the British Isles, another spoken in the USA, the third in Australia. As to CnE, its peculiarities began to attract linguistic attention only some 20 years ago. The fragmentary nature of the observation available makes it impossible to determine its status.

Lexical Differences of Territorial Variants

Speaking about the lexical distinctions between the territorial variants, of the English language it is necessary to point out that from the point of view of their modern currency in different parts of the English-speaking world all lexical units may be divided into general English, those common to all the variants and locally-marked, those specific to present-day usage in one of the variants and not found in the others (i.e. Briticisms, Americanisms, Australianisms, Canadianisms, -etc.).

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

BE

flat

underground

lorry

pavement

post

tin-opener

government

leader

AE

apartment

subway

truck

sidewalk

mail

can-opener

administration

editorial

faculty

teaching staff

From such lists one may infer that the words in the left column are the equivalents of those given in the right column and used on the other side of the Atlantic. But the matter is not as simple as that.

These pairs present quite different cases.

It is only in some rare cases like tin-opener—can-opener or fishmonger—fish-dealer that the members of such pairs are semantically equivalent. In pairs like government—administration, leader—editorial only one lexical semantic variant of one of the members is locally-marked. Thus in the first pair the lexical semantic variant of administration—'the executive officials of a government' is an Americanism, in the second pair the word leader in the meaning of 'leading article in a newspaper' is a Briticism.

In some cases a notion may have two synonymous designations used on both sides of the Atlantic ocean, but one of them is more frequent in Britain, the other—in the USA. Thus in the pairs post—mail, timetable—schedule, notice—bulletin the first word is more frequent in Britain, the second—in America. So the difference here lies only in word-frequency. Most locally-marked lexical units belong to partial Briticisms, Americanisms, etc., that is they are typical of this or that variant only in one or some of their meanings. Within the semantic structure of such words one may often find meanings

belonging to general English, Americanisms and Britishisms, e.g., in the word pavement, the meaning 'street or road covered with stone, asphalt, concrete, etc' is an Americanism, the meaning 'paved path for pedestrians at the side of the road' is a Britishism (the corresponding American expression is sidewalk), the other two meanings 'the covering of the floor made of flat blocks of wood, stone, etc.' and 'soil' (geol.) are general English. Very often the meanings that belong to general English are common and neutral, central, direct, while the Americanisms are colloquial, marginal and figurative, e.g. shoulder—general English—'the joint connecting the arm or forelimb with the body', Americanism—'either edge of a road or highway'.

There are also some full Britishisms, Americanisms. For example, the words fortnight, pillar-box are full Britishisms, campus, mail boy are full Americanisms, outback, backblocks are full Australianisms.

These may be subdivided into lexical units denoting some realia that have no counterparts elsewhere (such as the Americanism junior high school) and those denoting phenomena observable in other English-speaking countries but expressed there in a different way (e.g. campus is defined in British dictionaries as 'grounds of a school or college'). The number of lexical units denoting some realia having no counterparts in the other English-speaking countries is considerable in each variant. To these we may refer, for example, lexical units pertaining to such spheres of life as flora and fauna (e.g. AuE kangaroo, kaola, dingo, gum-tree), names of schools of learning (e.g. junior high school and senior high school in AE or composite high school in CnE), names of things of everyday life, often connected with peculiar national conditions, traditions and customs (e.g. AuE boomerang, AE drug-store, CnE float-house). But it is not the lexical units of this kind that can be considered distinguishing features of this or that variant. As the lexical units are the only means of expressing the notions in question in the English language some of them have become common property of the entire English-speaking community (as, e.g., drug-store, lightning rod, super-market, baby-sitter that extended from AE, or the hockey terms that originated in Canada (body-check, red-line, puck-carrier, etc.); others have even become international (as the former Americanisms motel, lynch, abolitionist, radio, cybernetics, telephone, anesthesia, or the former Australianisms dingo, kangaroo and cockatoo).

The numerous locally-marked slangisms, professionalisms and dialectisms cannot be considered distinguishing features either, since they do not belong to the literary language.

Less obvious, yet not less important, are the regional differences of another kind, the so-called derivational variants of words, having the same root and identical in lexical meaning though differing in derivational affixes (e.g. BE acclimate—AE acclimatize, BE aluminium—AE aluminum).

Sometimes the derivational variation embraces several words of the same word-cluster. Compare, for example, the derivatives of race (division of mankind) in British and American English:

BE racial/racialist a, racialist n, racialism n

AE racist a, racist n, racialism/racism n

When speaking about the territorial lexical divergences it is not sufficient to bring into comparison separate words, it is necessary to compare lexico-semantic groups of words or synonymic sets, to study the relations within these groups and sets, because on the one hand a different number of members in a lexico-semantic group is connected with a different semantic structure of its members, on the other hand even insignificant modifications in the semantic structure of a word bring about tangible difference in the structure of the lexico-semantic group to which the word belongs.

For example, the British and Australian variants have different sets of words denoting inland areas: only inland is common to both, besides BE has interior, remote, etc., AuE has bush, outback, backblocks, back of beyond, back of Bourke and many others.

Accordingly, the semantic structure of the word bush and its position in the two variants are altogether different: in BE it has one central meaning ('shrub') and several derived ones, some of which are now obsolete, in AuE it has two semantic centres ('wood' and 'inland areas') that embrace five main and four derived meanings. Lexical peculiarities in different parts of the English-speaking world are not only those in vocabulary, to be disposed of in an alphabetical list, they also concern the very fashion of using words. For instance, the grammatical valency of the verb to push is much narrower in AuE, than in BE and AE (e.g. in this variant it is not used in the patterns VVen, NVen, NVing, NprpVing. Some patterns of the verb are typical only of one variant (e.g. NVen and NprpVing—of BE, NV and NVing — AE). There are also some features of dissimilarity in the word's lexical valency, e.g. a specifically British peculiarity observed in newspaper style is the ability of the verb to be used in combination with nouns denoting price or quality (to push up prices, rents, etc.).

As to word-formation in different variants, the word-building means employed are the same and most of them are equally productive. The difference lies only in the varying degree of productivity of some of them in this or that variant. As compared with the British variant, for example, in the American variant the affixes -ette, -ee, super-, as in kitchenette, draftee, super-market, are used more extensively; the same is true of conversion and blending (as in walk-out—'workers' strike' from (to) walk out; (to) major—'specialize in a subject or field of study' from the adjective major; motel from motor + hotel, etc.). In the Australian variant the suffixes -ie/-y and -ee, as well as abbreviations are more productive than in BE.

Thus, the lexical distinctions between different variants of English are intricate and varied, but they do not make a system. For the most part they are partial divergences in the semantic structure and usage of some words.

Some Points of History of the Territorial Variants and Lexical interchange between them

The lexical divergences between different variants of English have been brought about several historical processes. As we have known the English language was brought to the American continent at the beginning of the 17th century and to Australia at the end of the 18th century as a result of the expansion of British colonialism. It is inevitable that on each territory in the new conditions the subsequent development of the language should diverge somewhat from that of British English. In the first place names for new animals, birds, fishes, plants, trees, etc. were formed of familiar English elements according to familiar English patterns. Such are mockingbird, bullfrog, catfish, peanut, sweet potato, popcorn that were coined in AE or dogger - 'professional hunter of dingoes', Bushman—'Australian soldier in Boer War—formed in AuE.

New words were also borrowed to express new concepts from the languages with which English came into contact on the new territories. Thus in the American variant there appeared Indian hickory, moose, raccoon.

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Lecture 5 Lexicography

1. Types of dictionaries

2. Content and arrangement of dictionaries

3. Some of the main problems of Lexicography

Lexicography, the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, is an important field of study. Lexicography is closely connected with lexicology, both dealing with the same problems – the form, meaning, usage and origin of vocabulary units – and making use of each other's achievements. On the one hand, the enormous raw material collected in dictionaries is widely used by linguists in their research. On the other hand, the principles of dictionary-making are always based on linguistic fundamentals, and each individual entry is made up in accordance with the current knowledge and findings of scholars in the various fields of language study. The compiler's approach to various lexicological problems (such as homonymy, idiomatic units, etc.) always finds reflection in the selection and arrangement of the material. Lexicography has a common object of study with lexicology, both describe the vocabulary of a language. The essential difference between the two lies in the degree of systematisation and completeness each of them is able to achieve. Lexicology aims at systematisation revealing characteristic features of words. It cannot, however, claim any completeness as regards the units themselves, because the number of these units being very great, systematisation and completeness could not be achieved simultaneously. The province of lexicography, on the other hand, is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description, but in so doing cannot attain systematic treatment, so that every dictionary entry presents, as it were, an independent problem. Lexicologists sort and present their material in a sequence depending upon their views concerning the vocabulary system, whereas lexicographers have to arrange it most often according to a purely external characteristic, namely alphabetically. It goes without saying that neither of these branches of linguistics could develop successfully without the other, their relationship being essentially that of theory and practice dealing with the same objects of reality.

There are two points of view on the status of lexicography.

1. Lexicography is an important branch of applied linguistics.
2. Lexicography is a scholarly discipline in its own right and not a sub-branch of applied linguistics, as the chief object of study in lexicography is the dictionary.

The pursuit of lexicography is divided into two related disciplines:

1. Practical lexicography is the art or craft of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries.
2. Theoretical lexicography is the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language, developing theories of dictionary components and structures linking the data in dictionaries, the needs for information by users in specific types of situation, and how users may best access the data incorporated in printed and electronic dictionaries. This is sometimes referred to as 'metalexigraphy'.

A person devoted to lexicography is called a lexicographer.

General lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of general dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that provide a description of the language in general use. Such a dictionary is usually called a general dictionary or LGP (Language for general purposes) dictionary. Specialized lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of specialized dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that are devoted to a (relatively restricted) set of linguistic and factual elements of one or more specialist subject fields, e.g. legal lexicography. Such a dictionary is usually called a specialized dictionary or LSP (Language for special purposes) dictionary.

There is some disagreement on the definition of lexicology, as distinct from lexicography. Some use “lexicology” as a synonym for theoretical lexicography; others use it to mean a branch of linguistics pertaining to the inventory of words in a particular language.

The most important problems of lexicography are connected with: 1) the selection of lexical units for inclusion; 2) the arrangement of the selected lexical units; 3) the setting of the entry; 4) the selection and arrangement of word-meanings; 5) the definition of meanings; 6) the illustrative material.

1) The selection of lexical units for inclusion. The choice of lexical units for inclusion is the first problem the lexicographer faces. It is necessary to decide: a) what types of lexical units will be chosen for the inclusion; b) the number of these items; c) what to select and what to leave out in the dictionary; d) which form of the language, spoken or written or both, the dictionary is to reflect; e) whether the dictionary should contain obsolete units, technical terms, dialectisms, colloquialisms, and some others. The choice among different possible answers depends upon the type to which the dictionary will belong, the aim the compilers pursue, the prospective user of the dictionary, the size of the dictionary, the linguistic concepts of the dictionary-makers and some other considerations. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (second edition. 1987), for example, aims to provide advanced students and teachers of English with appropriate information on the core vocabulary of contemporary international English. Therefore this dictionary contains around 56,000 words and phrases, including scientific and technical language, business and computer terms, literary words, and informal and idiomatic usage. It covers both the major varieties, American and British English, in particular. Each time the lexicographers produce a new edition of the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (fifth edition, 2009), their aim is always the same: what can they do to make the dictionary more helpful for advanced level of English? The units for inclusion may be drawn either from other dictionaries or/and from some reading matter or/and from the spoken discourse. For example, in the New Oxford Dictionary of English the extensive use has been made of the British National Corpus. (Corpus is a collection of language data brought together for linguistic analysis).

(2) The arrangement of the selected lexical units. There are two modes of presentation of entries, the alphabetical order and the cluster-type, i.e. when the units entered are arranged in nests, based on this or that principle. For example, in synonym-books words are arranged in synonymic sets and its dominant member serves as the head-word of the entry. Entries may be grouped in families of words of the same root as in case of, for example, some general explanatory and translation dictionaries. The basic units are given as main entries that appear in alphabetical order while the derivatives and the phrases which the word enters are given either as subentries or in the same entry as run-ons that are also alphabetized. The difference between subentries and run-ons is that the former do include definitions and usage labels, whereas run-on words are not defined as their meanings are clear from the main entry.

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

(4) The selection and arrangement of word-meanings. There are at least three different ways in which the word meanings are arranged: a) in the historical order, i.e. in the sequence of their historical development; b) in the empirical or actual order, i.e. in conformity with their frequency of use, i.e. with the most common meaning first; c) in the logical order, i.e. according to their logical connection.

