O’ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O’RTA MAXSUS TA’LIM VAZIRLIGI

TOSHKENT VILOYATI CHIRCHIQ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI

CHET TILI NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI

FANIDAN O’QUV-USLUBIY MAJMUA

(II KURS)

Bilim sohasi: 100000-Gumanitar

Ta’lim sohasi: 110000-Pedagogika

Bakalavriat yo’nalishi: 5111400-Xorijiy til va adabiyoti(ingliz tili)



CHIRCHIQ-2019

**O’ZBЕKISTON RЕSPUBLIKASI**

**OLIY VA O’RTA MAXSUS TA’LIM VAZIRLIGI**

**TOSHKENT VILOYATI CHIRCHIQ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA**

**INSTITUTI**

**“TASDIQLAYMAN”**

O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor

 I.Q.Xaydarov

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**“Xorijiy tillar” kafеdrasi**

**“Chet tili nazariy aspektlari” fanidan**

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**CHIRCHIQ – 2019**

Mazkur o'quv-uslubiy majmua O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta’lim vazirligining 201\_-yil dagi -sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlngan “Chet tili nazariy aspektlari” o'quv fan dasturi asosida tayyorlangan.

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**O’QUV-USLUBIY MAJMUASINING TARKIBI**

**MUNDARIJA**

**1. O’QUV-METODIK MATERIALLAR**

**1.1. Ma’ruza mashg’ulot mavzulari**

**1.2. Seminar mashg’ulot mavzulari**

**1.3. Amaliy mashg’ulot mavzulari**

**2. GLOSSARIY**

**3. ILOVALAR**

**3.1. Fan dasturi**

**3.2. Ishchi o’quv dasturi**

**3.3. Testlar**

**1.1 MA’RUZA MASHG’ULOT MAVZULARI**

**1-modul. Ingliz tili nazariy fonetikasi.**

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

**Plan:**

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

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

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

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

The following types of phonetics may be distinguished:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**2-MAVZU. PHONOLOGICAL THEORIES.**

**Plan:**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

II.3. THE MOSCOW PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

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

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

Analysing the sound changes in the morphemic structure of

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

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

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

II.4. THE PRAGUE PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

II.5. THE LONDON PHONOLOGICAL SCHOOL

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

1. The number of syllables.

2. The number of syllables - open or closed.

3. The syllabic quantities.

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

5. The sequence of consonants

6. The sequence of vowels

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

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

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

II.6. PHONOLOGICAL TRENDS IN THE USA

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

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

**Plan:**

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

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

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

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

**Plan:**

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

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

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

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

**Plan:**

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

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

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

**Plan:**

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

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

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

**Plan:**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Plan:**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Plan:**

* 1. **Proper functions of intonation.**
	2. **Components of intonation.**

Intonation is an essentual prosodic element of human speech. It shapes human speech phonetically and helps to express grammatical, semantic and emotional meanings of phrases or sentences. Intonation is a very complicated phenomenon and therefore its definition varies widely among linguists. The following definitions of intonation have been given by British linguists: «Intonation may be defined as the variations which take place in the pitch of the voice in connected speech, i.e. the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by the vibration of the vocal cords» (D. Jones)1. «By intonation we mean the rise and fall of the pitch of the voice when we speak» (L. Armstrong and I. Ward)2. The American linguist D. L. Bolinger defines intonation as «... the melodic line of speech, the rising and falling of the «fundamental» or singing pitch of the voice ...»3. P. Ladefoged defines intonation as «the pattern of pitch changes»4. P. Lieberman regards intonation as «... the entire en­ semble of pitch contours, pitch levels and stress levels that occurs when a sentence is spoken» 5.From given definitions we can notice that intonation is regarded as pitch changes or speech melody and also stress levels which accompany an utterance. Speech melody perceived as pitch changes is one of the main components of intonation, but it is not equal to intonation. Some linguists include other components of intonation in their definition. For example, A.M . Peshkovskij defined intona­ tion as the indissoluble connection of both rhythm and melody1. These definitions have been given in a narrow sense.

A broad and adequate definition of intonation is given by V.A. Vassilyev who writes: «On the perceptual level, sentence in­ tonation is a unity of four components, formed by the communi­ catively relevant variations in: ( 1 ) voice pitch, or speech melody; (2)the prominence of words, or their accent; (3) the tempo (rate), rhythm and pausation of the utterance, and (4) voice - tamber, this complex unity serving to express adequately, on the basis of the proper grammatical structure and lexical composition of the sentence, the speaker's or writer's thoughts, volition, emotions, feelings and attitudes towards reality and contents of the sen­ tence»2. G.P. Torsuyev defines intonation as a complex combination of speech melody, distribution of stress in a sentence, tamber of voice and tempo of pronunciation, which serves as the most im­ portant means of expressing the meaning of an utterance 3.A.M . Antipova regards intonation as a complex combination of the following components: ( 1 ) speech .melody, (2 ) sentence stress, (3) time characteristics (duration, tempo and pausation), (4) rhythm and (5) tamber (the quality of voice) .The latter three definitions of intonation include all the components of intonation and have been given in a very broad sense. We also shade these definitions. Intonation is a prosodic or suprasegmental characteristics of an utterance or phrase, and therefore it is possible to speak of the prosodic structure of a phrase. By the term «phrase or utterance» we mean the sentence realized phonetically as a unit of speech. Like other phonetic units intonation may be studied in four as­ pects: ( 1 ) articulatory (physiologically), (2 ) acoustically (physically), (3) perceptually (auditorially) and (4) functionally

1. A constitutive function of intonation is expressed by its existence in an utterance through which intonation shapes a sen­ tence phonetically. For example, Come! as a word and sense-group has its own grammatical form and intonation. The phrases

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Plan:**

1. **Principal varieties of English**
2. **Variability of a given language**

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

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**2-modul. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi**

**1-MAVZU. INTRODUCTION INTO LEXICOLOGY.LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE. GENERAL CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF MODERN ENGLISH.**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**2. Structural types of words.**

**3. Principles of morphemic analysis.**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**2. Structural types of words**.

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

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

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

**3. Principles of morphemic analysis.**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**1.The problem of word meaning**

**2. The main semantic processes**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The **main component of L.m**. are:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**2. The main semantic processes**.

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

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

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

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

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

**1. What is polysemy**

**2. What is homonymy**

**3. Differences between homonymy and polysemy**

**1. What is polysemy**

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

This is the main difference between polysemy and homonymy

**1. What is Polysemy**

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

The following sentences contain some examples of polysemy.

*He drank a glass of milk.*

*He forgot to milk the cow.*

*The enraged actor sued the newspaper.*

*He read the newspaper.*

*His cottage is near a small wood.*

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

*He fixed his hair.*

*They fixed a date for the wedding.*

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

**2. What is Homonymy**

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

Stalk

– The main stem of a herbaceous plant

– Pursue or approach stealthily

Sow

– adult female pig

– to plant seeds in a ground

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

3. Difference between polysemy and homonymy

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

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

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

**1. Definition of synonyms**

**2. Classification of synonyms**

**3. Criteria of synonymity**

**1. Definition of synonyms**

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

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

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

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

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

**2. Classification of synonyms**

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

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

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

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

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

**1. Definition of antonyms**

**2. Semantic classification of antonyms**

**- contradictories**

**- contraries**

**- incompatibles**

**3. Morphological classifications of antonyms**

**1. Definition of antonyms**

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

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

**2. Semantic classification of antonyms**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

-not gradable;

-truly represent oppositeness of meaning;

-cannot be used in the comparative or superlative degree;

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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| compounding | creating new words by combining (mainly) free morphemes |
| backformation | creating new words from phrases |
| clipping & blending | abbreviating or ‘fusing’ words into new ones. |
| acronym formation | using initials to create short words |

**1.2 SEMINAR MASH`GULOTLARI MAVZULARI**

**1-modul.Ingliz tili nazariy fonetika**

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| **Seminar № 1.** Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics. Phonological Theories. What does the term «language» denote?What is the distinction between the system and the structure of a language?What is the distinction between the terms «substance» and «form»? What do we mean by the content and expression? What forms of speech do you know?Will you give the definition of phonetics? Explain the theoretical (scientific) and practical importance of phonetics. What types of phonetics do you know?)Explain the work of speech organs. What is phonetic basis? How do we establish phonetic interference?What aspects of phonetics do we distinguish?How do we define a speech sound from the articulatory point of view?What instrumental methods are used in the articulatory aspect? What is a speech sound or an utterance from the acoustic point of view?What is fundamental frequency?What is intensity (or loudness);What is a filter? What is the acoustic spectrum? What is a formant structure of a sound?What do we mean by harmonics (or overtones)?Explain the instrumental methods used in the acoustic aspect. What is the difference between quality and quantity features?Explain the perceptual (auditory) aspect.What does the term timbre denote?What does phonological aspect study?What is the difference between phonological aspect and phonetic aspect?What levels of phonetic and phonological investigation do you know?What does segmental phonology study?What does suprasegmental phonology study?Name the first founders of «the phoneme» concept. What is a pho­ neme? Give its definition.What is an allophone? What is a minimal pair? What is the phono­ logical opposition?What is the non-phonological opposition? Who is the founder of the phonological theory? What periods can be distinguished in the formation of the phonological theory? Explain I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay's phonological theory. How did he define the phoneme? Explain the further development of I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay's theory.Give L.V. Shcherba's defi­ nition of the phoneme. What are the theoretically and practically important ideas suggested by L.V. Shcherba? What phonological school develops L.V. Shcherba's theory? Who applied L.V. Shcherba's theory to English?Give the definition of the phoneme by the Moscow Phono­ logical school.What marked differencies exist between the theories of St. Peter-burg and Moscow phonological schools? Who suggested the term «pho­ nemic line» and what does this term mean?What does hyperphoneme mean? Is the phoneme a bundle of distinctive features? Why? What is morphonology?What representatives of the Prague phonological school do you know? Explain the types of oppositions. What definition of a phoneme was given by N.S. Trubetzkoy? What rules for the determination of individual phonemes and phoneme combinations have been suggested by this theory? Give the classification of phonological oppositions in relation to the entire system of oppositions?What types of oppositions are distinguished according to the rela­ tionship between their members? What oppositions do we distinguish according to the distinctive force and their occurrance in different positions? What is phonological neutralization? What is the meaning of archiphoneme? Give D. Jones' explanation of a phoneme.Why do we call D. Jones'theory an acoustic one? What members of the phoneme were suggested by D. Jones? Why is the semantic func­ tion of a phoneme important? What phonological approach was suggested by J. Firth?What phonological trends exist in the USA?Explain the basic phonological ideas of descriptive phonology? What is meant by phonotag­ memics?Give an explanation of paradigmatic relations.Give an explanation of syntag­ matic relations.What can be studied by the categorization of phonological units in paradigmatic and syntagmatic levels?What functions of the phonological units do you know? What is a constitutive function? Give an explanation of the distinctive function. What is a delimitative function? Is recognitive function important?What do we mean by functional load?How do we measure a functional load?What is a power of opposition? Is statistic data important in estab­ lishing the functional load and power of opposition?**Seminar № 2.** Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English. Word Stress in English.What is a syllable?What functions of the syllables do we distinguish?What principles do we use in the classification of syllables? What types of syllables exist in English (Uzbek and Russian)?How do you explain the re­ lationship between a syllable and a morpheme?What theories of syllable formation and syllable division ex­ ist in modem linguistics? How did the ancient theory explain a sylla­ ble? Explain the expiratory theory of a syllable.What principle was suggested by the sonority theory of a syllable?Explain F. de Soussure's syllable theory.What components of the syllable have been defined by the theo­ ries refered to? Explain the syllable theory suggested by L.V. Shcherba? What is the peak of the syllable? Give the phonological definition of a syllable.What consonants are syllabic in English?What consonant clusters may form separate syllables? Explain the contrast syllable vs. no - sylla ble. Axe there any syllabic conso­ nants in Uzbek or Russian? Does the syllable division depend on the character of checked-free vowels? What is a syllabeme?What is a juncture and what types of luncture do we distin­ guish?Is syllable division distinctive in English? Give examples.What is meant by word stress? What does the term accen­ tual structure (type, pattern) mean? How is word stress defined from the articulatory point of view, acoustically and perceptually? What main types of word stress ex­ ist in languages? What type of word stress is used in English (Russian and Uzbek)?What is the culminative function of word stress?What is the difference between syllable-counting and mora count­ ing languages?What components of word stress do you know?What differences exist between English, Russian and Uzbek ac­ cording to the action of the components of word stress? What is the difference between word stress and sentence stress?What types of word stress are distinguished by its position? What differencies exist between English, Russian and Uzbek word stress depending on its position? How many degrees of word stress are distinguished in English? What is the opinion of British and American linguists concerning the degrees of English word stress?Why is the semantic factor important in English word stress?How do you explain the mor­ phological factor of word stress? What do we mean by the action of rhythmic factor? Why is rhythmic-accentual structure regarded a component of the phonetic struc­ ture of a word? What is a recessive accent and how do we distinguish its types? What is a rhythmical stress? Give examples.Explain the retentive tendency of word stress?What changes are taking place in present-day English word accen­ tuation? How do you define free varia­ tion of accentual patterns? Give examples.What functions does word stress perform?What is the difference between morphological and demarcative stress? What is a word-accenteme? Give examples. Give minimal pairs, illustrating the contrast between primary and weak word-accentemes. Is a de­ limitative function of word stress important in English? What is your opinion of the matter with regards to Russian and Uzbek? Are there any stress alternations in English word derivation? Give examples. What accentual patterns of English words are distinguished? What is the I-st (И, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, XII) accentual pattern?**Seminar № 3.** The Functions of Sentence Stress. Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.What types of word stress are distinguished by its position? What differencies exist between English, Russian and Uzbek word stress depending on its position? How many degrees of word stress are distinguished in English? What is the opinion of British and American linguists concerning the degrees of English word stress?Why is the semantic factor important in English word stress?How do you explain the morphological factor of word stress? What do we mean by the action of rhythmic factor? Why is rhythmic-accentual structure regarded a component of the phonetic struc­ ture of a word? What is a recessive accent and how do we distinguish its types? What is a rhythmical stress? Give examples.Explain the retentive tendency of word stress?What changes are taking place in present-day English word accen­ tuation?How do you define free varia­ tion of accentual patterns? Give ex­ amples. What functions does word stress perform?What is the difference between morphological and demarcative stress?What is a word-accenteme? Give examples.What is intonation? Give its definition by British and American linguists. What components of in­ tonation do you know?What is intonology (or in-tonological typology)? What prosodic types of interference do you know? What aspects of intonation do you know?What is phonostylistics (intona­ tional stylistics)? What is the text forming function of intonation? What functions of intonation do we distinguish? How do you define a sense-group?Why is the recognitive function of intonation important? What methods of indicating and describ­ ing intonation exist in English? What is a tonetic transcripti­ on? Explain R. Kingdon's tonetic notation. Explain L.E. Armstrong and I.C. Ward's tonetic notation. What marks are used in the tonetic nota­ tion of intonation by British lin­ guists? Explain tonetic notation suggested by American linguists.What functions does speech melody perform?What is a toneme (in­ toneme)? What is an allotone? What differencies exist in the realization of speech melody between English, Russian and Uzbek? Explain their presentation pattern.What pitch ranges are distin­ guished in English?What functions of sentence-stress exist?What does the term accentual structure of a sentence mean? What do we mean by timbre? Why is rhythmic structure important in intonation? Explain the tempo of speech and its types.What function does pausation perform?What emphatic intonation means exist in English?How is the principle of compen sation defined?What do we mean by emphasis and what types of it are distin­ guished?What variation of intonation components perform emotional function?**Seminar № 4.** The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds.The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.What is meant by assimilation? What is the difference be tween -unit of its own? What does mor­phonology study? What phoneme assimilation and adaptation alternations are regarded morphonological?(or accomodation)? What stress alternationsWhat types of assimilation may are regarded morphonological?be distinguished, affecting the Give an explanation of regularplace of articulation (the manner of phonetic and historical alterna­production, the work of vocal tions. Give examples. What typeschords, and the position of the of morphonological alternations dolips)? Give examples. What types we distinguish? Do morphonologi­of assimilation may be distin­ cal alternations depend on the con­guished according to degree? What text or other factors? types of assimilation may be dis­ How is the English suffixationtinguished according to direction? realized in different morphemes?Explain the difference between Does the alternation of stress de­historical and contextual assimila­ pend on adding different suffixes?tions. Explain the morphonological func­ tion of word stress. Give examples.What do the combinatory-positional changes depend on? Is What other combinatory positional changes do you know, besides assimilation?What do we mean by adaptation? When do rounded allophones of consonant phonemes occur? When do fully back allophones of consonant phonemes occur? How does the dark /1/ influence a vowel articulation? What is meant by dissimilation? Give examples.What is an elision? Give examples.What is haplology? Give examples.**Seminar № 5.** Stylistic Use of Intonation.Varieties of English pronunciation.What is intonation? Give its definition by British and American linguists. What components of intonation do you know?What is intonology (or in-tonological typology)? What prosodic types of interference do you know? What aspects of intonation do you know?What is phonostylistics (intona­ tional stylistics)? What is the text-forming function of intonation? What functions of intonation do we distinguish? How do you define a sense-group?Why is the recognitive function of intonation important? What methods of indicating and describ­ ing intonation exist in English?What is a national language? What is a literary variant of a language?What is dialectology?What is an orthoepic norm?Explain three principal types of English pronunciation dis­ tinguished on the British Isles? What is the Southern English pro­ nunciation?Why has RP been chosen as a standard for teaching in many countries? Where is Northern Eng­ lish spread?Explain the Northern English pronunciation.What are the marked features of the Scottish type of pronunciation in comparison with RP? What pronunciation features exist in the Cockney dialect?10.3. What pronunciation types exist in the USA?Where is Eastern American pro­ nunciation spread? What are its features? What pronunciation fea­ tures exist in Southern America? What is called the «Southern drawl»?What pronunciation type is accepted as literary in the USA? Explain the marked differencies between RP and GA vowels. What marked differencies exist between RP and GA consonants?Explain the pronunciation of GA /г/.What differencies exist between the distribution of vowel (or con­ sonant) phonemes in RP and GA?Draw the vowel charts of RP and GA.What main differencies exist in the notation of phonetic symbols given by British and American lin­ guists?What are the marked differen­ cies in word accentuation between RP and GA. What is called spelling - pro­ nunciation? Give examples from RP and GA. What differencies exist between RP and GA intonation?Explain the main features of Canadian pronunciation.What do you know about the Australian pronunciation?What main pronunciation features of New Zealand English are known?What is known about the South African pronunciation? In what countries is English spoken?What is idialect?What is bilingualism? What does school phonetics study?What does comparative-typological phonetics study? What other terms are used instead of it?What intradialectal phonetic variations are used in English? What do the terms diaphone, idio-phone and variphone denote? What type of English pronunciation do you study?Explain the stylistic variants of pronunciation.**2-modul. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi.****1-SEMINAR. INTRODUCTION INTO LEXICOLOGY, LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE. GENERAL CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF MODERN ENGLISH. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD. CHANGES IN SEMANTIC STRUCTURE.**1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.
2. Lexicology and its links with other branches of linguistics. The theoretical and practical value of lexicology.
3. Lexical naming. Types of lexical naming. (General overview.)
4. The *word*as the basic lexical unit. The problem of the *word* in English. Word variants.
5. The concept of *lexeme*.
6. The size of the English lexicon.
7. The size of a person’s lexicon.