In different dictionaries the problem of arrangement is solved differently. For example, the general principle on which meanings in the New Oxford Dictionary of English are organized is that each word has at least one core meaning, to which a number of submeanings can be attached. Core meanings, as the authors of the dictionary point out, represent typical, central uses of the word in question in modern Standard English. It is the meaning accepted by native speakers as the one that is most established as literal and central. In many dictionaries meanings are generally organized by frequency of use, but sometimes the primary meaning comes first if this is considered essential to a correct understanding of derived meanings.

(5) The definition of meanings. Meanings of words may be defined in different ways: a) by means of linguistic definitions that are only concerned with words as speech material. They are used in the majority of entries; b) by means of encyclopedic definitions that are concerned with things for which the words are names; c) by means of synonymous words and expressions; d) by means of cross-references. The choice of this or that type of definition depends, as a rule, on the nature of the word, i.e. usually the part of speech the word belongs to, and on the aim of the dictionary and its size. Encyclopedic definitions, for example, are typical of nouns, especially proper nouns and terms. They play a very important role in unabridged dictionaries. Synonyms are used most often to define verbs and adjectives. They are used in shorter dictionaries usually for economizing space. Cross-references are resorted to define some derivatives, abbreviations and variant forms.

(6) The illustrative material. The presentation of illustrative material depends on the type of the dictionary and on the aim the compilers set themselves. They can illustrate the first and the last known occurrences of the entry word, the successive changes in its meaning, as well as graphic and phonetic forms, the typical patterns and collocations; they place words in a context to clarify their meanings and usage. Illustrative examples can be drawn from different sources, e.g. literature classical or contemporary, or can be constructed by the compilers themselves. For example, in the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English illustrative examples are based on analysis of the authentic language in the Longman Corpus Network. Some dictionaries indicate the author, the work, the page, verse, or line, and the precise date of the publication, some indicate only the author to give at least basic orientation about the time when the word occurs.

Classification of dictionaries

Linguistic dictionaries may be divided into different categories by different criteria.

1. According to the scope of their word-list linguistic dictionaries are divided into general and restricted. The terms general and restricted do not refer to the size of the dictionary or to the number of items listed. What is meant is that the former contain lexical units in ordinary use with this or that proportion of items from various spheres of life, while the latter make their choice only from a certain part of the word-stock, the restriction being based on any principle determined by the compiler.

General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question. The group includes the volumes of *The Oxford English Dictionary* alongside with any miniature pocket dictionary. Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. They include, for instance, frequency dictionaries. Dictionaries of word-frequency inform the user as to the frequency of occurrence of lexical units in speech, to be more exact in the corpus of the reading matter or in the stretch of oral speech on which the word-counts are based (e.g. *A Frequency Dictionary of Contemporary American English* by Mark Davies, Dee Gardner).

Restricted dictionaries cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary. Restricted dictionaries can be subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity

in which they are used (1), the type of the units themselves (2) or the relations existing between them (3). The first subgroup registers and explains technical terms for various branches of knowledge (medical, linguistic, economical terms, etc.). The second subgroup deals with specific language units, i.e. with phraseological units, abbreviations, neologisms, borrowings, toponyms, dialectal words, proverbs and sayings. The third subgroup contains a formidable array of synonymic dictionaries. Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of some author are called concordances – a list of words used in a body of work, with their immediate contexts: they should be distinguished from those that deal only with difficult words, i.e. glossaries.

Explanatory dictionaries present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered.

Specialized dictionaries deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage. The world famous *English Pronouncing Dictionary* by Daniel Jones, is considered to provide the most expert guidance on English and American English pronunciation. New 17th edition contains all the general and encyclopaedic words needed to communicate in modern world – with over 80,000 entries and 220,000 pronunciations.

3. According to the language of explanations, i.e. whether the information about the items entered given in the same language or in another language, all dictionaries are divided into: monolingual and bilingual. In **monolingual dictionaries** the words and the information about them are given in the same language. **Bilingual dictionaries** are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language. They may have two principal purposes: reference for translation and guidance for expression. Bilingual dictionaries must provide an adequate translation of every item in the target language and expression in the source language.

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

Diachronic (historical) dictionaries reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. Diachronic dictionaries, of which *The Oxford English Dictionary* is the main example, reflect the development of the vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. They may be contrasted to synchronic or descriptive dictionaries of current English concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words. The boundary between the two is, however, not very rigid: that is to say, few dictionaries are consistently synchronic, chiefly, perhaps, because their methodology is not developed as yet, so that in many cases the two principles are blended. Some synchronic dictionaries are at the same time historical when they represent the state of vocabulary at some past stage of its development.

The *Oxford English Dictionary* is the accepted authority on the evolution of the English language over the last millennium. It is an unsurpassed guide to the meaning, history, and pronunciation of over half a million words, both present and past. It traces the usage of words through 2.5 million quotations from a wide range of international English language sources, from classic literature and specialist periodicals to film scripts and cookery books. The *OED* covers words from across the English-speaking world, from North America to South Africa, from Australia and New Zealand to the Caribbean. It also offers the best in etymological analysis and in listing of variant spellings, and it shows pronunciation using the International Phonetic Alphabet. The Second Edition of the *OED* is currently available as a 20-volume print edition, on CD-ROM, and now also online.

Synchronic (descriptive) dictionaries are concerned with the present-day meaning and usage of words.

5. According to the arrangement of the selected lexical units. The entries of a dictionary are usually arranged in alphabetical order, except that derivatives and compounds are given under the same head-

word. In the ideographic dictionaries the main body is arranged according to a logical classification of notions expressed. But dictionaries of this type always have an alphabetical index attached to facilitate the search for the necessary word.

The ideographic type of dictionary is in a way the converse of the usual type: the purpose of the latter is to explain the meaning when the word is given. The thesaurus, on the contrary, supplies the word or words by which a given idea may be expressed. The Latin word *thesaurus* means 'treasury'. P. Roget's book gave the word a new figurative meaning, namely, 'a store of knowledge', and hence 'a dictionary containing all the words of a language'. A consistent classification of notions presents almost insuperable difficulties. Only relatively few semantic fields, such as kinship terms, colour terms, names for parts of human body and some others fit into a neat scheme. For the most part, however, there is no one-to-one correlation between notions and words, and the classification of notions, even if it were feasible, is a very poor help for classification of meanings and their systematic presentation. The system of meanings stands in a very complex relationship to the system of notions because of the polysemantic character of most words.

A rhyming dictionary is arranged in inverse order, and so is a thesaurus in spite of its unusual arrangement. A reverse dictionary is a list of words in which the entry words are arranged in alphabetical order starting with their final letters.

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Lecture 6 The subject matter of theoretical grammar

1. The object of the theoretical grammar.

2. Grammatical forms and grammatical meaning < grammatical category.

The term "grammar" goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of **linguistics**. A question comes immediately to mind: what does this study involve? Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

General principles of grammatical analysis.

According to the Bible: 'In the beginning was the Word'. In fact, the word is considered to be the central (but not the only) linguistic unit of language. Linguistic units (or in other words – signs) can go into three types of relations:

a) The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality). E.g. the word 'table' refers to a definite piece of furniture. It may be not only an object but a process, state, quality, etc.

This type of meaning is called **referential** meaning of a unit. It is **semantics** that studies the referential meaning of units.

b) The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units). No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called **syntactic**. Formal relation of units to one another is studied by **syntactics** (or **syntax**).

c) The relation between a unit and a person who uses it. As we know too well, when we are saying something, we usually have some purpose in mind. We use the language as an instrument for our purpose (e.g.). One and the same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called **pragmatic**. The study of the relationship between linguistic units and the users of those units is done by **pragmatics**. Thus there are three models of linguistic description: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. To illustrate the difference between these different ways of linguistic analysis, let us consider the following sentence: *Students are students*.

General characteristics of language as a functional system.

Any human language has two main functions: the communicative function and the expressive or representative function – human language is the living form of thought. These two functions are closely interrelated as the expressive function of language is realized in the process of speech communication. The expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs and that is why we say that language is a **semiotic** system. It means that linguistic signs are of semiotic nature: they are **informative** and **meaningful**. There are other examples of semiotic systems but all of them are no doubt much simpler. For instance, traffic lights use a system of colours to instruct drivers and people to go or to stop. Some more examples: Code Morse, Brighton Alphabet, computer languages, etc. What is the difference between language as a semiotic system and other semiotic systems? Language is universal, natural, it is used by all members of society while any other sign systems are artificial and depend on the sphere of usage.

Notions of 'system' and 'structure'. General characteristics of linguistic units.

Language is regarded as a system of elements (or: signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. **System** implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is a structural system. **Structure** means hierarchical layering of parts in `constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical and super syntactical. The levels are represented by the corresponding level units:

The **phonological** level is the lowest level. The phonological level unit is the **phoneme**. It is a distinctive unit (*bag – back*).

The morphological level has two level units:

- a) the **morpheme** – the lowest meaningful unit (*teach – teacher*);
- b) the **word** -the main naming (nominative) unit of language.

The **syntactical** level has two level units as well:

- a) the **word-group** – the dependent syntactic unit;
- b) the **sentence**– the main communicative unit.

The **super syntactical** level has the **text** as its level unit.

All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis we focus attention on different features of language. Generally speaking, the larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called **isomorphism**. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish **the content side** and **the expression side**. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word ‘dog’ happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one. Language and speech.

The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. **Speech** is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess. 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**: phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech - /s/ and /z/. The **sentence** is opposed to the **utterance**; the **text** is opposed to the **discourse**. Systemic relations in language. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations. A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into **paradigmatic** relations with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle, cup*, etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same*, etc. According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types: **semantic, formal** and **functional**.

a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day – He would practice English every day.*

b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man – men; play – played – will play – is playing.*

c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann’s, some, each*, etc. PR are associated with the sphere of ‘language’.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* contrasts SR with *A, OF, MILK*; within the word *PINT* – *P, I, N* and *T* are in syntagmatic relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate** and **predicative**.

a) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you and me; They were tired but happy.*

b) Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach + er* – morphological level; *a smart student* – word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses – sentence level.

c) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

As mentioned above, SR may be observed in utterances, which is impossible when we deal with PR. Therefore, PR are identified with ‘language’ while SR are identified with ‘speech’.

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Lecture 7 Parts of speech

1. Classification of parts of speech.

2. Notional and functional parts of speech.

3. Lexical, grammatical and syntactic characteristics of parts of speech

The English parts of speech are the eight traditional categories (types) of words in English: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. They separate words into groups based on their use: to name, to describe, to show action, to connect, etc.

It's important to understand them because they show how words are used in sentences. To speak English well you **need** to know how to form sentences, and where to use each type of word. (See English Sentence Structure for examples of how to use the English parts of speech in sentences.)

Essential Parts of Speech: Nouns, Pronouns, & Verbs

Nouns are names of a person, place, thing, or concept. Examples: child, Mary Smith, parents, beach, mountains, London, Korea, table, chairs, money, time, distance, peace, ideas.

Pronouns (I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, him, her, us, and them, etc.) can take the place of nouns in sentences.

For detailed information on nouns and pronouns and more on their uses in English sentences, see English Nouns and English Pronouns.

Verbs express action (go, find, make, get, take, live, die, eat, think, etc.) or state of being (be, seem, appear, need). For more information on different types of verbs and their uses, see English Verbs and Modal Verbs.

You will find that many English words can be used as more than one part of speech. For example, many words can be used as either a verb or a noun: act, call, need, play, show, work, and many more. To act is to do something; (or to take the part of someone else in a play or other performance, as an actor does), an act is something that is done (or one part of a play.)

An interesting example of the way a word may change from one part of speech to another is the word 'hand.' It is usually a noun-- the part of the body that can hold things. However, we also use it as a verb: 'to hand', when a hand gives something to someone else. A teacher 'hands out' papers or asks students to 'hand in' their homework. A bank robber shouts, "Hand over the money!"

Secondary Parts of Speech

Adjectives describe nouns or pronouns. They usually occur before the noun they describe, or are connected to it by a verb like 'to be.' (The quiet man... The man is quiet.) Examples of adjectives: quiet, noisy, early, late, good, bad, long, short, green, red, Chinese, American, difficult, easy.

Determiners. Some linguists consider determiners as a category separate from adjectives (though they modify nouns as adjectives do.) They include articles (a, an, the), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), numbers, quantifiers like some, many, each, fewer, or none, and possessives (see possessive adjective list in the English Pronouns link above).

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. They show *how, when, where, or how often* something is done. Examples: well, badly, quickly, carefully, very, always, usually, often, rarely, never, now, soon, today, tomorrow, yesterday. Many adverbs are formed by adding -ly to adjectives and describe how an action is done. These follow the verbs they modify: he walked quickly; she spoke softly; they read carefully. Adverbs of frequency describe how often something happens, and usually

come before the verb: He usually goes to the store on Tuesdays; Mary never drinks beer; They often help their neighbors.

Prepositions show relationships between parts of speech. (The pen is *on* the table. This book is *for* you. Airplanes fly *over* mountains. We'll go *with* them. The meeting is *at* 7 o'clock tonight.) Some common prepositions of location are: in, at, on, next to, beside, above, beneath, below, in front of, in back of, behind, near, close to.

Common prepositions of direction or movement are: to, from, away from, towards, over, under, around, through.

Some common prepositions of time are: in, at, on, before, after, during.

Other prepositions include with, for, of, because of, and instead of.

Conjunctions show the connection between parts of a sentence. Coordinating conjunctions like 'and,' 'but,' 'so,' and 'or' connect independent clauses in compound sentences.

Some conjunctions have two parts: either- or, neither- nor, both- and, not only- but also. Examples: We can either go to the store or to the party. Jim not only gave us directions, but he also led us through the first two intersections.

Subordinating conjunctions begin a dependent clause and show its relationship to the main (independent) clause in a complex sentence.

For examples of different types of subordinate conjunctions and how to use coordinating and subordinate conjunctions in sentences, see *Compound Sentences*, *Complex Sentences*, and *Adverb Clause and Complex Sentence Practice*.

Interjections are exclamations of feeling: Wow!, Oh, my! Hey! Many of them are not polite language: curses, "dirty" words, etc. (Be careful when you use these, even if you have heard them a lot. Some people find them very offensive, and they are inappropriate in most formal contexts.)

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Lecture 8 The sentence. Principles of classification of sentences.

1. Sentence. General characteristics.

2. Classification of the sentence according to the purpose of the utterance.

3. Classification of sentence according to the structure.

The sentence is a communicative unit, therefore, the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. According to the purpose of communication three types have been recognized in traditional grammar.

The declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative, or negative, and stands in correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention, feeling etc. The imperative sentence expresses inducement (стимул), either affirmative or negative. It urges the listener in the form of request or command to perform or not to perform a certain action. The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. Traditionally, the so-called exclamatory sentence is distinguished as one more communicative type of sentence. Exclamatory sentences are marked by specific intonation patterns (represented by an exclamation mark in written speech), word-order and special constructions with functional-auxiliary words, rendering the high emotional intensity of the utterance (Do come in!). But these regular grammatical features can not be sufficient for placing the exclamatory sentences on the same level as the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. In fact, each communicative type, declarative, imperative or interrogative, may be

represented in its exclamatory, emotionally coloured variant, as opposed to a non-exclamatory, unemotional variant, cf.: She is a nice little girl –What a nice little girl she is!; Open the door. –For God’s sake, open the door!; Why are you late? –Why on earth are you late?!

Exclamation can be considered as an accompanying feature of the three cardinal communicative types of sentences, which discriminates emotionally intense constructions from emotionally neutral ones at the lower level of analysis, but it does not constitute a separate communicative type. This doesn’t prevent some linguists (Ilyish) to distinguish the so-called “purely exclamatory sentences”, such as My God!; Goodness gracious!; etc. as they occupy isolated positions like separate utterances in speech and resemble regular sentences in written representation. There have been attempts to refute this traditional classification of communicative sentence types and to introduce a new one. For example, Charles Fries suggested classifying all the utterances not on the basis of their own semantics, but on the kind of responses which they elicit, or according to their external characteristics. He distinguished, first, utterances which are followed by oral responses (greetings, calls, questions, etc.); second, utterances followed by action responses (requests or commands); and third, utterances which elicit signals of attention to further conversation (statements); additionally, he distinguished a minor group of utterances, which are not directed to any interlocutor in particular and presuppose no response (“non-communicative utterances”, e.g., interjectional outcries).

Besides the three cardinal monofunctional communicative types of sentences, there is a number of constructional sentence models of intermediary, mixed communicative character. The transfer of certain communicative features from one communicative type of sentence to another can be observed in correlations of all three cardinal communicative types, i.e. in statement –question, statement inducement, and inducement –question correlations. So-called indirect questions have the form of a declarative sentence, but actually express a request for information, e.g.: I wonder who shut the window (cf. Who shut the window?). An answer is expected, as with a regular question, e.g.: I wonder who shut the window. –Tom did; the response supports the mixed communicative character of this sentence type. Sentences of this type, declarative in form and intermediary between statements and questions in meaning, render the connotation of insistence in asking for information. On the other hand, so-called rhetorical questions are interrogative in their structural form, but express a declarative functional meaning of high intensity, e.g.: How can you say a thing like this?

The sentence does not express a question; it is a reprimand. No answer is expected; the responses elicited by rhetorical questions correspond to responses elicited by declarative sentences (signals of attention, appraisals, expressions of feelings, etc.), e.g.: How can you say a thing like this?

-Oh, I’m terribly sorry, I did not mean it.

If a direct answer follows the rhetorical question, it emphasizes implications opposite to the content of the question; often it is the speaker himself or herself, who answers the rhetorical question, e.g.:

Who is to be blamed for it? No one, but myself. Intermediary between statements and inducements are formally declarative sentences with modal verbs and other lexical means of inducement, e.g.: You must shut the window; I want you to shut the window

(cf.: Shut the window, please!). The responses to these sentences are similar to those elicited by imperative sentences proper, i.e. actional responses or verbal agreement or disagreement to perform the actions, e.g.: I want you to shut the window.

-O.K., I will. On the other hand, inductive constructions can be used to express a declarative meaning of high expressiveness and intensity, in particular, in various proverbs and maxims, e.g.: Scratch my back, and I’ll scratch yours (One good turn deserves another). They presuppose no actional response.

Inductive constructions can also be used to express a request for information, inducing the listener to

verbal response of information rendering; they represent another type of indirect question, e.g.: Tell me who shut the window (cf.: Who shut the window?) The reverse intermediary construction, that of inducement in the form of a question, is very characteristic of English; it is employed to convey various shades of politeness, suggestion, softening of a command, etc., e.g.: Will you, please, shut the window? Could you shut the window, please?

The response elicited by such polite requests resembles the one to a proper inducement, e.g.: Will you, please, shut the window?

-O.K., I will.

Thus, the classification of the communicative sentence types, in addition to three cardinal communicative types, includes six intermediary subtypes of sentences of mixed communicative features; first, mixed sentence patterns of declaration (interrogative-declarative, imperative-declarative), second, mixed sentence patterns of interrogation (declarative-interrogative, imperative-interrogative), and, third, mixed sentence patterns of inducement (declarative-imperative, interrogative-imperative). Most of the intermediary communicative types of sentences perform distinct stylistic functions, and can be treated as cases of transposition of the communicative types of sentences presented in oppositions, paradigmatically. Another communicative description of utterances was undertaken at the end of the 1960s by J. R. Searle within the framework of the so-called "theory of speech acts" (теория речевых актов), on the basis of philosophical ideas formulated by J. L. Austin. Utterances are interpreted as actions or acts by which the speaker does something (the title of the book by J. L. Austin was *How to Do Things with Words*). On the basis of various communicative intentions of the speaker, J. R. Searle produced a detailed classification of so-called pragmatic (i.e. pertaining to the participants and the circumstances of the particular speech act) utterance types. The two basic utterance types are defined as performatives and constatives (representatives): performatives are treated as utterances by which the speaker explicitly performs a certain act, e.g.: I surrender; I pronounce you husband and wife; and constatives (representatives) as utterances by which the speaker states something, e.g.: I am a teacher; constatives are further subdivided into minor types, such as promissives (commissives), e.g.: I will help you; expressives, e.g.: How very sad!; menaces, e.g.: I'll kill you!, directives, e.g.: Get out!; requestives, e.g.: Bring the chalk, please; etc. From the purely linguistic point of view, various speech acts correlate structurally and functionally with the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. The mixed communicative types of sentences can be interpreted in the theory of speech acts as indirect speech acts, e.g.: 'There is no chalk left' may be interpreted as a representative or as a directive:

There is no chalk left (= bring some more); 'I'll be watching you!' under different communicative circumstances may be either a constative, a promissive or even a menace. Later the theory of speech acts developed into a separate branch of linguistics known as "pragmatic linguistics"

("pragmalinguistics", or "pragmatics"); this approach is used in syntactic studies as complementary to the classification of the grammatically distinguished communicative types of sentences.

The Structural classification of sentences

1. Classification of Sentences According to the Number of Predicative Lines

According to the number of predicative lines sentences are classified into simple, composite and semi-composite. The simple sentence is built up by one predicative line, while the composite sentence is built up by two or more predicative lines. As a poly predicative construction, the composite sentence reflects a few elementary situations as a unity. The dominating type of a simple sentence with full predication (containing both the subject and the predicate) is called a two-member sentence. One-member sentences contain either the subject or the predicate which can't be restored.

Elliptical sentences are characteristic for colloquial speech where some member of the sentence are omitted. A simple sentence containing some words besides the predication are extended. An unextended sentence has only the subject and the predicate.

2. Compound Sentence. The compound sentence is based on coordination. By coordination the clauses in the composite sentence are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank. The position of the coordinate

clause is always rigidly fixed and it serves as one of the differential features of coordination as such.

It is usual to single out the following types of semantic relations between coordinative clauses:

copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, and resultative.

Coordinating connectors are divided into proper and semi-functional, the latter revealing adverbial features.

3. Complex Sentence. The complex sentence is based on subordination. By subordination the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause making up with it a semantico-syntactic unity. The subordinate clause can be joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector, with some types of clauses, asyndetically. Subordinate clauses can be classified on different principles: either functional, or categorial. In accord with the functional principle, subordinate clauses are classified on the analogy of the positional parts of the simple sentence into subject, predicative, object, attributive, and adverbial. The categorial classification is aimed at revealing the inherent nominative properties of the subordinate clauses irrespective of their immediate position in the sentence. According to their integral features all subordinate clauses are divided into four generalized types: clauses of primary nominal positions, clauses of secondary nominal positions, clauses of adverbial positions, clauses of parenthetical positions.

4. Semi-Composite Sentence and Its Types. Semi-composite sentences are sentences which describe more than one event of objective reality but contain primary and secondary predications. E.g. We saw them crossing the street. (We saw—primary predication, them crossing—secondary.) Semi-composite sentences are divided into semi-complex and semi-compound according to the type of relations between the semi-clause and the main clause—subordinative and coordinative, respectively. The semi-complex sentence is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from minimum two base sentences, one matrix and one insert, the insert sentence is transformed into a construction which is embedded in one of the syntactic positions of the matrix sentence. In the resulting construction, the matrix sentence becomes its dominant (main) part and the insert sentence, its subordinate semi-clause. E.g. We were watching the moon. The moon was rising. —We were watching the moon rising. The semi-complex sentences fall into a number of subtypes. The sentences based on position-sharing fall into those of subject-sharing (The man stood. The man was silent —The man stood silent) and those of object-sharing (They painted the fence. The fence became green. —They painted the fence green). The sentences based on semi-predicative linear expansion fall into those of attributive complication, adverbial complication, and nominal-phrase complication. Each subtype is related to a definite complex sentence (pleni-complex sentence) as its explicit structural prototype. The semi-compound sentence is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of coordination. The structure of the semi-compound sentence is derivationally to be traced back to minimum two base sentences having an identical element belonging to one or both of their principal syntactic positions, i.e. either the subject, or the predicate, or both. E.g. Peter is tired

Литература:

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000

Практические занятия семестр VIII

Тема 1 Morphemes

- 1. Free and bound morphemes.**
- 2. Morphological classification of Words.**
- 3. Word-Families.**
- 4. Word-building.**

Литература:

1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008.
2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006.

Тема 2 Phraseology

- 1. The problem of defining phraseological units.**
- 2. Ways of forming phraseological units.**
- 3. Different classifications of phraseological units.**

Литература:

1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008.
2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006.

Тема 3 Homonymy in English.

- 1. Sources of homonymy.**
- 2. Classification of homonyms.**
- 3. Synonyms. Sources of synonymy.**
- 4. Types of synonyms**

Литература:

1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008.
2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006.

Тема 4 General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world.

Литература:

1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008.
2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006.

Тема 5 Lexicography

- 1. Types of dictionaries**
- 2. Content and arrangement of dictionaries**
- 3. Some of the main problems of Lexicography**

Литература:

1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008.
2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006.