**Key Terms**

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| lexemelexical item/unitlexical systemlexicalizationlexicologycognitive lexicologycontrastive lexicologydescriptive lexicologydiachronic/historical lexicologygeneral lexicologyspecial lexicologysynchronic lexicologylexiconlexis | mental lexiconmorphemederivational morphemenaminglexical namingphraseological unitready-made unitset expression/phrasetwo-faceted unitvocabularywordword-groupword stockword variants |

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**Tasks and Exercises**

1. **What counts as a word? Define the status of the given lexical items and comment on the types of naming. Consult the recommended dictionaries:**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *ad**Adam’s apple**bike**blue(-)stocking**boarding school**break-down**demo**extra-**flower pot**forget-me-not**heart attack**hot dog* | *hot line**lily of the valley**mini**mother-in-law**pram**runaway**second-rate**town hall**UNESCO**VIP**Whitehall**White House* |

**Read the excerpt and answer the questions.**

HOW LARGE IS THE ENGLISH LEXICON?

The two biggest dictionaries suggest around half a mil­lion lexemes – a total approached by the unabridged *Webster's Third New International* (which claimed over 450,000 entries in 1961) and by the integrated edition of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (which claimed over 500,000 entries in 1992). The true figure is undoubt­edly a great deal higher.

A comparison of these two dictionaries – or of any other group of dictionaries of comparable size – shows a remarkable lack of identity between headword lists. Discrepancies are usually caused by differing edito­rial emphases. The *Oxford*has far more historical ref­erences and British dialect items than does the *Webster,*which in turn has far more local American items. On the other hand, neither work would claim to be comprehensive in its coverage of the vocabulary of the new Englishes in such parts of the world as India, Singapore, and Nigeria, where thousands of new lex­emes are coming into the language. And because the tradition in lexicography is to use the written language as the test for inclusion, much local spoken nonstandard vocabulary will be omitted. There must be thousands of slang expressions currently in com­mon use which have never been recorded, such as all the lexemes which express the concept of 'being drunk' – *canned, blotto, squiffy, jagged, paralytic, smashed,* etc.

Even if we restrict the issue to standard vocabulary, there are many items which could be included as part of the lexicon, but which are not usually found in a dictionary. There are some half a million abbreviated forms in English, many of which have a clear lexical status *(BA, FBI, NATO,* etc.); and fauna and flora also provide a vast lexical resource. For example, there are apparently some million insects already described, with several million more awaiting descrip­tion. This means that there must be at least a million designations enabling English-speaking entomologists to talk about their subject. Should all of these be allowed into the word-count as well?

It is difficult to see how even a conservative estimate of the English vocabulary could go much below a million lexemes. More radical accounts, allowing in all of sci­entific nomenclature, could easily double this figure. Only a small fraction of these totals, of course, is learned by any one of us. (From: *D. Crystal.* The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. 1995. Р. 119)

**Questions**

* What linguistic items do lexicologists study?
* What is the minimal meaningful unit of language?
* What accounts for numerous and different definitions of the term *word*? Compare various definitions of the word and state on what properties (phonological, morphological, syntactic, etc.) of the word they are based.
* What are the main problems connected with the concept of *the* *word*in English?
* Why is *the* *word* considered the basic lexical unit?
* How do you define the term *lexeme*?
* How large is the English lexicon?
* How many lexical items are registered in *The* *Oxford English Dictionary/Webster’s Third New International Dictionary*?
* How large is the lexicon of a native speaker? Does it vary within different age groups/professional groups?
* How large is your lexicon?

1. The morphological structure of the English word: morphemic analysis. 1.1 Give your understanding of compositionality and morphemic analysis: identify the purpose and describe the procedure. 1.2 Explain the following methods of morphemic analysis: structural analysis, oppositions and correlations and analysis into immediate constituents (IC). Provide examples. 1.3 Identify difficulties of morphemic analysis focusing on pseudo-morphemes, unique roots and bound root morphemes. Make use of the following examples: retain, contain, detain, barbarism, theory, cranberry. 1.4 Identify the structural parts in the following words: disapproval, painfully, disappointed, meaninglessly, writer, shoulder, honeymooner, mill-owner, prefer, transfer, readability, co-author, left-handedness, conceive, perceive, piglet, hamlet, booklet, notelet, pocket, theory, barbarian. Consult a dictionary. Analyse them into immediate constituents.

2. Structural (or morphemic) types of words. Give your understanding of monomorphic and polymorphic words. The latter are further subdivided into monoradical and polyradical words. What is the basis of distinction? Give examples.

3. The dynamic character of the (English) vocabulary. Explain why of all layers of language the lexicon is least resistant to change, whereas grammar is usually very resistant.

4. Give your understanding of word-building. Identify 3 major types of word-building and at least 3 minor types of word-building in English. Make use of the following examples: heartbeat, heartless, to take—a take; doc, VIP, to blood-transfuse, strength, medicare.

5. Productivity. Give your understanding of the term. What are productive and non-productive types of word building in English?

6. Word-derivation: the stem and the derivational base. Give your understanding of each term, provide examples. In the following list of words, identify the derivational base: mistreat, mistreatment, dramatically, ex-president, disapprove, careless, fluently.

1. Comment on the semantic structure of the following words from the synchronic point of view: *cat, dog, hand, head, mouth, nose.* Find points of similarity in the semantic relationship between the meanings of different words.

2. Comment on the types of meaning (metaphoric/ metonymic) in the following items:

*the arm of a chair*

*cold voice*

*loud colours*

*the eye of a needle*

*the foot of the mountain*

*the head of a pin*

*sweet temper*

*black deeds*

*to devour a detective story*

*to burn with anger*

*the hands of a clock*

*every head of cattle*

*to have a good head for figures*

3. Compare the semantic structure of correlative words (e.g. *black, cat, hand,*etc.) in English – Belarusian – Russian and comment on the points of similarity and difference.

4. Analyse the semantic structure of the word *table* in diachronic and synchronic dictionaries paying attention to the order of meanings.

Questions

* What are the causes of polysemy?
* Polysemy is a semantic universal, isn’t it?
* What are the causes of semantic change?
* What are the patterns of polysemy for English, Uzbek words denoting *animal names, parts of the body,*and *colour terms*?
* How can one distinguish between different meanings of a polysemantic word and different usage of the word?
* What role does context play in determining the meaning of words?
* What is understood by *verbal context*?
* What is understood by *context of situation?*
* Why is it necessary to compare/contrast foreign and native languages?

Exercise 1.

Build sentences with primary and two secondary meanings of the following polysemantic words. Bind, board, boil, broad, catch, collapse, course, lemon, long, passage, pure, quick, review, spell, tell.

Exercise 22.

What meanings does a polysemantic word ‘nice’ have in the following sentences? What is the role of the context? 1. One of the nicest things about her is her sense of humour. 2. I asked him in the nicest possible way not to park in front of my garage. 3. He is not very nice to her when he has had a few drinks. 4. The discussion on one of the nice points of law seemed to be endless. 5. You need a nice hot bath after such a tiring day. 6. He has a nice taste in garment. 7. This is a nice mess you’ve got us into! 8. She’s not too nice in her business methods.

Exercise 23.

 Discuss the meanings of the words and word forms of ‘die’, ‘white’, ‘black’, ‘house’. How are the meanings of each of these words related?

1. The old traditions are dying out. Die in the car crash. Die of embarrassment. Die of cancer. Die in ones’ bed. The day is Meaning of theWord. Polysemy od theWord. Types of Meanings. Change of Meaning. Context – 18 – dying. Die in harness. Die a lingering death. His secret dies with him. The flame flickered and died. I’m dying for a drink. The play quickly died the death. Never say die. The noise died away. The rabbits died out.

 2. White face. White lie. White elephant. White sugar. White meat. White hair. White teeth. A white youth in his twenties. White coffee.

 3. Black clouds. Black tea. Black community. Hands black with grime. Black despair. To be in a black mood. A black comedy.

4. The White House. An ancient trading house. Don’t wake the whole house. On the house. A two-bedroom house. He played to packed houses. To urge the house to vote. Bring the house down. To keep house.

Exercise 24.

 Which of the following words are monosemantic? Explain their meanings. Look up the meanings of the words in the dictionary. Ape, archive, blood, candle, cancer, college, colossal, euthanasia, eureka, false, famous, gender, intermediate, jailbird, jaw, mood, newfangled, nun, octopus, pedant, pork, profile, runway, saliva, seal, soldier, textile, vandal, verify, wiggle.

Exercise 25.

 In the sentences below, the words in bold in lexical system are polysemantic. What meanings do they have in a dictionary and what meaning do they have in this particular context?

Part 2 – 19 – 1. The past year and a half has reminded me in many ways of what it was like when we started the business.

2. The main entrance hall looks like something out of a video game, with a huge vaulted ceiling set off by moody lightning and a row of ejection seats rescued from World War II-era fighter jets.

 3. In one test, a quarter-inch steel ball is fired at eyewear at more than 160 km/h; in another, a heavy steel spike is dropped on a lens.

 4. Audiences are so used to easy seductions by movies, with big jokes and jolts, that they may misread or discard potent message of the pictures.

**2-SEMINAR. HOMONYMS. THE SOURCES OF HOMONYMS. THE CLASSIFICATION OF HOMONYMS. HOMONYMY AND POLYSEMY. CRITERIA OF SYNONIMITY AND CLASSIFICATION OF SYNONYMS. DEFINITION OF ANTONYMS. CLASSIFICATION OF ANTONYMS.**

**Topics for Discussion**

1. Homonymy of words and homonymy of word-forms.
2. Classification of homonyms.
3. Sources of homonymy.
4. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to homonymy.
5. Criteria for the differentiation between polysemy and homonymy.
6. Homonymy in dictionaries.

**Key Terms**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| convergentdiverginghomographhomonymhomophone | grammatical homonymslexical homonymslexico-grammatical homonymspatterned homonymy |

**Tasks and Exercises**

1. **Classify the following homonyms into lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical homonyms:**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *ball1 (n)**bank1 (n)**bear (n)**draw (n)**found (v)**ground (n)**kind (adj)**left (adj)**mine (n)**own (adj)**page1 (n)**use (n)* | *ball2 (n)**bank3 (n)**bear (v)**draw (v)**found (past of “to find”)**ground (past of “to grind”)**kind (n)**left (past of “to leave”)**mine (of “my”)**own (v)**page3 (n)**use (v)* |

1. **Find homophones to the following words:**

*fair (adj)*

*flower (n)*

*idle (adj)*

*key (n)*

*plain (adj)*

*principal (adj)*

*reign (v)*

*see (v)*

*steel (v)*

*tail (n)*

*weather (n)*

1. **Find homographs to the following words:**

*bow*[βαΥ] *(n)*

*row*[ραΥ] *(n)*

*tear*[τΙ↔] *(n)*

*use*[ϕυ:σ] *(n)*

1. **Study the arrangement of homonyms in general-purpose and specialized dictionaries.**
2. **Prove that the following lexical items are homonyms:**

**case1***(n)* an instance of something occurring;

**case2***(n)* any of various types of container or covering used for keeping or protecting things;

**pupil1***(n)* a person, especially a child, who is taught in school or privately;

**pupil2***(n)* the dark circular opening in the centre of the eye that becomes smaller in bright light and larger in the dark.