Lecture 6 The subject matter of theoretical grammar

1. The object of the theoretical grammar.

2. Grammatical forms and grammatical meaning < grammatical category.

Литература:

Литература:

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000

Lecture 7 Parts of speech

1. Classification of parts of speech.

2. Notional and functional parts of speech.

3. Lexical, grammatical and syntactic characteristics of parts of speech

Литература:

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000

Lecture 8 The sentence. Principles of classification of sentences.

1. Sentence. General characteristics.

2. Classification of the sentence according to the purpose of the utterance.

3. Classification of sentence according to the structure.

Литература:

1. Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000

Образовательные технологии

Уровень предварительной подготовки студентов проверяется при «входном» тестировании, а результаты освоения раздела – в ходе тестирования на первом этапе рубежного контроля, проходящего в форме теста.

Практические занятия играют ключевую роль в реализации дидактических задач курс. Их формат соответствует деятельностной направленности процесса обучения .

Отдельное занятие организуется в форме презентаций информационных проектов обучающихся с элементами учебных дискуссий с целью обобщения пройденного материала и закрепления приобретенных навыков.

Широко используется методика парной работы, что позволяет добиться развития коммуникативных компетенций студентов и способствует наилучшему усвоению знаний и формированию умений и навыков.

Система текущего контроля успеваемости

| | Модуль 1 | Балл |
|-------------------------------|--|---------|
| Аудиторная работа студента | а) Изучения практического материала | 5 балл |
| | б) Решение задач, ответы на семинарских занятиях | 5 балл |
| Итого по АРС | | 10 балл |
| Внеаудиторная работа студента | Самостоятельная работа студента | 20 балл |
| Итого по СРС | | 20 балл |
| Рубежный контроль | Общая успеваемость аудиторной и внеаудиторной | 30 балл |

| | | |
|-------------------------------|---|-------------|
| | работе студента | |
| Итого по РК 1 | | 30 балл |
| Всего по К 1 (модуль 1) | | 60 балл |
| | Модуль 2 | Балл |
| Аудиторная работа студента | а) Изучения практического материала | 5 балл |
| | б) Решение задач, ответы на семинарских занятиях | 5 балл |
| Итого по APC | | 10 балл |
| Внеаудиторная работа студента | Самостоятельная работа студента | 20 балл |
| Итого по CPC | | 20 балл |
| Рубежный контроль | Общая успеваемость аудиторной и внеаудиторной работе студента | 30 балл |
| Итого по РК 2 | | 30 балл |
| Всего по К 2 (модуль 2) | | 60 балл |

Самостоятельная работа студентов и контроль за ее выполнением по курсу основы теории изучаемого языка

Целью самостоятельной работы студентов является овладение теоретическими и практическими знаниями, профессиональными умениями и навыками по профилю изучаемой дисциплины, опытом творческой, исследовательской деятельности. Самостоятельная работа студентов по основы теории изучаемого языка способствует развитию умения и навыков извлекать смысловую информацию из источников разного плана; способности анализировать, делать выводы, отбирать и творчески использовать изучаемый материал; умения излагать собственные суждения и оценки. Самостоятельная работа является обязательной для каждого студента, ее объем определяется учебным планом. Самостоятельная работа студентов включает в себя подготовку к теоретическим и практическим заданий. Студентам предоставляется обязательных объем теоретического и практического материала, который они могут дополнить и расширить самостоятельно, используя дополнительную литературу.

Темы самостоятельных работ

| № | Темы самостоятельных работ | Часы | Рекомендуемая литература | Форма проверки |
|-----------------------------|---|------|--|---------------------------|
| Семестр VII Модуль 1 | | | | |
| 1 | Three aspects of speech sounds | 2 | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 2 | Methods of investigation | 2 | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 3 | Monophthongs, Diphthongs, Diphthongoids | 4 | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., | Устной и письменной |

| | | | | |
|------------------------------|--|---|---|---------------------------|
| | | | Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | форме |
| 4 | Types of assimilation. Degrees of assimilation. | 4 | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устной и письменной форме |
| Семестр VII Модуль 2 | | | | |
| 5 | The American pronunciation standard | 4 | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 6 | Styles of pronunciation | 4 | 1. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004. 2. Аракин В. Д. Практический курс английского языка, М., 1998 г. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 7 | The connection of Lexicology with Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar and other branches of Linguistics. The main lexicological problems. | 4 | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 8 | The origin of English words. Native words: Indo-European stock, Germanic stock, English proper element. Borrowed words. Causes and ways of borrowing. 4. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation. | 4 | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устной и письменной форме |
| Семестр VIII Модуль 1 | | | | |
| 9 | Main types of word-building: affixation, conversion, composition. Minor types of word-building: reduplication, sound imitation, back-formation. | 4 | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устной и письменной форме |

| | | | | |
|-----------------|--|----|---|---------------------------|
| 10 | Semantic classification of phraseological units. Structural classification of phraseological units. Syntactical classification of phraseological units | 4 | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 11 | Euphemisms. Antonyms. Classification of antonyms. | 2 | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 12 | Standard English variants and dialects: Cockney, Scottish English, Irish English, Welsh English. | 4 | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устной и письменной форме |
| Модуль 2 | | | | |
| 13 | Types of dictionaries. Content and arrangement of dictionaries. Some of the main problems of Lexicography | 4 | 1. Антрушина, Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб.пособ. для вузов / Г.Б. Антрушина; О.В.Афанасьева, Н.Н.Морозова English Lexicology.- 8-е изд., стер.- М.: Дрофа, 2008. 2. Зыкова И.В. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. М., Академия, 2006. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 14 | Word forms. Morphology, syntax. | 4 | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 15 | Word formation. Different types of word combinations and principles of the classifications. | 4 | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. | Устной и письменной форме |
| 16 | Simple sentence. Complex sentence Compound sentence. | 2 | Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М., Высшая школа, 2000. | Устной и письменной форме |
| | Total: | 56 | | |

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Дополнительная литература

1. Иванова И, Беляева Т. Практикум по истории английского языка. Санкт-Петербург, «Лань», 2000.
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3. Соколова М.А. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. М., Владос, 2004.
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5. Кунин А.В. Фразеология английского языка. М., 1996..

Программное обеспечение

Использование ИКТ ресурсов, студентами и преподавателями для обеспечения аудиторной и самостоятельной работы в том числе: а) Интернет-доступ (Wi-Fi); б) различные электронные книги;

Базы данных, информационно-справочные и поисковые системы

1. <http://www.utexas>.
2. <http://www.canterburytales.org>
3. <http://quod.lib.umich.edu>.
4. <http://www.omacl.or>
5. <http://www.archive.org>.

Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины:

Проектор и ноутбук для проведения презентации

Учебно-методическая литература и материалы для проведения презентации, семинаров.

Методические указания для обучающихся по освоению дисциплины

Программа данного курса предусматривает использование активных и интерактивных форм проведения занятий. Ведущим элементом в системе обучения является лекция, цель которой состоит в рассмотрении теоретических вопросов дисциплины в логически выдержанной форме. Главная цель лекций по теории языка – сформировать у студентов системное представление об изучаемом предмете, обеспечить усвоение будущими специалистами принципов и закономерностей развития соответствующей научно-практической области, а также методов применения полученных знаний.

Лекции строятся с учетом различных дидактических принципов: логичности высказывания, последовательности изложения, постепенного нарастания трудности, опоры на предыдущие

знания. В ходе лекций предпринимается попытка стимулировать мыслительную деятельность студентов при помощи вопросов, заданий дедуктивного и индуктивного характера.

Главная цель семинарских занятий по теории английского языка – не только проверить и закрепить, но и углубить знания студентов по той или иной теме, сформировать систему навыков их использования, привить необходимые практические умения. Данная цель предполагает решение следующих задач: создавать на семинарских занятиях условия для формирования творческого мышления и научить студентов самостоятельно анализировать языковые явления. Большую роль в решении названных задач играет внедрение элементов проблемного обучения и в практику семинарских занятий.

Семинарские занятия предусматривают следующие формы:

- выполнение , упражнений, призванных закрепить и углубить знания студентов по различным темам;

- обсуждение заданий, целью которых является проверка знаний студентов по определенной теме;

Работа над материалом начинается с толкования предмета и задач ,теории английского языка и продолжается рассмотрением проблем и их разделов в такой последовательности: слово как языковой феномен, словообразование, заимствование, изменение значения слов, фразеология, современное состояние английского словарного состава, лексикография.

Настоятельно рекомендуется первичный просмотр конспекта делать в ближайшее после лекции время, до наложения другого учебного материала, что существенно облегчит понимание и запоминание законспектированного.

При подготовке к семинарским занятиям и самостоятельной работе целесообразно основные теоретические представления формировать на базе основной и дополнительной литературы.

Требования дисциплины.

При чтении курса необходимо:

- уметь пользоваться справочными изданиями; конспектировать и свободно вести беседу по любой из пройденных тем;
- своевременное посещение лекционных и практических занятий, быть активными на занятиях;
- всегда быть готовыми к занятиям;
- студент не допускается к занятиям, если опаздывает, пользуется мобильным телефоном и не подготовлен к занятиям;
- Своевременно сдать самостоятельную работу (устном и письменном виде);

Глоссарий

1. Definition – определение, дефиниция
2. Word meaning – значение слов
3. direct meaning of the word – прямое значение слова
4. denotative meaning of the word – денотативное значение слова,
5. connotative meaning of the word – коннотативное значение слова
6. contextual meaning of the word – контекстное значение
7. morpheme – морфема
8. morphemic structure of the word – морфемная структура слова
9. semasiology - семасиология
10. semantic component – семантический компонент
11. special lexicology – частная лексикология
12. general lexicology – общая лексикология

13. contrastive lexicology – сопоставительная лексикология
14. comparative lexicology – сравнительная лексикология
15. lexical valency – лексическая валентность
16. paradigm - парадигма
17. paradigmatic relation – парадигматическая связь
18. syntagmatic relation – синтагматическая связь
19. affix – аффикс
20. suffix – суффикс
21. prefix – префикс
22. infix- инфикс
23. derivational affixes – словообразующий аффикс
24. functional affixes – функциональный аффикс
25. root morpheme – корневая морфема
26. stem – основа
27. native words – исконно английские слова
28. borrowed words – заимствованные слова
29. word formation – словообразование
30. word composition – словосложение
31. conversion – конверсия
32. back formation – обратный порядок слов
33. litotes - литота
34. euphemism - эвфемизм
35. irony - ирония
36. hyperbole - гипербола
37. metaphor - метафора
38. metonymy – метонимия
39. synecdoche - синекдоха
40. homonym – омоним
41. synonym - синоним
42. antonym - антоним
43. polysemantic – многозначный
44. connotation – коннотация
45. lexico-grammatical variant – лексико-грамматический вариант
46. idiom - идиома
47. cliché - клише
48. familiar quotations – крылатые выражения
49. proverbs – пословицы
50. the determinant – определяемое
51. the determinatum- определяющий
52. synonymic dominant – синонимическая доминанта
53. learned words – книжные слова
54. informal vocabulary – неформальная лексика
55. functional style – функциональный стиль
56. poetic style – поэтический стиль
57. Indo-European origin – Индо-европейское происхождение
58. Common Germanic – общее германское происхождение
59. compound word – сложные слова
60. set expressions – устойчивые выражения,
61. phraseological units – фразеологические единицы
62. phraseological fusions – фразеологические сращения
63. phraseological combinations – фразеологические сочетания
64. semantic change of words – семантическое изменение значения слова

65. minor types of word formation – непродуктивные способы словообразования
66. shortening – сокращение
67. abbreviation – аббревиатура
68. semantic triangle – семантический треугольник
69. free forms – свободные формы
70. bound forms
71. sound imitation – звукоподражание
72. Generalization of word meaning – расширение значения слова
73. specialization of word meaning – сужение значения слова
74. lexical unit – лексическая единица
75. affixation - аффиксация
76. functional change – функциональный переход
77. taboo – табу
78. non-productive suffixs – непродуктивные суффиксы
79. productive suffixes – продуктивные суффиксы
80. inversion – инверсия
81. lexicography – лексикография
82. synchronic – синхронический
83. diachronic – диахронический
84. inflection – флексия
85. paronyms – паронимы
86. contextual synonyms – контекстные синонимы
87. stylistic synonyms – стилистические синонимы
88. ideographical synonyms – идиографические синонимы
89. Linguistic – лингвистический
90. Extralinguistic – экстралингвистический
91. archaic words - архаизмы
92. dialects - диалекты
93. word stock – словарный состав
94. stylistically colored words – стилистически окрашенные слова
95. irony - ирония
96. simile – сравнение
97. slang - слэнг
98. explanatory dictionary – толковый словарь
99. dictionaries of word-frequency – словарь частотность

**МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ КЫРГЫЗСКОЙ
РЕСПУБЛИКИ**

**ЖАЛАЛ-АБАДСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ ФИЛОЛОГИИ**

Кафедра: Межкультурной коммуникации и лингвистики

Фонд оценочных средств

Дисциплина: Основы теории изучаемого языка

Профиль: Теория и практика межкультурной коммуникации

Бакалавр (Магистр)

Утверждено
На заседании кафедры
«_____» _____20____г
Протокол №
Заведующий кафедры

ЖАЛАЛ-АБАД 20____г

1. Паспорт фонда оценочных средств

Специальность: Лингвист

Дисциплина: Основы теории изучаемого языка

Профиль: Теория и практика межкультурной коммуникации

Форма промежуточной аттестации: экзамен, тест

2. Перечень формируемых компетенций и этапы их формирования Компетенции, закреплённые за дисциплиной семестр VII - VIII

| Коды компетенции | Результаты освоения ООП Содержание компетенций | Перечень планируемых результатов обучения по дисциплине |
|--|---|--|
| <p style="text-align: center;">ИК – 1 ПК -1,21, 22</p> | <p>- владеть культурой мышления, способностью к анализу, обобщению информации, постановке целей и выбору путей их достижения, владеет культурой устной и письменной речи;</p> <p>- владеет системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей, функционирование изучаемого иностранного языка:</p> <p>-работать с электронными словарями и другими электронными ресурсами для решения задач:</p> <p>- владеет теоретическими основами обучения иностранным языкам, обладает способностями межкультурной коммуникации:</p> | <p>Обучающийся должен знать:</p> <p>- основные направления лингвистических исследований XIX-XX веков;</p> <p>- крупнейших ученых, занимавшихся изучением языковых явлений в синхронии и диахронии, и их вклад в науку;</p> <p>- морфологические и синтаксические особенности романских языков (на примере латыни);</p> <p>- грамматические категории различных частей речи в индоевропейских языках (на примере латыни и греческого языка). Основные вехи развития единиц всех уровней языка;</p> <p>- систему грамматики, лексики, фонетическую систему английского языка, включая знания об историческом развитии уровней языка;</p> <p>- основы теоретической грамматики (как основы научной грамматики), лексикологии (учение о слове, его границах и значении), фонетики (учение о фонеме, классификацию фонем), стилистики (теорию функциональных стилей, основные подходы к исследованию текста, основы поэтики), а также истории (основные этапы истории развития языка, основы этимологического анализа, законы развития языковых единиц) английского языка, ориентироваться в классификациях, правилах и языковых законах;</p> <p>- основные методы лингвистического анализа.</p> |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| | | <p>Обучающийся должен владеть:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - наследием отечественной и зарубежной научной мысли, направленной на решение общегуманитарных задач; - культурой мышления, способностью к анализу, обобщению информации, постановке целей и выбору путей их достижения, владеть культурой устной и письменной речи; - системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических; - словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка; - основами современной информационной и библиографической культуры; - стандартными методиками поиска, анализа и обработки материала исследования; - способностью оценить качество исследования в данной предметной области, соотнести новую информацию с уже имеющейся, логично и последовательно представить результаты собственного исследования: <p>Обучающийся должен уметь:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - применять методы и средства познания, обучения и самоконтроля для своего интеллектуального развития, повышения культурного уровня, профессиональной компетенции; - работать с основными информационно-поисковыми системами; - работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией; - работать с традиционными носителями информации, учебниками, словарями; - работать с информацией в глобальных компьютерных сетях; - работать с электронными словарями и другими электронными ресурсами для решения лингвистических задач; - использовать понятийный аппарат |
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| | | <p>философии, теоретической и прикладной лингвистики для решения профессиональных задач;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - структурировать и интегрировать знания из различных областей профессиональной деятельности и обладает способностью их творческого использования и развития в ходе решения профессиональных задач; - видеть междисциплинарные связи изучаемых дисциплин и понимает их значение для будущей профессиональной деятельности; - использовать полученные знания о единицах языка, их классификациях и методах анализа на практике при ведении научной деятельности; - анализировать конкретные примеры и описывать свои действия (производить грамматический, синтаксический, морфологический, контекстуальный и этимологический анализ языковых единиц). |
|--|--|---|

3. Виды и формы оценочных средств в период текущего контроля семестр VII

| № п.п | Устный опрос | | Письменный опрос | | Итого количество баллов |
|-------|--|--|--|--|-------------------------|
| | Вопросы, ответы | | Практическая работа | Тестирование | |
| | Модуль 1. 1. Phonetic as a branch of linguistics. 2. The phoneme theory. 3. Classification of consonants and vowels. 4. Assimilation, accommodation. | | Модуль 1. 1. Phonetic as a branch of linguistics. 2. The phoneme theory. 3. Classification of consonants and vowels. 4. Assimilation, accommodation. | | |
| | 30 балл | | | 30 балл (45 вопросов) на каждый ответ 0.66 балл | 30 балл |
| | Модуль 2. 1. Intonational structure of English sentence. 2. Pronunciation standard of British English. 3. The object of Lexicology. 4. Old English. Historical background. | | Модуль 2. 1. Intonational structure of English sentence. 2. Pronunciation standard of British English. 3. The object of Lexicology. 4. Old English. Historical background. | | |
| | 30 балл | | | 30 балл (45 | 30 балл |

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | вопросов) на каждый ответ 0.66 балл | |
|--|--|--|--|--|

3.1 Виды и формы оценочных средств в период текущего контроля семестр VIII

| № п.п | Устный опрос | | Письменный опрос | | Итого количество баллов |
|--|--------------------|--|------------------------|--|----------------------------|
| | Вопросы, ответы | | Практическая работа | Тестирование | |
| Модуль 1. 1. Morphemes. 2. Phraseology. 3. Homonymy in English. 4. General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world. | | Модуль 1. 1. Morphemes. 2. Phraseology. 3. Homonymy in English. 4. General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world. | | | |
| 30 балл | | | | 30 балл (45 вопросов) на каждый ответ 0.66 балл | 30 балл |
| Модуль 2. 1. Lexicography. 2. The subject matter of theoretical grammar. 3. Parts of speech. 4. The sentence. Principles of classification of sentences. | | Модуль 2. 1. Lexicography. 2. The subject matter of theoretical grammar. 3. Parts of speech. 4. The sentence. Principles of classification of sentences. | | | |
| 30 балл | | | | 30 балл (45 вопросов) на каждый ответ 0.66 балл | 30 балл |

4. Виды и формы оценочных средств самостоятельной работы семестр VII

| № п.п | Устный опрос | | Письменный опрос | | Итого количество баллов |
|---|-----------------|---|------------------|--|----------------------------|
| | Вопросы, ответы | | Тестирования | | |
| Модуль 1 1. Three aspects of speech sounds 2. Methods of investigation 3. Monophthongs, Diphthongs, Diphthongoids 4. Types of assimilation. Degrees of assimilation. | | Модуль 1 1. Three aspects of speech sounds 2. Methods of investigation 3. Monophthongs, Diphthongs, Diphthongoids 4. Types of assimilation. Degrees of assimilation. | | | |
| 20 балл | | | | 20 балл (30 вопросов) на каждый ответ 0,66 балл | 20 балл |
| Модуль 2 1. The American pronunciation standard 2. Styles of pronunciation 3. The connection of Lexicology with | | Модуль 2 1. The American pronunciation standard 2. Styles of pronunciation | | | |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar and other branches of Linguistics. 4. The origin of English words. Native words: Indo-European stock, Germanic stock, English proper element. Borrowed words. Causes and ways of borrowing. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation. | 3. The connection of Lexicology with Phonetics, Stylistics, Grammar and other branches of Linguistics. 4. The origin of English words. Native words: Indo-European stock, Germanic stock, English proper element. Borrowed words. Causes and ways of borrowing. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation. | |
| 20 балл | | 20 балл (30 вопросов) на каждый ответ 0,66 балл |
| | | 20 балл |

4.1 Виды и формы оценочных средств самостоятельной работы семестр VIII

| № п.п | Устный опрос | Письменный опрос | Итого количество баллов |
|---|---|--|-------------------------|
| | Вопросы, ответы | Тестирования | |
| Модуль 1 1. Main types of word-building: affixation, conversion, composition. Minor types of word-building: reduplication, sound imitation, back-formation. 2. Semantic classification of phraseological units. Structural classification of phraseological units. Syntactical classification of phraseological units. 3. Euphemisms. Antonyms. Classification of antonyms. 4. Standard English variants and dialects: Cockney, Scottish English, Irish English, Welsh English. | Модуль 1 1. Main types of word-building: affixation, conversion, composition. Minor types of word-building: reduplication, sound imitation, back-formation. 2. Semantic classification of phraseological units. Structural classification of phraseological units. Syntactical classification of phraseological units. 3. Euphemisms. Antonyms. Classification of antonyms. 4. Standard English variants and dialects: Cockney, Scottish English, Irish English, Welsh English. | | |
| 20 балл | | 20 балл (30 вопросов) на каждый ответ 0,66 балл | 20 балл |
| Модуль 2 1. Types of dictionaries. Content and arrangement of dictionaries. Some of the main problems of Lexicography 2. Word forms. Morphology, syntax. | Модуль 2 1. Types of dictionaries. Content and arrangement of dictionaries. Some of the main problems of Lexicography | | |

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| 3. Word formation. Different types of word combinations and principles of the classifications. 4. Simple sentence. Complex sentence Compound sentence. | 2. Word forms. Morphology, syntax. 3. Word formation. Different types of word combinations and principles of the classifications. 4. Simple sentence. Complex sentence Compound sentence. | |
| 20 балл | | 20 балл (30 вопросов) на каждый ответ 0,66 балл |

5. Структура оценочных средств

| № п/п | Контролируемые разделы дисциплины (результаты по разделам) | Код контролируемой компетенции (или её части) | Наименование оценочного средства |
|------------------------------|---|---|----------------------------------|
| Модуль 1 Семестр VII | | | |
| 1 | Phonetic as a branch of linguistics. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 2 | The phoneme theory. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21, 22 | Устно и письменно |
| 3 | Classification of consonants and vowels. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 4 | Assimilation, accommodation. Three aspects of speech sounds. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| Модуль 2 Семестр VII | | | |
| 5 | Intonational structure of English sentence. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 6 | Pronunciation standard of British English. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 7 | The object of Lexicology. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 8 | Old English. Historical background. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| Модуль 1 Семестр VIII | | | |
| 1 | Morphemes. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 2 | Phraseology. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 3 | Homonymy in English. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 4 | General characteristics of the English language in different parts of the English-speaking world. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| Модуль 2 Семестр VIII | | | |
| 5 | Lexicography. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |

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|---|--|-----------------------|-------------------|
| 6 | The subject matter of theoretical grammar. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 7 | Parts of speech. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |
| 8 | The sentence. Principles of classification of sentences. | ИК – 1 ПК -1,21,22 | Устно и письменно |

Критерии оценки:

Отметка «отлично» ставится студенту, у которого имеются необходимые знания о правилах английского языка и культуре устной и письменной речи, о функциональном размежевании английского языка, о языковых средствах, характерных для каждого стиля, об орфоэпических, лексических, морфологических, синтаксических нормах современного языка; студент демонстрирует понимание роли изучаемого курса; теоретические положения подтверждает примерами; умело применяет полученные знания при анализе текста разной функционально-семантической принадлежности. Материал должен излагаться последовательно, с соблюдением норм литературного языка.

Отметка «хорошо» ставится студенту, который полно отвечает на вопросы экзаменационного билета, но допускает некоторые неточности в подаче теоретического или фактического материала, не может привести примеры, допускает единичные ошибки при анализе текста или орфоэпические ошибки.

Отметка «удовлетворительно» ставится тогда, когда студент неполно отвечает на вопросы, допускает ошибки в определении понятий, не приводит примеры, излагает материал непоследовательно, не умеет анализировать текст, если в речи студента отмечаются многочисленные отступления от литературной нормы.

Отметка «неудовлетворительно» ставится в том случае, если студент обнаруживает незнание вопросов билета, не обладает необходимыми сведениями для правильной интерпретации рассматриваемых явлений, не отвечает на вопросы преподавателя, если речь студента изобилует ошибками.

Экзамен по курсу проводится в экзаменационную сессию. Экзамен преследует цель оценить уровень полученных студентами теоретических знаний, навыков корректного применения грамматического анализа, навыков самостоятельной работы с конкретным лингвистическим материалом. Экзамен проводится по тестированию.