**Questions**

* What are the main sources of homonymy in English?
* What accounts for the abundance of homonymous words and word-forms in English?
* Does homonymy exist only among words and word-forms? Can we speak about homonymy of other lexical units? Give examples.
* Into what types are homonyms classified by the type of meaning?
* Into what types are homonyms classified if their sound-form/ graphic form is taken into account?
* What homonyms have related meanings?
* What is understood by patterned homonymy?
* What is the essential difference between homonymy and polysemy?
* What are the criteria for differentiation between polysemy and homonymy?
* Why is the semantic criterion not always reliable in differentiating between polysemy and homonymy?

 **HOMONYMY AND POLYSEMY**

**Topics for Discussion**

1. Semantic change in English. Causes, nature and results of semantic change.
2. Polysemy in English. Causes of polysemy.
3. Polysemy and frequency.
4. Semantic structure of polysemantic words. Types of meaning (diachronic approach to polysemy, synchronic approach to polysemy).
5. Polysemy and context. Types of context (lexical context, grammatical context).
6. Semantic structure of correlative words in different languages.
7. Polysemy in synchronic and diachronic dictionaries.

**Key Terms**

ambiguity

lexical ambiguity

amelioration of meaning

analogy

basic meaning

central/main/major meaning

context (verbal context, context of situation)

contiguity

derived/secondary meaning

deterioration/pejoration of meaning

direct meaning

disambiguation

extension/generalization of meaning

figurative meaning

lexical-semantic variant

metaphor (metaphoric meaning)

metaphtonymy

metonymy (metonymic meaning)

minor meaning

multiple meaning

narrowing/restriction/specialization of meaning

nominative meaning

original/primary meaning

similarity

systematic polysemy

transfer

**Tasks and Exercises**

1. **Define polysemy as a linguistic phenomenon.**
2. **Give working definitions of the key terms with examples.**
3. **Comment on the semantic processes that were at work in the following words:**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *arrive**bird**boor**camp**cowboy**deer**doctrine**engine**fowl**gay**hound**knave**knight**lord* | *marshal**meat**minister**office**place**queen**revolutionary**silly**starve**target**teach**thing**Tory**villain.* |

1. **Prove that the meanings in the following polysemantic words are related:***hand, head, heavy, table.* **(Use the dictionaries.)**
2. **Comment on the semantic structure of the following words from the synchronic point of view:***cat, dog, hand, head, mouth, nose.* **Find** **points of similarity in the semantic relationship between the meanings of different words.**
3. **Comment on the types of meaning (metaphoric/ metonymic) in the following items:**

*the arm of a chair*

*cold voice*

*loud colours*

*the eye of a needle*

*the foot of the mountain*

*the head of a pin*

*sweet temper*

*black deeds*

*to devour a detective story*

*to burn with anger*

*the hands of a clock*

*every head of cattle*

*to have a good head for figures*

1. **Analyse the semantic structure of the word***table* **in diachronic and synchronic dictionaries paying attention to the order of meanings.**

**Questions**

* What are the causes of polysemy?
* Polysemy is a semantic universal, isn’t it?
* What are the causes of semantic change?
* What are the patterns of polysemy for English, Belarusian and Russian words denoting *animal names, parts of the body,*and *colour terms*?
* How can one distinguish between different meanings of a polysemantic word and different usage of the word?
* What role does context play in determining the meaning of words?
* What is understood by *verbal context*?
* What is understood by *context of situation?*
* Why is it necessary to compare/contrast foreign and native languages?

Exercise 1. Find full homonyms in the following sentences. Explain their meanings.

1. a) After valuation, experts band properties in groups of £20,000 or more. b) Tonight the entertainment includes a disco and live band. 2. a) The group’s research has done much to advance our knowledge of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus. b) Could you distribute copies well in advance before the meeting? 3. a) The morning light came streaming in through the windows. b) People who have suffered light exposure to radiation still have to have regular medical check-up. 4. a) The dogs usually bark at strangers. b) The bark of the birch is used to make utensil. Systenatic Character of the Vocabulary: Synonyms,Antonyms, Homonums – 42 – 5. a) She was afraid she wouldn’t be able to bear the pain. b) The bear has thick fur and eats flesh, fruit, and insects. 6. a) Ann would like to dash into the room, to grab her bag, and to run out again. b) The dash is used in writing to separate two closely related parts of a sentence. 7. a) She looked around at the sea of faces in the cafeteria. b) The President faces the difficult task of putting the economy back on its feet. 8. a) The plot is a festival of conspiracies involving the Nazis, Soviets, the CIA and LSD, plus some oddly convenient hurricane. b) He was called from the right bank in the blessed plot of the tree.

Exercise 2. Find homophones in the sentences. Use them in different context by building new sentences.

1. a) Some people never forget insults and wait for the hour of revenge. b) Bill wants to spend a large sum of money on modernizing the farm. 2. a) You can buy jeans in every colour under the sun. b) In those days, the property went to the oldest son. 3. a) To be able to live fully in the here and now, one must first learn how to honour the past. b) There’s a nasty infection going round, so I hear. 4. a) The branch was too weak to support his weight. b) The Reids are coming for dinner a week from Sunday. 5. a) The old sailor preferred bitter to light beer. b) I’m glad you’ve arrived – we could all do with a little light relief. 6. a) To keep sales of expensive eyewear brisk in this economy, the company will have to continue to reinvent its products Part 3 – 43 – and itself. b) The government, the minister emphasized, is concentrating on taking further steps to make sure the economy sails in safe waters.

Exercise 3. Find homographs in the sentences. Use them in different context by building new sentences.

 1. a) Many of the party’s traditional voters can suddenly desert it at the election. b) The plane crash-landed in the desert. No survivors were found. 2. a) He had just had a row with his wife? What was the row about? b) The children were asked to stand in a row and to dance samba. 3. a) “Please, don’t talk like that”, Ellen implored him, her eyes filling with tears. b) She carefully tears the paper. 4. a) This is done with a formal bow to the king or queen. b) A bow is used for shooting arrows, made of long thin piece of wood held in a curve by a tight string. 5. a) The content of the media course includes scripting, editing and camera work. b) Not content with her new car, Selina now wants a bike.

**CRITERIA OF SYNONYMITY AND CLASSIFICATION OF SYNONYMS**

**Items for discussion:**

1. Definition of synonyms.

2. Criteria of synonymy.

3. Classification of synonyms.

4. Sources of synonymy.

5. Euphemisms.

Exercise 41. What distinguishes each of the following pairs of synonyms:

a) level of formality; b) shades of meaning; c) the origin; d) different language varieties? Argument – disputation, ask for – request, astonished – gobsmacked, beauty – pulchritude, bonnet – hood, caravan – trailer, chat – gossip, destroy – zap, die – decease, famous – notorious, farm – ranch, hate – loathe, heart – ticker, need – require, new – novel, obtain – procure, pardon – amnesty, pavement – sidewalk, praise – eulogy, tap – faucet, western – occidental.

Exercise 42. Give the dominant synonym for the following synonymic groups.

1. Hue, pigment, tinge, tint, tone. 2. Accommodate, adapt, adjust, affect, alter, modify, remodel, restyle, transform. 3. Crush, demolish, devastate, dismantle, fragment, liquidate, shatter, smash, uproot. 4. Combat, conflict, hostilities, riot, row, struggle, wrangle. 5. Achievable, attainable, credible, imaginable, likely, plausible, potential, probable. Part 3 – 35 – 6. Abnormal, bizarre, eerie, irregular, odd, peculiar, queer, surreal, weird. 7. Awash, damp, dewy, drenched, moist, soaked, waterlogged. 8. Diffuse, imprecise, indefinite, uncertain, unclear, undefined, unspecific. 9. Bulky, enormous, gigantic, massive, voluminous. 10. Demanding, burdensome, onerous, problematic, strenuous.

Exercise 43. Make synonymic groups from the words below. Give a dominant synonym for each of the group.

Adoration, angry, affection, attachment, boldness, bravery, composition, constitution, construction, courage, cross, daring, detestation, dislike, displeased, drag, draw, effort, elegant, employ, endeavour, exploit, fashionable, fearlessness, fondness, furious, heroism, hatred, infuriated, liking, love, make, organization, passion, smart, structure, stylish, trial, try, unusable, unworkable, use, useless, utilise, worked up, worthless.

Exercise 44. In the following sentences, find the words which can be members of a synonymic group. Build a synonymic group with that word.

1. From Greece to Japan, rich countries have racked up massive state debts. 2. We are the small, underdog company. But we think our product, our price point and the consumer interface we have from our stores give us a compelling proposition and an opportunity to do something others can’t. Systenatic Character of the Vocabulary: Synonyms,Antonyms, Homonums – 36 – 3. I’ve talked a great deal over the last couple of years about the fact that we’re now profitable in China, but we’re still significantly understored. 4. Most of my engineering friends went into horribly stifling jobs where they get to design things like an on-switch that clicks. 5. She was obsessed with art, film and books, and her taste in decadent demigods was impeccable, from Charles Baudelaire to William Burroughs. 6. He was pale and slim with masses of dark curls, lying barechested with strands of beads around his neck. 7. Martin saw Mary very often and soon became quite cordial, always greeting her with a smile and nod when she entered. 8. In the company of the duke Oscar knew his daughter had nothing to dread. 9. The edifice looked as impressive in actuality as it did in photographs.

Exercise 45. Words in the following pairs in some contexts become synonyms. However, their meanings can also be semantically not related. Provide different context for these words to show their synonymy and polysemy.

Anxiety – care, broad – wide, curious – inquisitive, flame – passion, hungry – greedy, professor – teacher, tiny – petite. Part 3 – 37 – Exercise 46. Prove that the pairs of synonyms given in bold type make one semantic unit. Which of them are phraseological units and which are contextual units 1. About the time of twilight Mr. Dombey, grievously afflicted with aches and pains, was helped into his carriage (Ch.D). 2. This is the place – these narrow ways diverge to the right and left, and reek everywhere with dirt and filth (Ch.D). 3. It is not only your skill and dexterity that fascinates me. It is your cheery confidence in yourself that does me good (J.K.J.). 4. Without listening to excuse and apology … though unconscious of anything save the support which it gave, she was urging, and almost dragging him forward (W. Sc.). 5. After perusing these papers, the Master of Ravenswood remained for a minute or two with his hand pressed against his brow, in deep and profound meditation (W. Sc.). 6. Her cleanliness and purity had reacted upon him, and he felt in his being a crying need to be clean (J. L.). 7. Over and above this, on a snow-white napkin spread upon the sideboard, was a huge ham and a huge sirloin (A. T.). 8. Now you see she is high and mighty, an empress couldn’t be grander (W. Th.). Materials for this exercise are borrowed from Grinberg L.E., et all.

Exercise 47. Replace some of the words with their synonyms if possible. How does the text change?

1) Victor was already carrying my suitcase when I saw the mailman coming, a pleasant young black man. Letters in hand, I jumped into the car, and left Chicago. I couldn’t wait to get to my friend’s house. Victor and Jean are my close friends. They live in Indiana by the lake in a very peaceful spot called Oak Spring. I planned to spend a week of my vacation there. I talked to Victor on the way, and completely forgot about my mail! But I didn’t open it when we arrived either. There was Jean to talk to, cool drinks in tall glasses, and Jean’s noisy children to confront. Finally, after dinner, when Jean was making my bed, I spilled the contents of my purse onto the table. I do that at home too, because I never know what could have ended up in my bag during the course of the day (B.P.). 2) After driving Dewey and her camping gear onto the spit, after saying she’d be right back, Lilah went to see the taxidermist. A stout man with an amazing expanse of property and a view of the mountains beyond the bay, which Lilah could not see for the fog, greeted her at the foot of his gravel driveway. He was proud of the money he’d earned, what with all the fish to be stuffed and mailed back to the East Coast, where they’d be mounted on various ‘adventurer’s’ mantle pieces. He even shared his secrets about the construction of fibreglass fish moulds with Lilah. She, at one time, had dreamed of being a sculptor, before settling for a more practical Liberal Arts education (L.S.).

 **DEFINITION OF ANTONYMS. CLASSIFICATION OF ANTONYMS**

**Items for discussion:**

1. Definition of antonyms.

2. Classification of antonyms.

3. Converseness.

Exercise 1. Give derivational antonyms to the following words.

Approve, backwards, bend, careful, connect, continue, convenient, fold, important, legal, legible like, lock, mature, painful, patient, polysyllabic, probable, pure, replaceable, resistible, upstairs, uptown, useful, wrap

Exercise 2. Arrange antonyms into three groups: a) absolute antonyms, b) derivational antonyms, c) mixed antonyms.

Active, add, alive, appearance, asleep, attentive, close, competent, convenient, crooked, distrust, easy, employed, exhale, faithful, light, lower, necessary, outside, post-meridian, rational, strong, timidity, underestimate.

Exercise 3. Use antonyms for the words in bold. Indicate whether they are absolute or derivational antonyms.

 1. He has recently made this rejection explicit. 2. Companies claim to be able to produce limitless amounts of power. 3. Managers can transform a too much lethargic work culture in creative ways. 4. Our occasional quarrels are reminders of a basic primordial human need for a role in a small family unit on which we still depend. Part 3 – 41 – 5. When life gets too hectic, it impacts our mental and physical well-being, it’s time to take action. 6. Through diligent research of old issues of the newspapers the research assistants gathered page after page. 7. I’m thoroughly convinced that her popularity is due to her bizarre outfit. 8. Everyone was amazed at the writing style in what could have been a horribly bland book. 9. The task is to examine whether these events were the results of a premeditated actions of one person or a group of persons. 10. Experts will present American attitudes towards the solid waste industry and efforts to change obsolete views and stereotypes.

**3-SEMINAR. WORD-FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH**

**Topics for discussion:**

1. The morphological structure of a word. The morpheme. The principles of morphemic analysis. Types of morphemes. Structural types of words: simple, derived, compound words.

2 Productivity. Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.

3 Affixation. General characteristics of suffixes and prefixes. Classification of prefixes according to: a) their correlation with independent words; b) meaning; c) origin. Classification of suffixes according to: a) the part of speech formed; b) the criterion of sense; c) stylistic reference; d) origin.

4 Productive and non-productive affixes, dead and living affixes.

5 Word-composition. Classification of compound words: a)from the functional point of view; b)from the point of view of the way the components of the compound are linked together; c)from the point of view of different ways of composition.

Coordinative and subordinative compound words and their types.

**Exercise 1.**

Analyse the following words morphologically and classify them according to what part of speech they belong to:

Post-election, appoint, historic, mainland, classical, letterbox, outcome, displease, step, incapable, supersubtle, illegible, incurable, adjustment, ladyhood, elastic, perceptible, inaccessible, partial, ownership, idealist, hero, long-term, corporate.

**Exercise 2.**

Analyse the structure of the following compounds and classify them into coordinative and subordinative, syntactic and asyntactic:

Bookbinder, doorbell, key-note, knife-and-fork, hot-tempered, dry-clean, care-free, policy-maker, mad-brained, five-fold, two-faced, body-guard, do-it-yourself, boogie-woogie. оfficer-director, driver-collector, building-site.

**Exercise 3.**

Classify the compound words in the following sentences into compounds proper and derivational compounds:

l) She is not a mind-reader. 2) He was wearing a brand-new hat. 3) She never said she was homesick. 4) He took the hours-old dish away. 5) She was a frank-mannered, talkative young lady. 6) The five years of her husband's newspaper-ownership had familiarised her almost unconsciously with many of the mechanical aspects of a newspaper printing-shop. 7) The parlour, brick-floored, with bare table and shiny chairs and sofa stuffed with horsehair seemed never to have been used. 8) He was heart-sore over the sudden collapse of a promising career. 9) His heavy-lidded eyes and the disorder of his scanty hair made him look sleepy.

**Exercise 4.**

Study the following passage. What is understood by the term "productivity"?

Word-formation appears to occupy a rather special place in grammatical description. In many cases the application of apparently productive rules leads to the generation of compounds and derivatives that are, for one reason or another, felt to be unacceptable or at least very old by native speakers, and the grammarian must decide what status he is to give to such rules and their output in his grammar. The decision is by no means easy, and can lie anywhere between the setting up of maximally general rules of a generative type, with little concern for the fact that much of their output may in some sense be questionable, and the simple listing and classifying, in terms of syntactic function and internal structure, of attested forms... Processes of word-formation often seem to belong to a somewhat vague intermediary area between grammar and lexicon, and while this needs not prevent us from giving formal statements of these processes, it may often be necessary to state restrictions on their output in primarily semantic terms if we want to hold on to the criterion if native speaker acceptance as an essential measure of the adequacy of our description. Thus in the area of English nominal compounds it would seem that actually occurring compounds are not as a rule created like new sentences in order to refer to momentary conditions. Leaving aside the possible difficulties of stating such semantic considerations in a reasonably rigorous way in any given case, the problem is to determine, for the various word-formative processes in which they appear to play a part how they can most reasonably be accommodated within an over-all framework, of grammatical and semantic description. (Karl E. Zimmer, Affixal Negation in English and other languages).

**Word-formation in Modern English (continued) Topics for discussion.**

1 Conversion, its definition. The word-building means in conversion. Different view-points on conversion. Typical semantic relations within a converted pair (verbs converted from nouns, nouns converted from verbs).

2.Shortening. Lexical abbreviations. Acronyms. Clipping. Types of clipping.

3.Non-productive means of word formation. Blending. Back-formation. Onomatopoeia. Sentence - condensation. Sound and stress interchange.

**Exercise 1.**

Study the following passage and be ready to discuss denominal verbs in Modern English.

The meanings of ordinary denominal verbs are seem to be clear, bear at least an approximate relationship to their "parent" nouns, from which they were historically derived. The verb *bottle* bears some relation, at last diachronically, to its parent noun *bottle.* To illustrate the major relationships, we will present classification of more than 1300 denominal verbs collected from newspaper, magazines, novels, television. To make our task manageable, we have included only those verbs that fit these four guidelines:

(a)Each verb had to be formed from its parent noun without affixation (though with possible final voicing, as in *shelve).* This is by far the commonest method of forming denominal verbs in English.

(b)The parent noun of each verb had to denote a palpable object or property of such an object, as in *sack, knee,* and *author* - but not climax, function, or question.

(c) Each verb had to have a non-metaphorical concrete use as far as possible. This again was to help keep our theory of interpretation within limits, although in some cases we couldn't avoid examining certain extended meanings.

(d) Each verb had to be usable as a genuine finite verb. This excluded expressions like three - towered and six - legged, which occur only as denominal adjectives. (E. Clark and H. Clark. When nouns surface as verbs).

**Exercise 2.**

Comment on the formation of the words given below: to burgle, to springclean, to typewrite, to beg, to note.

**Exercise 3.**

Explain the formation of the following blends: flush, glaze, good-bye, electrocute, pomato, twirl, dollarature, cablegram, galumph, frutopia drink.

**Exercise 4.**

Give verbs corresponding to the nouns that have been underlined. Compare the place of the stress in the noun and the verb.

1. He looked up all among the trees he saw moving objects, red like poppies, or white like May-blossoms. 2.1 am not sure that I can define my fears: but we all have a certain anxiety at present about our friends. 3. Accent is the elevation of the voice which distinguishes one part of a word from another. 4. Her conduct was deferential.

**Exercise 5.**

Abbreviate the following nouns to the first syllable.

Mitten, doctor, grandmother, cabriolet, public, house, gymnasium, proprietor, fraternity, labouratory, margarine, sister, mathematics, trigonometry, veterinary, gladiolus.

**Exercise 6.**

Comment on the way the underlined words are formed.

1. After dinner, the woman cleared the table. 2. Finally, to quiet him, she said that she hadn't really meant it. 3. The differences are now being narrowed 4. Her face, heated with his own exertions, chilled suddenly. 5. Warmed by the hot tea, he warmed to the argument. 6. She came dressed up to the nines. 7. A win in this match is a must. 8. Turn your ought into shalls.

**Exercise 7.**

Supply the corresponding full names for the given abbreviations of American state (e.g. Colo - Colourado) and so: Ala., Cal., Fla., Ga., Ill., Ind., Kan., Ken., Md., N.D., NJ, NY, Oreg., S.C., Tex.

**AFFIXATION AND ITS SUBDIVISIONS. CONVERSION**

**Affixation**

Key words: *derivational affix, suffix, prefix, derivational (underlying) base, selectional rule, steps (degrees) of derivation, native and Neo-Latin bases of affixation, word formation affixal field, semi-affix, morphonological change*.

Look up these terms in the glossary or in the sources indicated in the bibliography to the glossary. Compare the definitions given in English and in Russian.

**Problems for Discussion**

1. The derivational status of an affix. Derivational vs. inflectional morphology. Problems and solutions.
2. Derivation on the native and neo-Latin bases in present-day English.
3. Selectional rules and derivational affixal patterns.
4. Productivity and activity of affixal derivational patterns.
5. Affixal word formation fields.
6. Correlative word formation fields and patterns in English and Belarusian (Russian, German, French, etc.) languages.

**Questions and Tasks**

1. Study the following words and say in which of them the affix is a derivational one: *redeem, redefine, ardent, dependent, educator, alligator, harmonious, vivacious, intake, inspect, desurface, destroy, appreciative, derogative*. Find your own examples of analogous words.
2. Study the following pairs of words and group them. Define the difference between the groups: *create – creation, eliminate – elimination, dominate – domination, farm – farming, clean – cleaning, question – questioning, polite – politeness, separate – separateness, persuade – persuasive, submit – submissive.* Comment on the etymology of the derivational affixes used in the above given derivatives and on the way of borrowing affixes.
3. Write down the derivational formulae of the following words: *unpretentiousness, malodorousness, trades-unionist, nuclear-physicist, desynonymize, misappreciation, unpleasantness*. Use two ways of notation.
4. Analyze the derivational structure of the following words and say how many steps of derivation they have undergone: *indisputableness, unknowableness, irresponsiveness, unseaworthyness, theatricalization, revitalization, dehydrogenizer, librarianess, petticoatless*. Find your own examples of words of 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc. degrees of derivation.
5. Study the rows of derivatives with the affixes *anti-, non-, re-, un-, -able, ed, -er, -ish, -ism, -like*. Use dictionaries, including the reverse ones, for the purpose.
6. Comment on the phonological, morphological, semantic properties of derivational bases with which the affixes *anti-, non-, re-, un-, -able, -ed, -er, -ish, -ism, -like* go into combination.
7. Give examples of productive, semi-productive and non-productive derivational patterns in present-day English word formation.
8. Give examples of active and non-active affixal patterns in present-day English word formation.
9. Name the English affixes of negation, resemblance, state and quality. Find the correlative affixes in Belarusian, Russian, German, French, etc.
10. Compare the groups of derivatives with the English suffixes *-an, -er, -ist* and other agentive suffixes with the groups of derivatives with the Russian agentive suffixes *-тель, -ник, -арь, -щик* and others. Comment on their differences and similarities.

**Conversion**

**Key words**: *zero derivation, conversion, functional change (shift), root formation, non-affixal word formation, morphological paradigm, direction of derivation, semanticrelations*.

Look up these terms in the glossary or in the sources indicated in the bibliography to the glossary. Compare the definitions given in English and in Russian.

**Problems for Discussion**

1. *Love – to love, to run – a run*: a way of derivation or a functional shift?
2. The definition of the derivation device in various theories: zero-derivation, non-affixal word formation, conversion, morphological, syntactic, morphological-syntactic way of word formation.
3. The domain of zero derivation and its results: adjectivization, substantivization, occasional conversion, root formation.
4. Derivative relations in conversion pairs and criteria of their directionality.
5. Semantic relations in conversion pairs and their propositional basis.

**Questions and Tasks**

1. Сompare the wordforms given below and say morphological paradigms of what words they are members of: *(a bottle’s) cork – cork (the bottle), (an initial) step – initial (the memo), (a grey) wig – wig (the actress), (an old) tree – tree (the avenue), (long) marches – (the soldiers) marched.*
2. Compare the following derivative verbs and define the difference in the way they were coined: *jail (the prisoner) – imprison (the thief), hospitalize (the patient) – volunteer (the information).*Find analogous examples.
3. Analyze the morphemic structure of the following verbs and name the shortcomings of the root formation theory: *wallpaper the wall, spraypaint the door, tar-and-feather the prisoner, tea-cosy the pot, sidetrack the detective*. Find your own examples of the verbs of similar structure.
4. Study the relations between words in the following pairs and say which of them is the basic one and which is derived: *rake* n – *rake* v, *farm* n – *farm* v, *tail* n – *tail* v, *bicycle* n – *bicycle* v, *show* n – *show* v, *answer* n – *answer* v, *mature* adj – *mature* v, *gossip* n – *gossip* v, *wet* adj – *wet* v, *clean*adj – *clean* v, *drive* n – *drive* v. Name the criteria you have used.
5. Find examples of verbs derived from nouns which have the following types of meaning: *cover (as in carpet the floor, varnish the furniture), deprive of cover (as in skin the rabbit, shell the peanuts), locate (as in ground the planes, shelter the fugitives), act as an agent or an experiencer (as in nurse the patient, shepherd the sheep, witness the accident), act as an instrument (nail the board, mouth the words, plane the wood smooth).*
6. Define the semantic relations in the following pairs of words: *catch* v – *catch* n, *rub* v – *rub* n, *say* v – *say* n, *drive* v – *drive* n, *find* v – *find* n, *run*v – *run* n, *ride* v – *ride* n. Find analogous examples.
7. Analyze the structural and semantic properties of the following words and explain why the formation of verbs on their basis is not welcome: *baker, farmer, banker, driver, hospital, Dodge, Ford, spring, fall (autumn), Fourth-of-July, Saturday*. Find your own examples of unwelcome verbs and nouns.
8. Analyze the structure and semantics of Russian verbs *лопатить, утюжить, партизанить*, German nouns *Leben, Bad, Gähnen*. Find analogous examples in the languages you know and say what type of derivation they represent.

**Recommended Reading**

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**1.3. AMALIY MASHG’ULOT MAVZULARI**

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| **Lesson 1. The System of English Phonemes. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English. Word Stress in English. The Functions of Sentence Stress. Intonation. Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.****Plan:*** 1. **What is intonation?**
	2. **Early treatments**
	3. **Tonetic stress marks**
	4. **Origins of the autosegmental approach to intonation**
	5. **The phonetic basis**
	6. **Functions of intonation**
	7. **Types of tones**