Тест Семестр VII

1 The word phonetic is derived from.....

- a) the Italian b) French c) the Greek d) Turkish

2. Phonetics as an independent science began to develop in western Europe and in Russia only....

- a) in the 15th century b) in the 17th century c) in the 18th century d) in the 19th century

3. Special phonetics may be subdivided into....

- a) descriptive and historical phonetics b) descriptive and general phonetics
c) general and historical phonetics d) historical and special phonetics

4. What is phonology?

- a) is a convenient term to indicate that section of phonetics in which the social functions of speech sounds are discussed.
b) is not a convenient term to indicate that section of phonetics in which the social functions of speech sounds are discussed.
c)) is a convenient term to indicate that section of grammar in which the social functions of part of speech is discussed.
d) is a convenient term to indicate that section of lexicology in which the social functions of lexicography is discussed.

5. Speech sounds are of a complex nature and have three different aspects:

- a) acoustic, biological, grammatical b) acoustic, biological, linguistic c) biological, lexical, grammatical d) acoustic, biological, lexical

6. The method of investigation used in phonetic vary, but there are three principal methods:

- a) the direct observation, the linguistic, the lexical
b) the direct observation, the linguistic, the biological
c) the direct observation, the linguistic, the experimental
d) the direct observation, the linguistic, the grammatical

7. Active organs of speech are.....

- a) tongue, lips, soft palate b) alveolar, lips, tongue c) teeth, hard palate d) soft palate, tongue, teeth

8. There are two types of articulatory obstruction:

- a) complete and occlusive b) an incomplete and sonorant c) complete and an incomplete
d) noise and complete

9. _____ obstruction is formed when two organs of speech come in contact with each other and the air passage through the mouth is blocked.

- a) a complete b) an incomplete c) affricates d) blocked

10. _____ obstruction is formed when an articulating organ is held so close.

- a) a complete b) an incomplete c) affricates d) blocked

11. According to the type of obstruction English consonants are divided into.....

- a) occlusive and sonorants b) constrictive and noise c) affricates and noise
d) occlusive and constrictive

12. _____ consonants are produced with a complete obstruction formed by the articulating organs.

a) occlusive b) constrictive c) labial d) dental

13. According to the manner of production of noise occlusive noise consonants may be:

- a) plosive consonants an apical b) affricates and cacuminal
- c) plosive consonants and affricates d) mediolingual

14. According to the active organ of speech English consonants are divided into:

- a) labial, lingual and glottal b) affricates and cacuminal
- c) labial, glottal and apical d) plosive and constrictive

15. Labial consonants may be:

- a) bilabial and teeth b) labio-dental and lingual c) bilabial and labio-dental
- d) plosive and cacuminal

16. Why do we call consonants bilabial?

- a) consonants are articulated by blade of the tongue
- b) consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue
- c) consonants are articulated with the front of the tongue
- d) consonants are articulated by the two lips

17. Why do we call consonants forelingual?

- a) consonants are articulated by blade of the tongue
- b) consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue
- c) consonants are articulated with the front of the tongue
- d) consonants are articulated by the two lips

18. Why do we call consonants apical?

- a) consonants are articulated by blade of the tongue
- b) consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth
- c) consonants are articulated with the front of the tongue
- d) consonants are articulated by the two lips

19. _____ consonants are articulated with the front of the tongue against the hard palate.

- a) mediolingual b) cacuminal c) apical d) forelingual

20. _____ consonants are articulated against the upper teeth either with the tip.

- a) dental b) alveolar c) palato – alveolar d) post-alveolar

21. _____ consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge.

- a) dental b) alveolar c) palato – alveolar d) post-alveolar

22. _____ consonants are articulated by the tip and blade of the tongue against the alveolar ridge.

- a) dental b) alveolar c) palato – alveolar d) post-alveolar

23. _____ consonants are articulated by the tip of the tongue against the back part of the alveolar ridge.

- a) dental
- b) alveolar
- c) palato – alveolar
- d) post-alveolar

24. According to the work of the vocal cords consonants are divided into:

- a) voiced and voiceless
- b) voiced and back
- c) voiceless and front
- d) voiced and front

25 According to the position of the soft palate consonants are divided into:

- a) voiced and voiceless
- b) voiced and back
- c) oral and nasal
- d) voiced and front

26. Why do we call consonants oral?

- a) consonants are produced when the soft palate is raised and the air escapes through the mouth
- b) consonants are produced with the soft palate lowered while the air-passage through the moth is blocked
- c) consonants are pronounced with muscular tension
- d) consonants are pronounced with two obstructions

27. Why do we call consonants nasal?

- a) consonants are produced when the soft palate is raised and the air escapes through the mouth
- b) consonants are produced with the soft palate lowered while the air-passage through the moth is blocked
- c) consonants are pronounced with muscular tension
- d) consonants are pronounced with two obstructions

28. The English vowels are divided into two large groups:

- a) central
- b) back-advanced
- c) monophthongs and diphthongs
- d) diphthongoids

29. _____ vowels are produced when the lips are more or less rounded and slightly protruded.

- a) rounded
- b) unrounded
- c) checked
- d) lax

30. According to the length vowels may be:

- a) long and tense
- b) short and lax
- c) long and short
- d) checked and rounded

31. According to the degree of tenseness vowels are divided into:

- a) long and tense
- b) tense and lax
- c) long and short
- d) checked and rounded

32. How are the fore lingual consonants classified according to the work of the tip of the tongue?

- a) apical, dorsal, cacuminal
- b) cacuminal, dental
- c) interdental, apical, dorsal
- d) dorsal, interdental

33. Why do we call sonorants or sonorous consonants?

- a) an incomplete obstruction is formed
- b) a complete obstruction is formed
- c) sounds pronounced with tone prevailing over noise
- d) they are voiced and voiceless

34. What is assimilation?
 a) is a weakening of consonants
 b) is a length of consonants
 c) is a comparison with the Russian
 d) is a process of alteration of speech sounds
35. Direction of assimilation is divided into.....
 a) progressive, complete b) progressive, regressive, reciprocal c) regressive, incomplete d) complete and incomplete
36. _____ assimilation means complex mutual influence of the adjacent sounds.
 a) reciprocal or complete b) complete or double c) reciprocal or double d) incomplete or double
37. In _____ assimilation the assimilated consonant is influenced by the preceding consonant
 a) progressive b) regressive c) complete d) incomplete
38. In _____ assimilation the preceding consonant is influenced by the one following it.
 a) progressive b) regressive c) complete d) incomplete
39. In the pronunciation of _____ the organs of speech glide from one vowel position to another within one syllable.
 a) diphthongs b) monophthongs c) tongue position d) diphthongoids
40. _____ are vowels the articulation of which is almost unchanging.
 a) diphthongs b) affricates c) constrictive d) monophthongs
41. When the lips are neutral or spread the vowels are termed _____.
 a) rounded b) unrounded c) front d) central
42. _____, or the pitch component of intonation, is the variations in the pitch of the voice which take place when voiced sounds, especially vowels and sonorants, are pronounced in connected speech.
 a) speech melody b) stress in speech c) the voice quality d) the tempo of speech
43. _____ is the greater prominence which is given to one or more words in a sentence as compared with the other words of the same sentences.
 a) speech melody b) stress in speech c) the voice quality d) the tempo of speech
44. _____ is a special coloring of the voice in pronouncing sentences which is superimposed on speech melody and shows the speaker's emotions.
 a) speech melody b) stress in speech c) the voice quality d) the tempo of speech
45. _____ is the speed with which sentences or their parts are pronounced.
 a) speech melody b) stress in speech c) the voice quality d) the tempo of speech

46. What is general lexicology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

47. What is special lexicology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

48. What is Etymology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

49. What is Semasiology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

50. What is Onomasiology?

- a) is the study of the principles of the significant of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

51. _____ deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

- a) historical lexicology
- b) descriptive lexicology
- c) semasiology
- d) etymology

52. _____ discuss the origin of various words, their change and development, meaning and usage.

- a) historical lexicology
- b) descriptive lexicology
- c) semasiology
- d) etymology

53. _____ consonants are articulated with the tip or the blade of the tongue.

- a) occlusive
- b) back lingual
- c) fore lingual
- d) fricative

54. Why do we call consonants constrictive?

- a) an incomplete obstruction is formed
- b) complete obstruction is formed
- c) voiced before consonants
- d) consonants are pronounced with strong stress

55. What is a vowel?

- a) is a sound produced with an obstruction to the air stream
- b) is a sound produced with a tongue
- c) is a sound produced with the teeth
- d) is a voiced sound produced in the mouth with no obstruction to the air stream

56. What is a consonants?

- a) is a sound produced with an obstruction to the air stream
- b) is a sound produced with a tongue
- c) is a sound produced with the teeth
- d) is a voiced sound produced in the mouth with no obstruction to the air stream

57. _____ vowels are those which are produced when one of the parts of the tongue comes close to the roof of the mouth and the air passage is narrowed.

- a) mid-open vowels
- b) open vowels
- c) close vowels
- d) high vowels

58. _____ vowels are those which are produced when the raised part of the tongue is very low in the mouth and the air –passage is very wide.

- a) mid-open vowels
- b) open vowels
- c) close vowels
- d) high vowels

59. _____ vowels are those which are produced when the raised part of the tongue is half-way between its high and low positions.

- a) mid-open vowels
- b) open vowels
- c) close vowels
- d) high vowels

60. According to the lip position vowels may be:

- a) rounded and oral
- b) unrounded and lax
- c) rounded and unrounded
- d) tense and lax

Тест Семестр VIII

1. The term “morpheme” is derived from

- a) Greek
- b) Russian
- c) Latin
- d) Italian

2. All the representations of the given morpheme are called.....

- a) root-morphemes
- b) allomorphs
- c) non-root-morphemes
- d) allophones

3. What are the root-morphemes (or radicals)?

- a) All the representations of the given morpheme
- b) include inflectional morphemes (or inflections) and affixational morphemes (or affixes)
- c) are the lexical nucleus of words
- d) lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes

4. What are the non-root-morphemes?

- a) all the representations of the given morpheme
- b) include inflectional morphemes (or inflections) and affixational morphemes (or affixes)
- c) are the lexical nucleus of words
- d) lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes

5. What is a prefix?

- a) is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class
- b) is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form
- c) is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its lexical meaning
- d) occurs only as a constituent part of a word

6. What is a suffix?

- a) a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class
- b) is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form
- c) is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its lexical meaning.
- d) occurs only as a constituent part of a word

7. What is a free morphemes?

- a) is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class
- b) is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form
- c) is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its lexical meaning.
- d) occurs only as a constituent part of a word

8. What is a bound morphemes?

- a) is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class
- b) is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form
- c) is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its lexical meaning.
- d) occurs only as a constituent part of a word

9. What is a semi-bound morphemes?

- a) are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme
- b) is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class
- c) is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form
- d) is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its lexical meaning.

10. _____ which consist of only one, semantically non-motivated constituent

- a) derived stems
- b) root stems
- c) compound stems
- d) morphemes

11. _____ which are semantically or structurally motivated formed by means of different word-building processes such as affixation, conversion, abbreviation, types of shortenings.

- a) derived stems
- b) root stems
- c) compound stems
- d) morphemes

12. _____ are always binary formed by combining two free.

- a) derived stems
- b) root stems
- c) compound stems
- d) morphemes

13. _____ is a regular meaningful arrangement, a structure that imposes rigid rules on the order and the nature of the derivational bases and affixes that may be brought together.

- a) a derivational patterns b) simplification c) word – formation d) affixation

14. _____ is defined as a morphological process by which a word of a complex morphological structure loses the meaning of its separate morphological parts and becomes a mere symbol of the notion given.

- a) a derivational patterns b) simplification c) word – formation d) affixation

15. _____ is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.

- a) a derivational patterns b) simplification c) word – formation d) affixation

16. _____ is the formation of a new word with the help of affixes.

- a) a derivational patterns b) simplification c) word – formation d) affixation

17. Semantically suffixes fall into:

- a) monosemantic, polysemantic b) monosemantic, non- semantic c) semantic, polysemantic d) monosemantic, semantic

18. According to the class of words they preferably form prefixes are divided into:

- a) verb-forming, noun-forming, adjective-forming, adverb-forming
b) verb-forming, polysemantic, adjective-forming, adverb-forming
c) verb-forming, noun-forming, monosemantic, adverb-forming
d) verb-forming, noun-forming, adjective-forming, non - semantic

19. Verb-forming prefixes are:

- a) en-/em (embed, enclose); be-(befriend); de- (dethrone);
b) non- (non-smoker); sub- (subcommittee); ex- (ex-husband);
c) un- (unfair); il- (illiterate); ir-(irregular).
d) un- (unfortunately); up- (uphill).