**8. Same text, different tunes**Jones (1960) - "the variations which take place in the pitch of the voice in connected speech, i.e. the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by vibration of the vocal cords."Unlike *lexical tone* (as in tone languages), changing intonation does not change the lexical identity/meaning of individual words, though it may alter the meaning of the sentence as a whole.*Pitch accent* languages (e.g. Japanese, Swedish) used to be regarded as an intermediate case: superficially like lexical tone languages, but phonologically pitch functions like stress in these languages. In most stress-accent languages, pitch is an important correlate of stress, so the dividing lines between tone, stress and pitch-accent are fuzzy.E.g. Steele (1775), Jones (1960) recorded intonation for whole sentences. Jones, following Kingdon (1958), analysed English intonation in terms of two sentence tunes. Refer to attached extracts from Jones for examples of the two tunes in use. It was recognised that the tunes might be distributed over a larger or smaller number of syllables, and that an utterance with several "sense groups" might have a multiply-peaked pitch contour, but the syntax of tunes was not explored deeply. O'Connor and Arnold (1973) divided intonation groups into four parts:Описание: http://www.phon.ox.ac.uk/jcoleman/intonation_fig1.gif1. The *pre-head* - all the initial unaccented syllables.2. The *head*- between the pre-head and the nucleus.3. The *nucleus*- the main accented syllable.4. The *tail*- all the syllables after the nucleus.They identified 10 tunes.Kingdon, O'Connor and Arnold and others employed a variety of diacritic symbols known as *tonetic*stress marks to denote various intonational events. *Accents*were held to be dynamic (contour) tones. The most important accents in English are:Описание: Tonetic stress marks(Current IPA tone marks include: high (level) tone: é, low (level) tone: è, (high) falling tone: ê, rising tone: Описание: Rising tone)This approach, characteristically of structuralist methodology, concentrates on compendious exemplification and collection of large, annotated, orderly corpora of categorized examples, rather than the formulation of inviolable rules for determining the intonation patterns and their alignment with text.Goldsmith (1981) proposed that English lexical stress could be characterised by a MHL autosegmental melody, in which the H tone corresponds with the strongest stress, marked with a \*:Описание: English stress as toneLiberman (1975) pursued the same approach to characterise English intonation more generally. For example, he identified a LHM "calling" intonation, in which the H tone docks onto the main stress, and the initial L tone spreads in the usual autosegmental fashion to all pre-stress syllables:Описание: Calling intonationThe fruition of this line of research is seen in Pierrehumbert (1980) and subsequent work from the same perspective (e.g. Liberman and Pierrehumbert 1984, Beckman and Pierrehumbert 1986, Pierrehumbert and Beckman 1988).Pre-Liberman approaches to intonation were based on impressionistic pitch records, supplemented by some instrumental analysis of *f*0. Pierrehumbert (1980: 3):*What will be used here as the phonetic representation, or the output of these implementation rules, is the F0 contour. The choice of this representation as against a fine transcription in the character of IPA segmental transcription is theoretically motivated. One of the main themes of the work presented here is that interesting language-specific rules can be found all the way down to a quantitative description of speech. There is no well-defined level of description ... at which the linguist may leave off and turn his work over to the physiologist.*Liberman, Pierrehumbert and Beckman were engaged in the construction of speech synthesis systems for English and Japanese, which required explicit control of *f*0and segmental durations (including pauses). (See Pierrehumbert 1981). All other phonetic parameters were generated by a scheme for concatenation of LPC-encoded diphones. Unlike much other research in linguistics, such work permits no hand-waving.**Some properties of f0:**a) *f*0corresponds to rate of vibration of the vocal cords. b) Therefore, *f*0= 0 during unvoiced speech e.g. during voiceless consonants as well as pauses. c) *f*0is therefore discontinuous, though there may be an underlying appearance of continuity (see fig. 1.5). d) The overall shape of the *f*0contour is under the conscious control of the speaker, but some speech sounds introduce fine-scale "microprosodic" perturbations, often due to aerodynamic factors. In particular, high vowels tend to raise *f*0; voiceless obstruents tend to raise *f*0at the start of the following vowel; and voiced consonants and the glottal stop are associated with a drop in *f*0. It is important not to mistake such perturbations for accents. e) Speakers do not usually use their full pitch range in speech. The actual range may vary e.g. be larger in more animated speech. In addition, speakers may employ a higher or lower "register" within their normal spoken pitch range. In some languages, register appears to be phonological. f) A speaker's pitch range may fall or rise during speech, independently of the falls and rises of *f*0:Описание: DeclinationThis phenomenon is called *downdrift*or *declination*.g) When the top line appears to step down, rather than gradually drift, we have the related phenomenon of *downstep*, *catathesis*or *tone terracing:*Описание: DownstepIn tone languages, downstep typically affects H tones after a L. "List intonation" is similar eg. "Blueberries, bayberries, raspberries, mulberries and brambleberries". The high-pitched "calling" intonation in fig. 1.1C shows two high peaks. Pierrehumbert analysed such cases as an instance of downstep, and thus analysed the first accent as not just a simple H tone, but as a H on the stressed syllable, combined with a L target at the end of the first syllable, which conditions downstep of the following H tone. As in other areas of autosegmental phonology, Pierrehumbert treated dynamic accents as a sequence of two tones (bitonal accents).**A. Intonation and syntactic structure**1a) Here's a word you can look ûp. ("Up" is a particle.)b) Here's a chimney you can lóòk up. ("Up" is a preposition.)2 a) Bond had instructions to léàve. (So he left.)b) Bond had instrûctions to leave. (So he left them.)In the preceding examples, placement of the accent encodes a difference in syntactic structure. In the following examples, the major intonational phrase may be broken into two intermediate phrases, to denote a higher syntactic boundary.3 a) Have you seen any Martians who have green nôses? (One phrase: restrictive relative.)b) Have you seen any Mârtians, who have green nôses? (Two phrases: non-restrictive relative.)4 a) He can't see cléàrly. (One accent, one phrase.)b) He can't sèe, clèarly. (Two accents, two phrases.)In earlier descriptive studies, this phrasing was regarded as a question of two intonational boundaries:Word-group boundary: |Tone-group boundary: ||In contemporary approaches, intonation is characterized by a constituent structure (the prosodic hierarchy). In its simplest form, this is a simple two level structure:Описание: Prosodic structureRicher hierarchical structures were developed in Pierrehumbert and Beckman (1988).**B. Intonation and meaning**1 a) John*i* called Bill*j* a Republican, and then hé*j* insulted hîm*i*. (To call someone a Republican is an insult.)b) John*i* called Bill*j* a Republican, and thén he*i* insûlted him*j*. (To call someone a Republican is not an insult.)2 a) I didn't go, because my hâir was dirty.b) I didn't go because my hâir was Описание: Rising tonedirty. (I went for some other reason.)**C. Intonation and discourse structure, specifically focus**Refer to fig. 15 A-C. The text is the same in each case. In fig. 1.5 A, *vitamins*is accented, and hence focussed. This intonation might be a suitable reply to the preface "Legumes aren't good for anything, are they?". In fig 1.5 B, *good*is accented, hence focussed. This pattern might be a suitable retort to "Aren't legumes a lousy source of vitamins?". In fig. 1.5 C, *legumes*is accented. Preface: "What's a good source of vitamins?".Pierrehumbert distinguished between different types of tonal targets. We have seen various examples of dynamic accents, which are the head elements of intonational phrases. In addition, Pierrehumbert proposed to use H and L **boundary tones** at the beginning and end of major phrases, as well as a H or L **phrase accent** at the end of each intermediate phrase. Unlike standard autosegmental theory, Pierrehumbert did *not*employ spreading to derive the tone of unaccented syllables, but saw that as a matter of phonetic interpolation between phonologically-specified targets. In other words, the phonological representation of intonation is phonetically underspecified.* Phrase accents and boundary tones are edge elements that have a demarcative function.
* Pitch accents are head elements with culminative function.

Pitch accents were marked with a \*Phrase accents were marked with a -Boundary tones were marked with a %\*, - and % are just diacritics, unrelated to *f*0value. They only show how the tone is related to the text.Описание: H* and L*Phrase accents and boundary tones are not associated to segmental material, like pitch accents, but to prosodic nodes:Описание: Association to prosodic structureRefer to figs. 1.1 and 1.2:1.1 A could be the answer to a question ("Who was that?")1.1 B could be an answer to a question, with an indication of incompleteness1.1 C "calling" intonation.1.1 D "incredulous"1.1 E "Is it Anna?"1.2 A Answer to a question ("What's this?")1.2 C Expression of surprise (focus on another).9. Same tune, different texts - compare figs. 1.4 A and B.10. Boundary tonesInitial H%: see figs. 1.2 C, and 1.4 A and B.Final L%: see figs. 1.1 A, C, 1.2 A, B, C, etc.Final H% See figs. 1.1 B, D, E, etc.11. Pierrehumbert's Bitonal Pitch Accents**L\* + H-** "Scoop". A low tone with sharp rise to a high peak. See fig. 1.1 D.**L- + H\*** "Rising peak". A high peak preceded by a sharp rise from a valley in the lowest part of the pitch range. (Not illustrated here.)**H\* + L-** A H\* that induces following downstep. (Abandoned since Silverman et al. 1992). See fig. 1.1 C.**H- + L\*** Downstepped H that induces downstep on later H's. Characteristic of catathesis e.g.Описание: Ebenezer**H\* + H-** (Abandoned after Liberman and Pierrehumbert 1984).12. The grammar of tonal sequencesEach English intonational phrase, then, has the following structure:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Optional intial boundary tone**: one of | **One or more pitch accents**: one of | **A phrase accent**: one of | **A final boundary tone**: one of |
| H% | H\* | H- | H% |
| L% | L\* | L- | L% |
| None | L\* + H- |  |  |
|  | L- + H\* |  |  |
|  | H- + L\* |  |  |

Pierrehumbert (1980) characterised this structure by a finite-state transition network.13. Work in progressa) Extension to languages other than English:Japanese - Beckman and Pierrehumbert (1986), Pierrehumbert and Beckman (1988)Hausa - Inkelas and Leben (1990)Dutch - van den Berg et al. (1992)Swedish - Pierrehumbert and Beckman (1988: 243-251)b) Intonational typology – Laddc) Standardization of intonation corpora for English: ToBI (Silverman *et al*. 1992, Beckman and Ayers 1994, Pitrelli *et al*. 1994) d) Completely new views of intonation (e.g. Taylor 1994)**Recommended Reading:**Ladd (1992, 1996), Beckman and Pierrehumbert (1986)**References**Beckman, M. E. and G. M. Ayers (1994) Guidelines for ToBI labelling (version 2.0) Electronic document /opt/tobi/TOBI-TRAINING/labelling\_guide-V2.ASCII on OUPLSun.Beckman, M. E. and J. B. Pierrehumbert (1986) Intonational structure in Japanese and English. *Phonology Yearbook* **3**. 255-309.Bolinger, D. 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(1994) Evaluation of prosodic transcription labelling reliability in the ToBI framework. *International Conference on Spoken Language Processing*, Yokohama, Japan.Silverman, K., M. Beckman, J. Pitrelli, M. Ostendorf, C. Wightman, P. Price, J. Pierrehumbert and J. Hirschberg (1992) ToBI: A Standard for Labeling English Prosody. In J. J. Ohala, T. M. Nearey, B. L. Derwing, M. M. Hodge and G. E. Wiebe, eds. *ICSLP 92 Proceedings: 1992 International Conference on Spoken Language Processing*. Volume 2. Department of Linguistics, University of Alberta. 867-870.Steele, J. (1775) *An Essay towards Establishing the Melody and Measure of Speech*. [Scolar Press Facsimile Edition, 1969.]**Lesson 2. The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds****Plan: 1.** T**he articulatory aspect****2.The acoustic aspect****3.The auditory aspect and****4.The linguistic aspect**Speech sounds are of complex nature and have 4 different aspects, which are closely connected: **the articulatory aspect, the acoustic aspect, the auditory aspect and the linguistic aspect.** The ability to form language units is not the only property of the sound medium. In addition to it, the sound substance has its own independent properties as a physical phenomenon. Moreover, it is a product of human activity. Being created by the speaker, the sound substance indicates the speaker’s personality (sex, age, individual features), reveals his physiological and emotional state, geographical origin, education, social status and so on. Sound phenomena have different aspects. Every act of speech presupposes the presence of a person who speaks and a person who listens. The speaker produces sounds, the sounds travel through the air to the listener in the form of complex combinations of sound waves, the listener hears and interprets them. Communication is possible only because the speaker and the listener interpret the sounds as units of the same language.**The articulatory aspect**. Speech sounds are products of human organs of speech. They result from the activities of the diaphragm, the lungs, the bronchi, the trachea, the larynx with the vocal cords in it, the pharynx, the mouth cavity with the speech organs in it and the nasal cavity. Sound production is impossible without respiration, which consists of two phases- inspiration and expiration. Speech sounds are based chiefly on inspiration, though in some African languages there are sounds produced by inspiration.Expiration, during which speech sounds are produced, is called phonic expiration. It is distinct from quiet breathing. In phonic expiration the air comes from the lungs not freely but in spurts, because during speech the air passage is periodically blocked by the speech organs. Therefore in speech, expiration lasts much longer than inspiration, whereas in quite breathing inspiration and expiration each take about the same period of time. The lungs supply the necessary air-pressure and regulate its force. For example, the air pressure is greater on the peak of the syllable and it is less on its margins. Sound production actually takes place in the larynx, the pharynx and the oral and nasal cavities. The air-stream coming from the lungs undergoes important modifications in them. The other part of sound-production is articulation. The movements of speech organs modify the shape, size and volume supralanryngeat cavities. As a result, a vowel sound of a certain quality is produced. When there is an obstruction to the air-stream in the supralanryngeat cavities, a noise is produced. The character of the noise (friction or plosion) depends on the type of obstruction (a constriction or a complete closure) and determines the particular quality of a consonant. When an obstruction is created and the vocal cords vibrate, a voiced consonant is produced. When the vocal cords do not vibrate, the result is a voiceless consonant. Thus there are main sources of vibration in the production of speech sounds – **the vocal cords and various kinds of obstruction**. **The acoustic aspect**. Sounds can be analysed from the acoustic point of view. Like any other sound of nature speech sounds exist in the form of sound waves and have such physical properties as frequency, intensity, duration and spectrum. A sound wave is created by a vibration which may be periodic or non-periodic, simple or complex. The number of vibrations per second is called **frequency.** The complex range of intensified frequencies which form the quality of a sound is called the acoustic **spectrum of the sound**. **Intensity**of speech sounds depends on the amplitude of vibration. Changes in intensity are associated with stress in those languages which have dynamic stress. Intensity is measured in decibels. **The auditory aspect**. Speech sounds may also be analysed from the point of view of perception. It involves the activity of our hearing mechanism, which can be considered in two ways. On the one hand, it is a physiological mechanism, which reacts to acoustic stimuli. On the other hand, it is also a psychological mechanism, which selects from the great amount of acoustic information only that which is linguistically important. The human ear transforms mechanical vibrations of the ear into nervous stimuli and transmits them to the brain. The listener hears the acoustic features of fundamental frequency, format frequency, intensity and duration in terms of four perceptible categories of **pitch, quality, loudness and length.** **The linguistic aspect**. Segmental sounds and prosodic features are linguistic phenomena. Representing language units in actual speech, they perform certain linguistic functions. They constitute meaningful units- **morphemes, words, word-forms, utterances**. All the words of a language consist of speech sounds which are grouped and arranged in the way specific for the language and which are unified by stress. All the utterances consist of words and of sounds. They are characterized by certain **pitch-and-stress patterns, temporal features, rhythm**. The linguistic aspect of speech sounds is also called functional or social aspect, because of the role which sound matter play in the functioning of language as a social phenomenon. Segmental sounds and prosodic features of speech perform **constitutive, distinctive and identificatory functions.** The relations between the articulatory, acoustic, auditory and linguistic aspects of speech sounds can be presented in the following way:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Articulatory aspect | Acoustic aspect | Auditory aspect | Linguistic aspect |
| Vibration of the vocal cords | Fundamental frequency | Pitch | Prosody (melody, stress) |
| Different positions and movements of speech organs | Formant frequencies | Quality (timbre) | Phoneme, prosody (stress) |
| The amplitude of vibrations | Intensity | Loudness | Prosody (stress) |
| The quantity of time during which the sound is pronounced | Duration | Length | Prosody (tempo, rhythm) |

**Questions:**1. What sciences is phonetics connected with?2. What are the main branches of phonetics?3. What is the subject of special and general phonetics?4. What is a phonetic system of a language?5. What levels does the phonetic system of a language consist of?6. What are segmental units of the language?7. What are prosodic units of the language?8. What subsystems do the segmental units form?9. What subsystems do the prosodic units form?10. What are the stages of human speech formation?11. What aspect do sounds have?12. What phases does respiration consist of?13. What are the main sources of vibration in the production of speech sounds?14. What is frequency?15. What is spectrum?16. How is intensity measured?17. What are the perceptible features of auditory aspect of speech sounds?18. What meaningful units do segmental sounds and prosodic features constitute? |

**2-MODUL. INGLIZ TILI LEKSIKOLOGIYASI.**

**Lesson 1. Homonyms. The classification of homonyms. Homonymy and polysemy**

**Criteria of synonymity and classification of synonyms**

**Plan:**

**1.Diachronic approach to polysemy.**

**2. Classification of homonyms.**

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

**Lesson 2. Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms**

**Plan:**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Lesson 3. Word formation and ways of word formation. Affixation and its subdivisions. Conversion. Word combinations in Modern English.**

 **Ways of word formation**

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

In Linguistics, compounds can be either native or borrowed.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Rhyming compounds** (subtype of compounds)

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

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

*higgledy-piggledy, tootsie-wootsie*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Here are some more recent blends I have run across:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Folk etymology**

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Lesson 4. Phraseology in Modern English. Phraseological units with different components. The difference between British and American English.**

**Plan:**

**1.The role of Phraseology in Modern English.**

**2. Formation of phraseological units.**

**3. The differences between British and American English.**

Key words: stability vs. changeability, idiomaticity vs. motivation, word equivalence, set expressions, idioms, phraseological units (PhU), phraseological fusions, phraseological unities, phraseological collocations; traditional collocations, idioms proper, ready made utterances; free (variable) context combinations – non-variable (stable) context combinations, phrasemes vs. idioms.