20. Noun-forming prefixes are:

- a) en-/em (embed, enclose); be-(befriend); de- (dethrone);
b) non- (non-smoker); sub- (subcommittee); ex- (ex-husband);
c) un- (unfair); il- (illiterate); ir-(irregular).
d) un- (unfortunately); up- (uphill).

21. Adjective-forming prefixes are:

- a) en-/em (embed, enclose); be-(befriend); de- (dethrone);
b) non- (non-smoker); sub- (subcommittee); ex- (ex-husband);
c) un- (unfair); il- (illiterate); ir-(irregular).
d) un- (unfortunately); up- (uphill).

22. Adverb-forming prefixes are:

- a) en-/em (embed, enclose); be-(befriend); de- (dethrone);
- b) non- (non-smoker); sub- (subcommittee); ex- (ex-husband);
- c) un- (unfair); il- (illiterate); ir-(irregular).
- d) un- (unfortunately); up- (uphill).

23. Antonym is.....

- a) is a type of paradigmatic relations based on polarity of meaning
- b) is a polite inoffensive expression words or phrases replaced for one considered offensive or hurtful that contrarily might be considered bitter, blunt or unpleasant to hear
- c) is a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions, which like words name various objects and phenomena
- d) are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme.

24. Compound nouns are:

- a) sunbeam, maidservant; b) heart-free, far-reaching;
- c) somebody, nothing; d) nowhere, inside;

25. Compound adjectives are:

- 1) sunbeam, maidservant; 2) heart-free, far-reaching;
- 3) somebody, nothing; 4) nowhere, inside;

26. Compound pronouns are:

- 1) sunbeam, maidservant; 2) heart-free, far-reaching;
- 3) somebody, nothing; 4) nowhere, inside;

27. Compound adverbs are:

- 1) sunbeam, maidservant; 2) heart-free, far-reaching;
- 3) somebody, nothing; 4) nowhere, inside;

28. _____ is the formation of a word by cutting off a part of the word.

- a) shortening b) blending c) graphical abbreviation d) back-formation

29. _____ is the formation of a new word by combining parts of two words.

- a) shortening b) blending c) graphical abbreviation d) back-formation

30. _____ is the formation of a word from the initial letters of a word combination.

- a) shortening b) blending c) graphical abbreviation d) back-formation

31. _____ is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words.

- a) shortening b) blending c) graphical abbreviation d) back-formation

32. _____ is the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of its root.

- a) sound-interchange b) sound imitation c) distinctive stress d) blending

33. _____ is the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with it.

- a) sound-interchange b) sound imitation c) distinctive stress d) blending

34. _____ is the formation of a word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word.

- a) sound-interchange b) sound imitation c) distinctive stress d) blending

35 What is a phraseology?

a) is a regular meaningful arrangement, a structure that imposes rigid rules on the order and the nature of the derivational bases and affixes that may be brought together.

b) is the formation of a new word with the help of affixes

c) is a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions, which like words name various objects and phenomena

d) are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme

36. Phraseological fusions are:

a) based on lexical stability of phraseological units

b) units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts

c) expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components

d) not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically

37. Phraseological unities are:

a) based on lexical stability of phraseological units

b) units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts

c) expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components

d) not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically

38. Phraseological collocations are:

a) based on lexical stability of phraseological units

b) units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts

c) expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components

d) not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically

39. Practical lexicography is:

a) the art or craft of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries

b) the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language

c) focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of general dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that provide a description of the language in general use

d) a scholarly discipline in its own right and not a sub-branch of applied linguistics, as the chief object of study in lexicography is the dictionary

40. Theoretical lexicography is:

- a) the art or craft of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries
- b) the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language
- c) focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of general dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that provide a description of the language in general use
- d) a scholarly discipline in its own right and not a sub-branch of applied linguistics, as the chief object of study in lexicography is the dictionary

41. General lexicography.

- a) the art or craft of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries.
- b) the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language
- c) focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of general dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that provide a description of the language in general use
- d) a scholarly discipline in its own right and not a sub-branch of applied linguistics, as the chief object of study in lexicography is the dictionary

42. When was published the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (second edition)?

- a) 1967 b) 1987 c) 1977 d) 1997

43. When was published the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (fifth edition)?

- a) 1967 b) 1987 c) 2006 d) 2009

44. In _____ the words and the information about them are given in the same language.

- a) monolingual dictionaries
- b) bilingual dictionaries
- c) diachronic (historical) dictionaries
- d) synchronic (descriptive) dictionaries

45. _____ are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language.

- a) monolingual dictionaries
- b) bilingual dictionaries
- c) diachronic (historical) dictionaries
- d) synchronic (descriptive) dictionaries

46. _____ reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered.

- a) monolingual dictionaries
- b) bilingual dictionaries
- c) diachronic (historical) dictionaries
- d) synchronic (descriptive) dictionaries

47. _____ are concerned with the present-day meaning and usage of words.

- a) monolingual dictionaries
- b) bilingual dictionaries
- c) diachronic (historical) dictionaries
- d) synchronic (descriptive) dictionaries

48. The aim of practical grammar is:

- a) the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences.
- b) to offer explanation for these rules

- c) called referential meaning of a unit
- d) semantics that studies the referential meaning of units

49. The aim of theoretical grammar is:

- a) the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences
- b) to offer explanation for these rules
- c) called referential meaning of a unit
- d) semantics that studies the referential meaning of units

50. The morphological level has two level units:

- a) the morpheme and word
- b) syntactical level
- c) the word-group
- d) the sentence

51. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called:

- a) referential
- b) semantics
- c) isomorphism
- d) word-group

52. Language is:

- a) a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations
- b) closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking and is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals.
- c) opposed to the speech unit
- d) can sound differently in speech

53. Speech is:

- a) a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations
- b) closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking and is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals
- c) opposed to the speech unit
- d) can sound differently in speech

54. According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types:

- a) semantic, formal, grammatical
- b) semantic, lexical, functional
- c) word, formal, functional
- d) semantic, formal, functional

55. Nouns are:

- a) names of a person, place, thing, or concept
- b) the place of nouns in sentences
- c) express action
- d) describe nouns or pronouns

56. What can take pronouns?

- a) names of a person, place, thing, or concept
- b) the place of nouns in sentences
- c) express action
- d) describe nouns or pronouns

57. Determiners are:

- a) show relationships between parts of speech
- b) modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs
- c) some linguists consider determiners as a category separate from adjectives (though they modify nouns as adjectives do)
- d) show the connection between parts of a sentence

58. Prepositions are:

- a) show relationships between parts of speech
- b) modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs
- c) some linguists consider determiners as a category separate from adjectives (though they modify nouns as adjectives do)
- d) show the connection between parts of a sentence

59. Adverbs are:

- a) show relationships between parts of speech
- b) modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs
- c) some linguists consider determiners as a category separate from adjectives (though they modify nouns as adjectives do)
- d) show the connection between parts of a sentence

60. Conjunctions are:

- a) show relationships between parts of speech
- b) modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs
- c) some linguists consider determiners as a category separate from adjectives (though they modify nouns as adjectives do)
- d) show the connection between parts of a sentence

61. What is general lexicology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

62. What is special lexicology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

63. What is Etymology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

64. What is Semasiology?

- a) it is concerned with the general study of vocabulary
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

65. What is Onomasiology?

- a) is the study of the principles of the significant of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language
- b) devotes its attention to description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
- c) is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin and the development of words
- d) is the branch of linguistics whose subject matter is the study of word meaning

66. _____ deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

- a) historical lexicology
- b) descriptive lexicology
- c) semasiology
- d) etymology

67. _____ discuss the origin of various words, their change and development, meaning and usage.

- a) historical lexicology
- b) descriptive lexicology
- c) semasiology
- d) etymology

68. _____ consonants are articulated with the tip or the blade of the tongue.

- a) occlusive
- b) back lingual
- c) fore lingual
- d) fricative

69. Why do we call consonants constrictive?

- a) an incomplete obstruction is formed
- b) complete obstruction is formed
- c) voiced before consonants
- d) consonants are pronounced with strong stress

70. What is a vowel?

- a) is a sound produced with an obstruction to the air stream
- b) is a sound produced with a tongue
- c) is a sound produced with the teeth
- d) is a voiced sound produced in the mouth with no obstruction to the air stream

71. What is a consonants?

- a) is a sound produced with an obstruction to the air stream
- b) is a sound produced with a tongue
- c) is a sound produced with the teeth
- d) is a voiced sound produced in the mouth with no obstruction to the air stream

72. _____ vowels are those which are produced when one of the parts of the tongue comes close to the roof of the mouth and the air passage is narrowed.

- a) mid-open vowels b) open vowels c) close vowels d) high vowels

73. _____ vowels are those which are produced when the raised part of the tongue is very low in the mouth and the air –passage is very wide.

- a) mid-open vowels b) open vowels c) close vowels d) high vowels

74. _____ vowels are those which are produced when the raised part of the tongue is half-way between its high and low positions.

- a) mid-open vowels b) open vowels c) close vowels d) high vowels

75. According to the lip position vowels may be:

- a) rounded and oral b) unrounded and lax c) rounded and unrounded d) tense and lax

76. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of different types:

- a) coordinate, subordinate, predicative b) coordinate, predicative
c) coordinate, subordinate, word-group d) subordinate, predicative

77. Language is a structural system. _____ means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole.

- a) predicative b) coordinate c) structure d) rounded

78. Language is a structural system. Structure means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels:

- a) phonological, morphological, semiotic and super syntactical
b) phonological, meaningful, syntactical and super syntactical
c) informative, morphological, syntactical and super syntactical
d) phonological, morphological, syntactical and super syntactical

79. The expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs and that is why we say that language is a _____ system.

- a) semiotic b) syntactical c) morphological d) informative

80. One and the same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called:

- a) syntactic b) pragmatic c) expressive d) communicative

81. No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called:

- a) syntactic b) pragmatic c) expressive d) communicative

82. General dictionaries.....

- a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question

- b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary
- c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered
- d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

83. Restricted dictionaries.....

- a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question
- b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary
- c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered
- d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

84. Explanatory dictionaries.....

- a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question
- b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary
- c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered
- d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

85. Specialized dictionaries.....

- a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question
- b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary
- c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered
- d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

86. Homophones are:

- a) words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning
- b) words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling
- c) words, which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.
- d) are words identical in pronunciation and spelling

87. Homographs are:

- a) words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning
- b) words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling
- c) words, which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.
- d) words identical in pronunciation and spelling

88. Full lexical homonyms are:

- a) words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning
- b) words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling
- c) words, which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.
- d) words identical in pronunciation and spelling

89. Homonyms proper are:

- a) words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning
- b) words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling
- c) words, which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm
- d) words identical in pronunciation and spelling

90. Two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and in many cases origin are called:

- a) homonyms
- b) synonyms
- c) morphemes
- d) suffixes

Тест на самостоятельную работу

1. What is affixation?

- a) is one of the most productive ways of word building. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of the definite part of speech
- b) are words made up of elements which came from two or more different languages.
- c) are those which take part in forming new words in this period of language development
- d) the words which are formed without any linking elements by putting two stems together

2. What are the hydrides?

- a) is one of the most productive ways of word building. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of the definite part of speech
- b) are words made up of elements which came from two or more different languages
- c) are those which take part in forming new words in this period of language development
- d) the words which are formed without any linking elements by putting two stems together

3. What are the productive affixes?

- a) is one of the most productive ways of word building. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of the definite part of speech
- b) are words made up of elements which came from two or more different languages.
- c) are those which take part in forming new words in this period of language development
- d) the words which are formed without any linking elements by putting two stems together

4. What are the neutral compounds?

- a) is one of the most productive ways of word building. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of the definite part of speech
- b) are words made up of elements which came from two or more different languages.
- c) are those which take part in forming new words in this period of language development
- d) the words which are formed without any linking elements by putting two stems together

5. Affixes can be classified into:

- a) productive, nonproductive
- b) productive, unproductive
- c) adverb-forming
- d) numeral-forming

6. Affixes are divided into:

- a) suffixes, productive
- b) suffixes, prefixes
- c) adverb-forming, prefixes
- d) prefixes, numeral-forming

7. What is a back formation?

- a) is a semi-productive type of word-building. It is often found in compound verbs.
- b) is a highly productive way of word-building, when new words are produced by combining two or more stems
- c) is a word formed by simultaneous process of composition and derivation. It is a word that consists of two constituents, only one of which is a compound stem, the other is a derivational affix.
- d) is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero suffixations

8. What is a word – composition?

- a) is a semi-productive type of word-building. It is often found in compound verbs.
- b) is a highly productive way of word-building, when new words are produced by combining two or more stems
- c) is a word formed by simultaneous process of composition and derivation. It is a word that consists of two constituents, only one of which is a compound stem, the other is a derivational affix.
- d) is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero suffixation.