Look up these terms in the glossary or in the sources indicated in the bibliography to the glossary. Compare the definitions given in English and in Russian.

Problems for Discussion

1. Motivation and variability of word combinations.

2. Free phrases versus phraseological units. Criteria and difficulties of differentiation.

3. Types of phraseological units. Classifications and their evaluation.

4. Linguistic laws of PhUs formation. Activity of words and syntactic patterns.

5. Contrastive study of phraseology. Common sources as the foundation for equivalent phraseological units. Socio-cultural properties of phraseological units.

Questions and Tasks

1. Analyze the following word combinations and comment on their meaning and variability of the components: settle the future of the country, shake hands on (over) the bargain, sink or swim, speak of the devil and he is sure to appear, wait for the postman, for a friend, for the train, for instructions.

2. Classify the following phraseological units using semantic, contextual and functional criteria: drenched to the bone, a break in the clouds, creditors have better memories than debtors, good egg, put all one’s eggs in one basket, separate the husk from the grain, Attic salt, to lick the boots, break bread with smb, shoot the bull.

**1.British English**

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

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

**1. British English**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Recommended Reading

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**GLOSSARY**

**Abbreviation** – a reduced version of a word, phrase, or sentence.

**Affix** – a meaningful form that is attached to another form, to make a more complex word.

**Ambiguity** – expression of more than one meaning.

**Amelioration** – a change of meaning in which a word loses an originally unpleasant sense.

**Antonym** – word that is opposite in meaning to another word.

**Assimilation** – the influence exercised by one sound upon the articulation of another, so that the sounds become more alike (*ten* in *ten pounds*becoming *tem*).

**Back formation** – a process of word formation where a new word is formed by removing an imagined affix from another word (*editor – edit*).

**Barbarism** – (use of) a word or action not in accordance with normal standards.

**Blend** – the result of two elements fusing to form a new word or construction.

**Borrow** – to introduce a word (or some other linguistic features) from one language or dialect into another; vocabulary borrowings are usually known as **loan words**.

**Clipping** – a process of word formation in which a new word is produced by shortening (*examination – exam*); also called **reduction**.

**Cockney** – characteristic of a native of London, esp. of the East End or speaking its dialect; this dialect.

**Compound** – a unit of vocabulary which consists of more than one lexical stem.

**Conversion** – a process of word formation where lexemes are made to change their word class without the tradition of an affix.

**Creole** – When children start learning a pidgin as their first language and it becomes the mother tongue of a community, it is called a creole. Like a pidgin, a creole is a distinct language which has taken most of its vocabulary from another language, the lexifier, but has its own unique grammatical rules. Unlike a pidgin, however, a creole is not restricted in use, and is like any other language in its full range of functions. Examples are Gullah, Jamaican Creole and Hawaiian Creole English.

**Denotation** – the objective (‘dictionary’) relationship between a word and the reality to which it refers; also called **cognitive/referential meaning**.

**Derivation** – a major process of word formation, especially using affixes to produce new words (*act – action*).

**Deterioration** – a change of meaning in which a word acquires a negative evaluation; also called **pejoration**.

**Dialect** – a language variety in which use of grammar and vocabulary identifies the regional or social background of the user. (CEEL) **Regional dialect** –a variety of a language spoken in a particular area of a country. Some regional dialects have been given traditional names which mark them out as being significantly different from standard varieties spoken in the same place. Some examples are “Hillbilly English” (from the Appalachians in the USA) and “Geordie” (from Newcastle upon Tyne in the UK). **Minority dialect** – a variety used sometimes by members of a particular minority ethnic group as a marker of identity, usually alongside a standard variety. Examples are African American Vernacular English in the USA, London Jamaican in Britain and Aboriginal English in Australia.

**Doublet** – one of a pair, esp. one of two words of the same derivation but different sense (*fashion* and *faction*, *cloak* and *clock*).

**Etymology** – study of the origins and history of the form and **folk etymology** – altering an unfamiliar word to make it more familiar (*asparagus – sparrow grass*); also called **popular etymology**.

**Extension** – in historical linguistics, widening the meaning of the word; also called **generalization**.

**Generalization** – in historical linguistics, widening the meaning of the word; also called **extension**.

**Holonym** – a word denoting whole of some part (e.g. *jacket* and *sleeve*).

**Homographs** – words with the same spelling but different meaning (e.g. *wind* ‘air’ vs. *wind* ‘turn’).

**Homonyms** – words with the same form but different meaning (e.g. *ear* ‘corn’ vs. *ear* ‘body part’).

**Homophones** – words with the same pronunciation but different meaning (*rode/rowed*).

**Hybrid** – a word composed of elements from different languages (*television*, from Greek and Latin).

**Hyponym** – a more specific term whose meaning is included in the meaning of a more general term (*cat* is a hyponym of *animal*).

**Hyponymy** – the relationship between specific and general words, when the former are included in the latter.

**Hyperonym** – a more general term whose meaning includes the meaning of a more specific term (*animal* is the hyperonym of *cat*).

**Idiolect** – the linguistic system of an individual speaker.

**Inflection** – in grammar, an affix that signals a grammatical relationship, e.g. case, tense (e.g. *girl’s, walked*).

**Lexeme** – a unit of lexical meaning, which exists regardless of any inflectional endings it may have or the number of words it may contain.

**Lexicon** – total stock of meaningful units in a language – not only the words and idioms, but also the parts of words which express meaning, such as prefixes and suffixes.

**Lexicology** – a branch of linguistics which deals with the study of all aspects of the vocabulary of the language (how words are formed, how they have developed over time, how they are used now, how they relate in meaning to each other and how they are handled in dictionaries and other word books).

**Lexicography** – a branch of lexicology dealing with writing dictionaries.

**Lingua franca** – a medium of communication for people who speak different first languages.

**Loan translation** – a borrowed item in which the parts are translated separately into a new language, as in *superman* from German *Übermensch*; also called a **calque**.

**Meronym** – a word denoting part of some whole (e.g. *sleeve* and *jacket*).

**Meronymy** – the relation between part and whole (e.g. *wheel* and *car*).

**Metaphor** – a figurative expression in which one notion is described in terms usually associated with another (e.g. *launch an idea*).

**Metonymy** – a semantic change where an attribute is used for the whole (e.g. *crown* and *king*).

**Morpheme** – the smallest meaningful unit in a language.

**Narrowing** – in historical linguistics, a type of change in which a word becomes more specialized in meaning (Old English *mete* ‘food’, now a type of food); also called **restriction**.

**Native** – belonging to a person or thing by nature, innate, inherent, natural, born in a place, indigenous, not exotic; of the natives of a place.

**Native (first) language** – the language first acquired as a child (mother tongue, native language), or preferred in a multilingual situation.

**Origin** – derivation, beginning or rising or coming from something, person’s ancestry, source, starting point (a word of Latin origin; country of origin).

**Part-whole relation** – the relation between part and whole; also called **meronymy** (e.g. *wheel* and *car*).

**Pidgin** – a new language which develops in situations where speakers of different languages need to communicate but don’t share a common language. The vocabulary of a pidgin comes mainly from one particular language (called the “lexifier”). An early “pre-pidgin” is quite restricted in use and variable in structure. But the later “stable pidgin” develops its own grammatical rules which are quite different from those of the lexifier. Once a stable pidgin has emerged, it is generally learned as a second language and used for communication among people who speak different languages. Examples are Nigerian Pidgin and Bislama (spoken in Vanuatu).

N o t e: **pidgin** is believed to have been a Chinese pronunciation of the English word *business*. There have been many forms of **pidgin English**, often with common elements because of the wide range of contacts made by commercial shipping.

**Polysemy** – different meanings of the same word.

**Productivity** – the potential of a linguistic rule to produce many instances of the same type.

**Reference** – the relationship between linguistic forms and entities in the world **(referents**).

**Referent** – an entity in the world denoted by a linguistic form.

**Restriction** – in historical linguistics, a type of change in which a word becomes more specialized in meaning (Old English *mete* ‘food’, now a type of food); also called **narrowing**.

**Root** – the base form of a word, from which other forms derive.

**Semantic component** – an element of a word’s meaning (*girl* – ‘young’, ‘female’, ‘human’); also called **a semantic feature**.

**Semantic field** – an area of meaning (e.g. colour) identified by a set of mutually defining items (red, blue, green, etc.); also called **a lexical field**.

**Semantic relations** – the meaning relations between words, as identified by the use of synonyms, antonyms, etc.; also called **sense relations**.

**Semantics** – the study of linguistic meaning.

**Sense relations** – the meaning relations between words, as identified by the use of synonyms, antonyms, etc.; also called **semantic relations**.

S**entence** – the largest structural unit that displays stateable grammatical relationships, not dependent on any other structure.

**Source language** – a language from which a word or text is taken.

**Standard** – a prestige variety, used as an institutionalized norm in a community; forms and varieties not conforming to this norm are said to be nonstandard or (pejoratively) substandard.

**Stem** – an element in a word to which affixes are attached.

**Synonym** – a word that has the same meaning (in a particular context) as another word (e.g. a nice *range/selection* of flowers).

**Triplet** – a group or set of three of one kind.

**Variety** – a situationally distinctive system of linguistic expression (legal, formal, etc.). **Indigenized variety** – indigenized varieties are spoken mainly as second languages in ex-colonies with multilingual populations. The differences from the standard variety may be linked to English proficiency, or may be part of a range of varieties used to express identity. For example, “Singlish” (spoken in Singapore) is a variety very different from Standard English, and there are many other varieties of English used in India.

**Vernacular** – the indigenous language or dialect of a community.

**Word formation** – the process of creating words out of sequences of morphemes.

**ГЛОССАРИЙ**

**Аббревиация, или сокращение/Abbreviation, orshortening** (от лат. *abbrevio* ‘сокращаю’) – процесс создания единиц вторичной номинации со статусом слова, который состоит в усечении любых линейных частей источника мотивации и который приводит в результате к появлению такого слова, которое в своей форме отражает лишь какую-то часть или части компонентов исходной мотивирующей единицы. Результат процесса аббревиации обозначается терминами *аббревиатура* или *сокращение*, которые очень часто используются как синонимы.

**Адвербиализация/Adverbialization** (от лат. *adverbium* ‘наречие’) – переход слова в класс наречий.

**Адъективация/Adjectivalization** (от лат. *adjectivum* ‘прилагательное’) – переход слова в класс прилагательных.

**Активность/Activity** – динамический, процессуальный аспект словообразовательной системы, ее способность к действию, пополнению языка новыми лексическими единицами, к выполнению определенных коммуникативных заданий.

**Алломорф (алломорфа)/Allomorph** (от греч. *állos* ‘иной’, ‘другой’ и *morphḗ* ‘форма’) – один из разнообразия морфов, репрезентирующих одну и ту же морфему.

**Антонимы/Antonyms** (от греч. *anti-* ‘против’ и *onyma* ‘имя’) – слова одной части речи, имеющие противоположные значения.

**Ассимиляция заимствования (полная и частичная)/Assimilation** (от лат. *assimilatio* ‘уподобление’) – приспосабливание заимствованного слова к системе заимствующего языка.

**Аффикс/Affix** (от лат. *affixus* ‘прикрепленный’) – служебная морфема, минимальный строительный элемент языка, присоединяемый к корню слова в процессах морфологической деривации и служащий преобразованию корня в грамматических или словообразовательных целях; важнейшее средство выражения грамматических и словообразовательных значений; часть слова, противопоставленная корню и сосредоточивающая его грамматические и/или словообразовательные значения.

**Аффиксальная база/Basisofaffixation** – часть слова, содержащая основу.

**Аффиксация/Affixation** – морфологический процесс, заключающийся в присоединении аффиксов к корням или основам.

**Безаффиксное словообразование/Non-affixalwordformation** – словообразование, при котором аффиксы не используются в качестве словообразовательного средства (т.е. используются чередование звуков, перенос ударения и т.п.).

**Валентность/Valence** (от лат. *valentia* ‘сила’) – способность слова вступать в синтаксические связи с другими элементами. Различаются специфичные для каждого языка сочетательные потенции частей речи, отражающие грамматические закономерности сочетаемости слов (например, в рус. яз. существительные шире сочетаются с наречием, чем во фр. яз.), и лексическая валентность, связанная с семантикой слова.

**Варваризм/Barbarism** (от греч. *bárbaros* ‘чужеземный’) – заимствованное слово чужого языка, получившее более или менее регулярное употребление в заимствующем языке (обычно как проявление моды).

**Вариантность (вариативность)/Variation, variety** (от лат. *varians*, род. п. *variantis* ‘изменяющийся’) – 1) представление о разных способах выражения какой-либо языковой сущности как об ее модификации, разновидности или как об отклонении от некоторой нормы; 2) термин, характеризующий способ существования и функционирования единиц языка и системы языковой в целом.

**Варианты/Variants** – разные проявления одной и той же сущности, например, видоизменения одной и той же единицы, которая при всех изменениях остается сама собой.

**Внутренняя форма слова/Innerformoftheword** – признак, легший в основу наименования.

**Гибрид/Hybrid** – слово, элементы которого заимствованы из разных языков.

**Гиперогипонимия/Hyperonym, hyperonymy, hyponym, hyponymy** (от греч. *hypér* ‘над’, ‘сверх’, *hypó* ‘под’, ‘внизу’ и *ónyma* ‘имя’) – одно из основных парадигматических отношений в семантическом поле – иерархическая организация его элементов, основанная на родо-видовых отношениях. При этом слова, соответствующие видовым понятиям (например, *дог, овчарка* и т.д.), выступают как **гипонимы** по отношению к слову, соотносящемуся с родовым понятием (*собака*), – **гиперониму** и как **согипонимы** по отношению друг к другу.

**Глоссарий/Glossary** – словарь малоупотребительных слов с толкованием.

**Грамматический контекст/Grammaticalcontext** – возможное словесное окружение слова, рассматриваемое на уровне частей речи.

**Графическое сокращение/Graphicalshortening** – условное сокращение часто встречающегося слова или словосочетания, употребляемое только в письменной речи и расшифровываемое при чтении; *противоп.***лексическое сокращение/lexicalshortening**.

**Группа семантическая/Semanticgroupofwords (lexico-semanticgroup (LSG)** – 1) подразряд слов в пределах данной части речи, объединенных общностью значения; 2) слова, объединяемые общностью значения, независимо от частеречной принадлежности.

**Группа тематическая/Lexicalset (thematicgroup)** – 1) то же, что серия лексическая, например, *тематическая группа предметов домашнего обихода, тематическая группа цвета* и т.д.; 2) ряд слов, более или менее близко совпадающих по своему основному (стержневому) семантическому содержанию, т.е. по принадлежности к одному и тому же семантическому полю.

**Денотат/Denotation** (от лат. *denotatum* ‘обозначаемое’) – обозначаемый предмет.

**Деривационные отношения/Derivativerelations** – отношения, возникающие между исходными и производными знаками языка (частный случай таких отношений – наиболее хорошо изученные отношения словообразовательной производности).

**Деривационные шаги (ступени деривации)/Steps (degrees) ofderivation** – формальные операции, последовательно применяемые к исходной единице.

**Деривация/Derivation** (от лат. *derivatio* ‘отведение’, ‘образование’) – процесс создания одних языковых единиц (дериватов) на базе других, принимаемых за исходные, в простейшем случае – путем «расширения» корня за счет аффиксации или словосложения, в связи с чем деривация приравнивается иногда к словопроизводству или даже словообразованию. Согласно более широкой точке зрения, деривация понимается либо как обобщенный термин для обозначения словоизменения (inflection) и словообразования (word formation) вместе взятых, либо как название для процессов (реже результатов) образования в языке любых вторичных знаков, в том числе предложений, которые могут быть объяснены с помощью единиц, принятых за исходные, или выведены из них путем применения определенных правил, операций.

**Диалект/Dialect** (от греч. *diálektos* ‘разговор’, ‘говор’, ‘наречие’) – разновидность данного языка, употребляемая в качестве средства общения лицами, связанными тесной территориальной, социальной или профессиональной общностью.

**Дивергенция/Divergence** (от ср.-лат. *divergo* ‘отклоняюсь’, ‘отхожу’) – расхождение, отдаление друг от друга двух или более языковых сущностей.

**Диглоссия/Diglossia** (от греч. *di-* ‘дважды’ и *glṓssa* ‘язык’) – одновременное существование в обществе двух языков или двух форм одного языка, применяемых в разных функциональных сферах.

**Дублет, или двойное заимствование/Doublet** – одно из двух или более слов, близких по значению и звучанию, связанных общностью происхождения и нередко возникающих в языке вследствие разновременного заимствования, откуда **этимологические дублеты/etymological doublets***,* например, рус. *сторона – страна*, англ. *hostel – hotel – hospital* и т.п.

**Заимствование/Borrowing** – элемент чужого языка (слово, морфема, синтаксическая конструкция и т.п.), перенесенный из одного языка в другой в результате контактов языковых, а также сам процесс перехода элементов одного языка в другой.

**Заимствованное слово/Borrowed, orloanword** – слово, появившееся в данном языке в результате заимствования; *противоп.***исконное слово**.

**Звукоподражание (ономатопея)/Sound-imitation (onomatopoeia, orechoism)** – 1) условное воспроизведение звуков природы и звучаний, сопровождающих некоторые процессы (дрожь, смех, свист и т.п.), а также криков животных; 2) создание слов, звуковые оболочки которых в той или иной степени напоминают называемые (обозначаемые) предметы и явления.

**Идиолект/Idiolect** (от греч. *ídios* ‘свой’, ‘своеобразный’, ‘особый’ и (диа)лект) – совокупность формальных и стилистических особенностей, свойственных речи отдельного носителя данного языка.

**Идиома/Idiom** – 1) словосочетание, обнаруживающее в своем синтаксическом и семантическом строении специфические и неповторимые свойства данного языка; 2) то же, что фразеологическая единица.

**Идиоматичность/Idiomaticity** – семантическая характеристика фразеологической единицы, заключающаяся в невыводимости значения целого языкового образования из совокупности значений входящих в него частей.

**Импликация/Implication** – подразумевание, невыражение.

**Инициальное сокращение, или акронимия/Initialshortening, oracronymy** – способ словообразования, в результате которого образуется сокращенное слово, включающее в свой состав начальные буквы/звуки (инициалы) слова или слов сокращаемого словосочетания.

**Интенсионал/Intension** – качества или свойства, составляющие внутреннее содержание слова или термина, его сигнификацию.

**Интернационализмы (интернациональные слова)/Internationalwords** – слова, совпадающие по своей внешней форме (с учетом закономерных соответствий звуков и графических единиц в конкретных языках), с полно или частично совпадающим смыслом, выражающие понятия международного характера из области науки и техники, политики, культуры, искусства и функционирующие в разных, прежде всего неродственных (не менее чем в трех) языках. Слова, заимствованные большинством языков мира из языка народа, который создал или ввел в общее употребление обозначаемые ими предметы.

**Исконное слово (первичное слово)/Vernacularword (nativeword)** – наиболее старое (основное) слово данного языка как представитель первоначального лексического состава; *противоп.***заимствованное слово**.

**Источник заимствования/Sourceofborrowing** – язык, из которого заимствована данная лексическая единица.

**Категориальные семантические признаки/Categorialfeatures** – признаки, на основании общности которых осуществляется объединение лексических единиц в лексико-грамматические классы, или части речи.

**Кокни/Cockney** – лондонское просторечие.

**Конвергенция/Convergence** (от лат. *convergo* ‘приближаюсь’, ‘схожусь’) – сближение или совпадение двух или более лингвистических сущностей.

**Конверсия, или нулевое словообразование/Conversion, orzero-derivation** (от лат. *conversio* ‘изменение’, ‘превращение’) в словообразовании – способ словообразования без использования специальных словообразовательных аффиксов; разновидность транспозиции, при которой переход слова из одной части речи в другую происходит так, что назывная форма слова одной части речи (или его основа) используется без всякого материального изменения в качестве представителя другой части речи (ср. нем. *leben* ‘жить’ и *dasLeben* ‘жизнь’, англ. *salt* ‘соль’ и *tosalt* ‘солить’, *tojump* ‘прыгать’ и *ajump* ‘прыжок’ и т.п.).

**Конкордансы/Concordances** – словоуказатели с контекстами, являющиеся одним из результатов автоматической обработки текста в автоматизированных лексикографических системах.

**Коннотация/Connotation** (ср.-лат. *connotatio*, от *connoto* ‘имею дополнительное значение’) – эмоциональная, оценочная или стилистическая окраска языковой единицы узуального (закрепленного в системе языка) или окказионального характера.

**Контекст/Context** (от лат. *contextus* ‘соединение’, ‘связь’) – фрагмент текста, включающий избранную для анализа единицу, необходимый и достаточный для определения значения этой единицы, являющегося непротиворечивым по отношению к общему смыслу данного текста.

**Контекст ситуации (обстановка речи)/Contextofsituation** – условия, в которых осуществляется данный акт речи с точки зрения их воздействия на содержание последнего, его детерминированности особенностями данной культурной общности.

**Корень/Root** – носитель вещественного, лексического значения слова, центральная его часть, остающаяся неизменной в процессах морфологической деривации; выражает идею тождества слова самому себе; коррелирует с понятием лексемы; простая, или непроизводная основа слова, остающаяся после устранения всех словообразовательных и/или словоизменительных элементов.

**Корневое словообразование/Rootformation** – один из терминов, используемый наравне с термином *безаффиксное словообразование*для обозначения процесса конверсии. Словообразовательный процесс, в результате которого образуются слова, являющиеся по своему морфемному составу корневыми, т.е. состоящими из одного корня.

**Косвенное сложное слово/Idiomaticcompound** – сложное слово, значение которого не выводимо из значений составляющих его основ, также вследствие идиоматичности синтаксического построения.

**Креативность/Creativity** – нерегулируемое правилами речевое поведение говорящих, в основе которого лежит осознанная интенция создания какого-либо эффекта при порождении новой единицы.

**Креольские языки/Creoles, orCreoleslanguages** – языки, сформировавшиеся на основе пиджинов и ставшие родными (первыми) для определенного коллектива их носителей.

**Лексикализация/Lexicalization** – превращение элемента языка (морфемы, словоформы) или сочетания элементов (словосочетания) в отдельное знаменательное слово или в другую эквивалентную ему словарную единицу (например, во фразеологизм).

**Лексикография/Lexicography** (от греч. *lexikós* ‘относящийся к слову’ и *gráphō* ‘пишу’) – раздел языкознания, занимающийся практикой и теорией составления словарей.

**Лексикология/Lexicology** (от греч. *lexikós* ‘относящийся к слову’ и *lógos* ‘учение’) – раздел языкознания, изучающий словарный состав, лексику языка.

**Лексико-семантический вариант/Lexico-semanticvariation** – иерархически организованная совокупность сем; структура, в которой выделяется интегрирующее родовое значение (архисема), дифференцирующее видовое (дифференциальная сема), а также потенциальные семы, отражающие побочные свойства предмета, реально существующие или приписываемые ему коллективом.

**Лексическая единица/Lexicalunit, oritem** – единица, основное содержание которой имеет материальный (вещественный, т.е. не грамматический) характер, а выражение находится в соответствии с правилами оформления отдельного слова, свойственными данному языку.

**Лексическая парадигма/Lexicalparadigm** – объединение грамматически однородных слов, имеющих семантическую общность.

**Лексический контекст/Lexicalcontext** – набор лексических единиц, с которыми то или иное слово вступает во взаимодействие для реализации конкретного значения.

**Лексическое значение слова/Lexicalmeaning** – содержание слова, отображающее в сознании и закрепляющее в нем представление о предмете, свойстве, процессе, явлении и т.д.

**Лингва франка/Linguafranca** (от итал. *linguafranca* ‘франкский язык’) – функциональный тип языка, используемый в качестве средства общения между носителями разных языков в ограниченных сферах социальных контактов.

**Лингвистическая энциклопедия/Linguisticencyclopedia** – научное справочное издание, содержащее систематизированный свод знаний о языке и методах его описания.

**Ложные друзья переводчика/Translator’sfalsefriends** – слова, совпадающие по своей внешней форме (с учетом закономерных соответствий звуков и графических единиц в конкретных языках) и практически полностью не совпадающие по своему значению.

**Метафора/Metaphor** (от греч. *metaphorá* ‘перенос’) – троп или механизм речи, состоящий в употреблении слова, обозначающего некоторый класс предметов, явлений и т.п., для характеризации или наименования объекта, входящего в другой класс, либо наименования другого класса объектов, аналогичного данному в каком-либо отношении.

**Метонимия/Metonymy** (от греч. *metōnymia* ‘переименование’) – троп или механизм речи, состоящий в регулярном или окказиональном переносе имени с одного класса объектов или единичного объекта на другой класс или отдельный предмет, ассоциируемый с данным по смежности, сопредельности, вовлеченности в одну ситуацию.

**Морф, морфа/Morph** (от греч. *morphḗ* ‘форма’) – минимальная значимая единица текста, текстовый представитель морфемы.

**Морфема/Morpheme** (от греч. *morphḗ* ‘форма’) – одна из основных единиц языка, часто определяемая как минимальный знак, т.е. такая единица, в которой за определенной фонетической формой (означающим) закреплено определенное содержание (означаемое) и которая не членится на более простые единицы того же рода.

**Морфемно нечленимое слово/Monomorphicword** – слово, морфемная структура которого представлена одной единственной морфемой.

**Морфемно членимое слово/Polymorphicword** – слово, морфемная структура которого представлена несколькими морфемами.

**Морфологическая парадигма/Morphologicalparadigm** – система форм одного слова.

**Морфонологические изменения/Morphonologicalchanges** – изменения, благодаря которым осуществляется, поддерживается или усиливается дифференциация форм на морфологическом уровне.

**Мотивация (мотивированность)/Motivation** – семантическая обусловленность значения той или иной лексической единицы значениями ее составляющих.

**Направление деривации (производности) (от имени – к глаголу или же от глагола – к имени и т.п.)/Directionofderivation** – одна из составляющих деривационных отношений, возникающих между исходной и производной знаками языка в процессе словообразования (например, в процессе конверсии).

**Народная этимология/Folk, orpopularetymology** – преобразование слов в сторону их сближения с другими словами, которые представляются (в силу сходства значений, формы или различных ассоциаций) родственными (например, *близорукий* возникло из *близозоръкъ*, ср. у стоиков сближение лат. *crux* ‘крест’ с *crus* ‘нога’).

**Неологизмы/Neologisms** (от греч. *néos* ‘новый’ и *lógos* ‘слово’) – слова, значения слов или сочетания слов, появившиеся в определенный период в каком-либо языке или использованные один раз (окказиональные слова) в каком-либо тексте или акте речи.

**Непосредственно составляющие/Immediateconstituents** – два элемента, из которых непосредственно образована единица более высокого порядка (и большей линейной протяженности).

**Несвободное словосочетание/Non-variable (stable) contextcombination** – словосочетание, в котором лексическая самостоятельность одного или обоих его компонентов ослаблена или утрачена, и оно все целиком по характеру значения приближается к отдельному слову.

**Норма языковая/Norm** – совокупность наиболее устойчивых традиционных реализаций языковой системы, отобранных и закрепленных в процессе общественной коммуникации. Норма как совокупность стабильных и унифицированных языковых средств и правил их употребления, сознательно фиксируемых и культивируемых обществом, является специфическим признаком литературного языка национального периода. В более широкой трактовке норма трактуется как неотъемлемый атрибут языка на всех этапах его развития.

**Нулевой аффикс/Zeroaffix** – отсутствие аффикса в одной форме парадигмы, противопоставляемое положительным (или выраженным) аффиксам в других формах той же парадигмы.

**Образование новых слов по аналогии/Analogicalword-formation** – уподобление одной единицы языка другой на основе продуктивных моделей словоизменения и словообразования.

**Обратная (регрессивная) деривация (дезаффиксация)/Back-formation** – вычленение основы из производного слова и включение ее в парадигму соответствующей части речи, например, рус. *зонт* от *зонтик*, англ. *tochauffe* от *chauffeur* и т.п.

**Омографы/Homographs** (от греч. *homós* ‘одинаковый’ и *gráphō* ‘пишу’) – слова, имеющие одинаковое написание, но различное ударение (в рус. яз.: *мука́ – му́ка, труси́ть – тру́сить* и т.п.) или вообще произношение (в англ. яз.: *lead* [led] ‘свинец’ и *lead* [lі:d] ‘вести’, *tear* [teә] ‘рвать’ и *tear* [tiә] ‘слеза’).

**Омонимия/Homonymy** (от греч. *homōnymia* ‘одноименность’) в языкознании – звуковое совпадение различных языковых единиц, значения которых не связаны друг с другом.

**Омонимы/Homonyms** – одинаково звучащие слова, не имеющие общих элементов смысла (сем) и не связанные ассоциативно.

**Омофоны/Homophones** (от греч. *homós* ‘одинаковый’ и *phōnḗ* ‘звук’) – слова, которые произносятся одинаково, но различаются в написании, например, рус. *косный – костный, пруд – прут, луг – лук*, англ. *write – right, week – weak*.

**Омоформы/Homoforms** – отдельные формы разных слов, совпадающие друг с другом, например, рус. *стих* (гл.) и *стих* (сущ.), англ. *saw* ‘пила’ и *saw* (форма глагола *tosee* ‘видеть’) и т.п.

**Основа/Stem** – ядерная часть слова, с которой связано его вещественное лексическое значение и которая остается за вычетом из него словоизменительных морфем (окончаний); непредельная вторичная единица морфологического уровня, необходимая при анализе структуры слова и определении степени его морфемной сложности.