9. What is a derivational compound?

- a) is a semi-productive type of word-building. It is often found in compound verbs.
- b) is a highly productive way of word-building, when new words are produced by combining two or more stems
- c) is a word formed by simultaneous process of composition and derivation. It is a word that consists of two constituents, only one of which is a compound stem, the other is a derivational affix
- d) is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero suffixation

10. What is a conversion?

- a) is a semi-productive type of word-building. It is often found in compound verbs
- b) is a highly productive way of word-building, when new words are produced by combining two or more stems
- c) is a word formed by simultaneous process of composition and derivation. It is a word that consists of two constituents, only one of which is a compound stem, the other is a derivational affix
- d) is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero suffixation

11. What is a desuffixation

- a) is a way of word-formation at which words are formed by rejection of a suffix or an element externally similar to a suffix

- b) means formation of new words by reduction (truncation of word stem)
- c) is the formation of compound words on the basis of word-combinations and sentences by decreasing the level of components of an initial word-combination or the sentence
- d) is a way of word-formation without affix use as a result of which is formed categorically different word conterminous in some forms with initial word

12. What is an abbreviation?

- a) is a way of word-formation at which words are formed by rejection of a suffix or an element externally similar to a suffix
- b) means formation of new words by reduction (truncation of word stem)
- c) is the formation of compound words on the basis of word-combinations and sentences by decreasing the level of components of an initial word-combination or the sentence
- d) is a way of word-formation without affix use as a result of which is formed categorically different word conterminous in some forms with initial word

13. What is a compression?

- a) is a way of word-formation at which words are formed by rejection of a suffix or an element externally similar to a suffix
- b) means formation of new words by reduction (truncation of word stem). As a result new
- c) is the formation of compound words on the basis of word-combinations and sentences by decreasing the level of components of an initial word-combination or the sentence
- d) is a way of word-formation without affix use as a result of which is formed categorically different word conterminous in some forms with initial word

14. Rhyming compounds are divided into:

- a) rhyme motivated compounds, back-formation
- b) rhyme motivated compounds, ablaut motivated compounds
- c) sound imitation, ablaut motivated compounds
- d) rhyme motivated compounds, reduplication

15. General dictionaries.....

- a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question
- b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary
- c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered.
- d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

16. Restricted dictionaries.....

- a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question
- b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary
- c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered

d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

17. Explanatory dictionaries.....

a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question

b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary

c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered

d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

18. Specialized dictionaries.....

a) represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question

b) cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary

c) present a wide range of data, especially with regard to the semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered

d) deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, i.e. only in relation to their etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage

19. What is a phraseology?

a) is a regular meaningful arrangement, a structure that imposes rigid rules on the order and the nature of the derivational bases and affixes that may be brought together.

b) is the formation of a new word with the help of affixes

c) is a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions, which like words name various objects and phenomena

d) are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme.

20. Phraseological fusions are:

a) based on lexical stability of phraseological units

b) units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts

c) expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components

d) not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically

21. Phraseological unities are:

a) based on lexical stability of phraseological units

b) units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts

c) expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components

d) not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically

22. Phraseological collocations are:

a) based on lexical stability of phraseological units

- b) units whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts
- c) expressions the meaning of which can be deduced from the meanings of their components
- d) not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically

23. Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky classified PUs as highly idiomatic set expressions functioning as word equivalents, and characterized by their semantic and grammatical unity. He suggested three classes of stereotyped phrases:

- a) traditional phrases, phraseological combinations, idioms
- b) traditional phrases, idioms
- c) traditional phrases, phraseological combinations
- d) phraseological combinations, idioms

24. _____ is any common, colloquial expression, or a remark often made.

- a) a proverb b) a saying c) a sentence d) an expression

25. _____ is a collection of words (phrase or sentence that states a general truth or gives advice

- a) a proverb b) a saying c) a sentence d) an expression

26. Criterion of stability means that.....

- a) the components of phraseological units follow each other in the definite constant order, there can be no substitution for them
- b) is based on the lack of motivation
- c) presupposes that phraseological units are grammatically and stylistically inseparable, in a sentence they behave like a single syntactic form
- d) phraseological units have a fixed meaning (unlike free word groups)

27. Criterion of idiomaticity is.....

- a) the components of phraseological units follow each other in the definite constant order, there can be no substitution for them
- b) is based on the lack of motivation
- c) presupposes that phraseological units are grammatically and stylistically inseparable, in a sentence they behave like a single syntactic form
- d) phraseological units have a fixed meaning (unlike free word groups)

28. Criterion of function presupposes.....

- a) the components of phraseological units follow each other in the definite constant order, there can be no substitution for them
- b) is based on the lack of motivation
- c) that phraseological units are grammatically and stylistically inseparable, in a sentence they behave like a single syntactic form
- d) phraseological units have a fixed meaning (unlike free word groups)

29. What is euphemism?

- a) is a polite inoffensive expression words or phrases replaced for one considered offensive or hurtful that contrarily might be considered bitter, blunt or unpleasant to hear
- b) some euphemisms are used to make a blunt or obnoxious truth seem less hard

- c) some euphemisms are used to take the place of words or phrases one might not want to say in polite circle
- d) euphemisms are intentionally a callous or insensitive way of saying something

30. To soften an expression.....

- a) is a polite inoffensive expression words or phrases replaced for one considered offensive or hurtful that contrarily might be considered bitter, blunt or unpleasant to hear
- b) some euphemisms are used to make a blunt or obnoxious truth seem less hard
- c) some euphemisms are used to take the place of words or phrases one might not want to say in polite circle
- d) euphemisms are intentionally a callous or insensitive way of saying something

31. Euphemism to be Polite.....

- a) is a polite inoffensive expression words or phrases replaced for one considered offensive or hurtful that contrarily might be considered bitter, blunt or unpleasant to hear
- b) some euphemisms are used to make a blunt or obnoxious truth seem less hard
- c) some euphemisms are used to take the place of words or phrases one might not want to say in polite circle
- d) euphemisms are intentionally a callous or insensitive way of saying something

32. Euphemisms to be Impolite....

- a) is a polite inoffensive expression words or phrases replaced for one considered offensive or hurtful that contrarily might be considered bitter, blunt or unpleasant to hear
- b) some euphemisms are used to make a blunt or obnoxious truth seem less hard
- c) some euphemisms are used to take the place of words or phrases one might not want to say in polite circle
- d) euphemisms are intentionally a callous or insensitive way of saying something

33. Antonym is.....

- a) is a type of paradigmatic relations based on polarity of meaning
- b) is a polite inoffensive expression words or phrases replaced for one considered offensive or hurtful that contrarily might be considered bitter, blunt or unpleasant to hear
- c) is a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions, which like words name various objects and phenomena
- d) are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme.

34. The word antonym is derived from.....

- a) Italian b) Russian c) Latin d) Greek

35. Antonyms proper.....

- a) are antonyms which possess the following characteristics: they are gradable, i.e. there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set, are capable of comparison, they do not deny one another, they refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm
- b) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another
- c) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles
- d) are words denoting differently directed actions, features

36. Contradictory antonyms.....

- a) are antonyms which possess the following characteristics: they are gradable, i.e. there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set, are capable of comparison, they do not deny one another, they refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm
- b) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another
- c) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles
- d) are words denoting differently directed actions, features

37. Conversive antonyms.....

- a) are antonyms which possess the following characteristics: they are gradable, i.e. there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set, are capable of comparison, they do not deny one another, they refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm
- b) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another
- c) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles
- d) are words denoting differently directed actions, features

38. Vectorial antonyms.....

- a) are antonyms which possess the following characteristics: they are gradable, i.e. there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set, are capable of comparison, they do not deny one another, they refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm
- b) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another
- c) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles
- d) are words denoting differently directed actions, features

39. _____ is viewed as an aptness or potential of a word to have relations with other words in language.

- a) valency b) collocability c) lexical valency d) grammatical valency

40. _____ is an actual use of words in particular word-groups in communication.

- a) valency b) collocability c) lexical valency d) grammatical valency

41. _____ is the aptness of a word to appear in various collocations, i.e. in combinations with other words.

- a) valency b) collocability c) lexical valency d) grammatical valency

42. _____ is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures

- a) valency b) collocability c) lexical valency d) grammatical valency

43. Root antonyms (absolute antonyms).....

- a) are antonyms having different roots
- b) are antonyms having the same root but different affixes
- c) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another
- d) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles

44. Derivational antonyms.....

- a) are antonyms having different roots
- b) are antonyms having the same root but different affixes
- c) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another

d) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles

45. What is a Simple sentence?

- a) in grammar has only one main or independent clause and no dependent or subordinate clauses
- b) has an independent clause and at least one dependent clause
- c) has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause
- d) has at least two independent clauses

46. What is a Complex sentence?

- a) in grammar has only one main or independent clause and no dependent or subordinate clauses
- b) has an independent clause and at least one dependent clause
- c) has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause
- d) has at least two independent clauses

47. What is a Compound – complex sentence?

- a) in grammar has only one main or independent clause and no dependent or subordinate clauses
- b) has an independent clause and at least one dependent clause
- c) has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause
- d) has at least two independent clauses

48. What is a Compound sentence?

- a) in grammar has only one main or independent clause and no dependent or subordinate clauses
- b) has an independent clause and at least one dependent clause
- c) has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause
- d) has at least two independent clauses

49. Independent Clause.....

- a) has a subject and a predicate and makes sense on its own as a complete sentence
- b) a word affected by the verb or preposition in a sentence
- c) an adjective or adverb that “modifies” other words in a sentence to make it more descriptive
- d) has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause

50. Object is.....

- a) has a subject and a predicate and makes sense on its own as a complete sentence
- b) a word affected by the verb or preposition in a sentence
- c) an adjective or adverb that “modifies” other words in a sentence to make it more descriptive
- d) has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause

51. Modifier is.....

- a) has a subject and a predicate and makes sense on its own as a complete sentence
- b) a word affected by the verb or preposition in a sentence
- c) an adjective or adverb that “modifies” other words in a sentence to make it more descriptive
- d) has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause

52. According to the classification of synonyms developed by academician Vinogradov, there are types of synonyms:

- a) idiomatic, stylistic, absolute
- b) idiomatic, stylistic
- c) idiomatic, absolute
- d) stylistic, absolute

53. Idiographic synonyms are:

- a) words conveying the same notion but differing in meaning
- b) words of the same denotational meaning used in different speech styles
- c) words of exactly the same meaning, words identical in meanings
- d) a word affected by the verb or preposition in a sentence

54. Stylistic synonyms are:

- a) words conveying the same notion but differing in meaning
- b) words of the same denotational meaning used in different speech styles
- c) words of exactly the same meaning, words identical in meanings
- d) a word affected by the verb or preposition in a sentence

55. Absolute synonyms are:

- a) words conveying the same notion but differing in meaning
- b) words of the same denotational meaning used in different speech styles
- c) words of exactly the same meaning, words identical in meanings
- d) a word affected by the verb or preposition in a sentence

56. The following points are usually considered as sources of synonyms. They are:

- a) dialectisms, word-building processes
- b) borrowings, word-building processes
- c) borrowings, dialectisms
- d) borrowings, dialectisms, word-building processes

57. Borrowings are:

- a) often express an idea or name a thing for which they already exist in a native word
- b) words from local dialects, which have entered the English vocabulary as regular words creating synonyms to the words of Standard English
- c) at work in the English language, create synonyms to words already in use
- d) words conveying the same notion but differing in meaning

58. Dialectisms are:

- a) often express an idea or name a thing for which they already exist in a native word
- b) words from local dialects, which have entered the English vocabulary as regular words creating synonyms to the words of Standard English
- c) at work in the English language, create synonyms to words already in use
- d) words conveying the same notion but differing in meaning

59. Word-building processes are:

- a) often express an idea or name a thing for which they already exist in a native word
- b) words from local dialects, which have entered the English vocabulary as regular words creating synonyms to the words of Standard English
- c) at work in the English language, create synonyms to words already in use
- d) words conveying the same notion but differing in meaning

60. How many synonymic groups are in English?

- a) 8000 b) 6000 c) 5000 d) 4000