**Парадигма/Paradigm** (от греч. *parádeigma* ‘пример’, ‘образец’) – 1) в широком смысле – любой класс лингвистических единиц, противопоставленных друг другу и в то же время объединенных по наличию у них общего признака или вызывающих одинаковые ассоциации, чаще всего – совокупность языковых единиц, связанных парадигматическими отношениями; 2) модель и схема организации такого класса или совокупности; 3) в более узком смысле – синоним термина *морфологическая парадигма* (система форм одного слова).

**Партономия, или меронимия/Partonomy, ormeronymy** – один из типов структуры семантического поля, в которой слова соединены отношением «часть – целое».

**Переоформление (заимствованных слов)/Reinterpretationofaffixes** – переосмысление морфем, входящих в состав заимствованных слов, например, рус. *бутсы* от англ. *boots (boot + s* – флексия мн. ч.) и т.п.

**Пиджины/Pidgin** (от искаженного англ. *business* ‘дело’) – структурно-функциональный тип языков, не имеющих коллектива исконных носителей и развившихся путем существенного упрощения структуры языка-источника; используются как средство межэтнического общения в среде смешанного населения.

**Полисемия/Polysemy** (от греч. *polýsēmos* ‘многозначный’) (многозначность) – наличие у единицы языка более одного значения – двух или нескольких.

**Полуаффикс/Semi-affix** – морфема промежуточного типа, коррелирующая с самостоятельным словом в системе языка.

**Понятие/Concept** – 1) мысль, отражающая в обобщенной форме предметы и явления действительности посредством фиксации их свойств и отношений; последние (свойства и отношения) выступают в понятии как общие и специфические признаки, соотнесенные с классами предметов и явлений; 2) то же, что грамматическая или семантическая категория, обычно не высшего уровня обобщения, например, понятие двойственного числа, понятие события, понятие неактуального настоящего времени и т.п.; в этом значении стал часто употребляться термин *концепт*.

**Постулат значения/Meaningpostulate** – правило, устанавливающее связи между атомарными значениями.

**Предельные составляющие/Ultimateconstituents** – мельчайшие, далее неделимые единицы, выделяющиеся на данном уровне анализа.

**Префикс/Prefix** (от лат. *praefixus* ‘прикрепленный впереди’) – аффикс, помещаемый перед корнем.

**Продуктивность/Productivity** – статическая характеристика словообразовательной системы, учет результатов ее действия, отражение реализации способности разных словообразовательных моделей в определенные временные периоды к словопроизводству. Пригодность для образования новых слов и форм, понятных говорящим на данном языке.

**Производное слово, или дериват/Derivedword, complex, orderivative** – результат процесса деривации; вторичная языковая единица, которая формально и семантически зависит от исходной и при наличии общей ядерной части отстоит от исходной единицы на одну примененную формальную операцию, или деривационный шаг; *противоп.***простое (непроизводное) слово**.

**Производящая основа (исходная форма)/Derivational (underlying) base (stem)** – простая (или производная) основа, являющаяся источником дальнейшего словообразования и формообразования.

**Происхождение/Origin** – классификационный параметр, на основе которого происходит разделение морфем на исконные и заимствованные.

**Простое (непроизводное) слово/Simple (nonderived) word, orsimplex** – исходная, производящая единица.

**Прямое сложное слово/Non-idiomaticcompound** – неидиоматическое сложное слово, т.е. такое, значение которого складывается из значения его составных частей.

**Расширение лексического значения/Extension, broadening, orgeneralization** – увеличение семантического объема (семантической емкости) слова в процессе исторического развития или в контексте речевого употребления.

**Редупликация/Reduplication** – удвоение.

**Референт/Referent** – тот предмет мысли, с которым соотнесено данное языковое выражение; отраженный в сознании элемент объективной реальности как «внутренняя сторона» слова, т.е. как то понятийное содержание, с которым, по законам семантического строения данного языка, *устойчиво* соотносится данная единица выражения.

**Родной язык, национальный язык, местная форма речи (диалект), разговорная форма речи/Vernacular** – некоторая «сниженная» языковая система, противопоставленная официальной, книжной и т.п. в ситуации диглоссии; *противоп.***литературному языку**.

**Свободное словосочетание/Free (variable) contextcombination** – словосочетание, в котором сохраняются самостоятельные лексические значения всех входящих в него знаменательных слов; синтаксическая связь элементов подобного словосочетания является живой и продуктивной.

**Сема/Seme** (от греч. *sḗma* ‘знак’) – минимальная, предельная единица плана содержания.

**Семантика/Semantics** (от греч. *sēmantikós* ‘обозначающий’) – 1) все содержание, информация, передаваемые языком или какой-либо его единицей (словом, грамматической формой слова, словосочетанием, предложением); 2) раздел языкознания, изучающий это содержание, информацию; 3) один из основных разделов семиотики.

**Семантическая (лексическая) неоднозначность/Semantic (lexical) ambiguity** – свойство языковой единицы иметь более одного зафиксированного в языке лексического значения, закрепленного за одной формой языкового знака.

**Семантические варианты слова/Semanticvariantsofaword** – разные значения слова, реализующиеся в данных контекстах употребления.

**Семантические классы/Semanticclasses, semanticclassificationoflexicon** – объединения слов, принадлежащих к одной или разным частям речи, по признаку общности основы и словообразовательных связей.

**Семантические компоненты: маркеры и различители/Semanticcomponents: markersanddistinguishers** – родовые и видовые признаки, выделяемые в рамках родовидовых отношений в значении лексической единицы (в терминологии Д. Катца и Д. Фодора).

**Семантические отношения (смысловые отношения)/Semanticrelations** – лексико-фразеологические связи (соответствия) между частями высказывания.

**Семантическое заимствование (калька)/Semanticborrowing** – заимствование путем буквального перевода (обычно по частям) слова или оборота речи.

**Семантическое поле/Semantic (lexical) field** – 1) частичка («кусочек») действительности, выделенная в человеческом опыте и теоретически имеющая в данном языке соответствие в виде более или менее автономной лексической микросистемы; 2) совокупность слов и выражений, составляющих тематический ряд, слова и выражения языка, в своей совокупности покрывающие определенную область значений.

**Семантическое словообразование/Semanticderivation** – возникновение новых семантических единиц вследствие изменения значения слов.

**Синонимы/Synonyms** (от греч. *synṓnymos* ‘одноименный’) – слова одной и той же части речи (а также, в более широком понимании, фразеологизмы, морфемы, синтаксические конструкции), имеющие полностью или частично совпадающие значения.

**Словарная статья/Entry** – независимый отрезок текста, посвященный каждому слову (или группе слов), приводимому в словаре.

**Словарь/Dictionary** – 1) лексика, словарный состав языка, диалекта, какой-либо социальной группы, отдельного писателя и т.п.; 2) справочная книга, которая содержит слова (или морфемы, словосочетания, идиомы и т.п.), расположенные в определенном порядке (различном в разных типах словарей), объясняет значения описываемых единиц, дает различную информацию о них или их перевод на другой язык либо сообщает сведения о предметах, обозначаемых ими. Основным типом словарей являются **одноязычные толковые словари**, показывающие значение, употребление, грамматические и фонетические особенности слов. От толковых по разным признакам отличаются иные типы словарей: *по содержанию* – **энциклопедические словари**, объясняющие не слова, но сами предметы и понятия, ими обозначаемые; *по отбору лексики* – **тезаурусы**, охватывающие всю лексику языка, и **частные словари**, отражающие некоторые тематические и стилевые ее пласты (словари терминологические, диалектные, просторечия, арго, языка писателей и др.), либо особые разновидности слов (словари неологизмов, архаизмов, редких слов, сокращений, иностранных слов, собственных имен); *по способу описания слова* – **специальные**, раскрывающие отдельные аспекты слов и отношений между ними (словари этимологические, словообразовательные, словосочетаний, грамматические, орфографические, орфоэпические, синонимические, антонимические, омонимические, паронимические, частотные, рифм и др.); *по единице лексикографического описания* (меньше слóва – словари корней, морфем, больше слóва – словари словосочетаний, фразеологические, словари цитат); *по расположению материала* – идеографические, аналогические (слова располагаются не по алфавиту, но по смысловым ассоциациям), обратные (слова располагаются по алфавиту конечных букв слова); *по эпохе функционирования слов* – исторические; *по назначению (адресату)* – словари ошибок, трудностей, учебные и др.; *по числу языков* (для переводных словарей) – двуязычные и многоязычные. Переводные словари также делятся на активные (родной язык в левой части) и пассивные (родной язык в правой части).

**Слово/Word** – основная структурно-семантическая единица языка, служащая для именования предметов и их свойств, явлений, отношений действительности, обладающая совокупностью семантических, фонетических и грамматических признаков, специфичных для каждого языка.

**Словоизменение/Inflexion** – образование для каждого слова (кроме слов неизменяемых частей речи) его парадигмы, т.е. всех его словоформ и всех его аналитических форм.

**Словоизменительный аффикс/Inflexionalaffix** – аффикс, служащий для образования новых форм слова; окончание.

**Словообразование/Wordformation** – 1) образование слов, называемых производными и сложными, обычно на базе однокорневых слов по существующим в языке образцам и моделям с помощью аффиксации, словосложения, конверсии и других формальных средств; 2) раздел языкознания, изучающий все аспекты создания, функционирования, строения и классификации производных и сложных слов.

**Словообразовательная модель (тип словообразовательный)/Wordformationpattern** – основная классификационная единица в словообразовании; модель, фиксирующая правило построения производных слов, правило, учитывающее тип производящих основ и словообразовательных средств и формируемую в результате их взаимодействия обобщенную семантику однотипных слов.

**Словообразовательный аффикс/Derivational, orword-buildingaffix** – аффикс, служащий для образования новых слов.

**Словосложение/Composition, orcompounding** – один из способов словообразования, состоящий в морфологическом соединении двух или более корней (основ).

**Словосочетание/Wordcombination** – синтаксическая конструкция, образуемая соединением двух или более знаменательных слов на основе подчинительной грамматической связи – согласования, управления или примыкания и служащая средством номинации, обозначая предмет, явление, процесс, качество и т.д.

**Слоговое сокращение (усечение)/Clipping** – способ словообразования, в результате которого образуется сокращенное слово, включающее в свой состав часть или части только одного слова, не меньшие двухфонемного слога.

**Сложнопроизводные слова/Derivational, orpseudo-compounds** – производные единицы, возникшие не в результате словосложения, а в ходе других деривационных процессов, но включающие в свою морфологическую структуру как минимум две основы.

**Сложнослоговое сокращение, контаминация, или телескопия/Blending, ortelescoping** – способ словообразования, в результате которого образуется сокращенное слово, включающее в свой состав не только редуцированные части слов, по линейной протяженности не меньшие двухфонемного слога, но и полные слова.

**Собственно идиома/Idiomproper** – фразеологическая единица, обладающая ярко выраженными стилистическими особенностями, благодаря которым ее употребление вносит в речь элемент игры, шутки, нарочитости.

**Собственно-сложное слово/Compoundproper** – 1) сложное слово в отличие от фразеологических единиц; 2) сложное слово в отличие от производного слова.

**Социальный диалект/Socialdialect** – язык определенной социальной группы.

**Субкатегориальные семантические признаки/Subcategorialfeatures** – признаки, на основании которых происходит формирование тесно связанных семантических множеств внутри частей речи.

**Субстантивация/Substantivation** – переход слова в класс существительных.

**Сужение лексического значения, или специализация/Restriction, specialization, ornarrowing** – уменьшение семантического объема слова в процессе исторического развития или в контексте речевого употребления.

**Суффикс/Suffix** (от лат. *suffixus* ‘прикрепленный’) – аффикс, помещаемый за корнем, но не обязательно в непосредственной близости к нему.

**Таксономия/Taxonomy** (от греч. *táxis* ‘построение’, ‘порядок’, ‘расположение’ и *nómos* ‘закон’) – совокупность принципов и правил классификации лингвистических объектов (языков и языковых единиц), а также сама эта классификация.

**Тезаурус/Thesaurus** (от греч. *thésaurós* ‘сокровище’, ‘сокровищница’) – 1) словарь, в котором максимально полно представлены все слова того или иного языка с исчерпывающим перечнем примеров их употребления в текстах; 2) идеографический словарь, в котором показаны семантические отношения (родо-видовые, синонимические и др.) между лексическими единицами.

**Территориальные варианты/Regionalvarieties** – варианты, в виде которых единый язык бытует в различных национальных государствах, например, британский и американский варианты английского языка.

**Территориальный (областной, или местный) диалект/Territorial (regional, orlocal) dialect** – диалект, распространенный в определенной местности.

**Традиционные словосочетания/Traditionalcollocations** – свободные словосочетания, регулярно воспроизводимые в речи вследствие весьма узкой сочетаемости одного из компонентов.

**Транспозиция/Transposition** (от ср.-век. лат. *transpositio* ‘перестановка’) – использование одной языковой формы в функции другой формы – ее противочлена в парадигматическом ряду.

**«Улучшение» лексического значения, или облагораживание/Amelioration, orelevation** – семантическое изменение, в результате которого слово стало обозначать предметы (процессы, качества, людей и т.п.), считающиеся в данном обществе более ценными, более полезными, более уважаемыми и т.п.

**Устойчивое выражение/Set (fixed) expression** – фразеологически (и/или грамматически) закрепленное (фиксированное) сочетание слов, приобретающее в языке, в большей или меньшей степени, свойства фразеологической единицы.

**«Ухудшение» лексического значения/Perjoration, ordeterioration** – семантическое изменение, в результате которого слово стало обозначать предметы (процессы, качества, людей и т.п.), считающиеся в данном обществе менее ценными, менее полезными, менее уважаемыми и т.п.

**Флексия/Flexion** (от лат. *flexio* ‘сгибание’) – словоизменительный аффикс, формант, форматив, т.е. часть словоформы, которая выражает грамматическое значение (грамматические категории) и/или реляционное значение (синтаксическое отношение данного слова к другим словам в предложении или к предложению в целом). В этом значении также употребляется термин *окончание*.

**Фразема/Phraseme** – единица постоянного контекста, в котором значение семантически реализуемого слова является фразеологически связанным.

**Фразеологизм (фразеологическая единица)/Phraseologicalunit, locution, phrase, formula** – общее название семантически связанных сочетаний слов и предложений, которые, в отличие от сходных с ними по форме синтаксических структур, не производятся в соответствии с общими закономерностями выбора и комбинации слов при организации высказывания, а воспроизводятся в речи в фиксированном соотношении семантической структуры и определенного лексико-грамматического состава.

**Фразеологическое единство/Phraseologicalunity** – разновидность фразеологической единицы, которая характеризуется меньшей по сравнению со сращением спаянностью составляющих ее элементов вследствие того, что ее построение соответствует действующим моделям данного языка.

**Фразеологическое сочетание/Phraseologicalcollocation** – разновидность фразеологической единицы, которая, будучи построена по продуктивной модели, не обладает в отличие от единства полной семантической слитностью (семантической глобальностью); она отличается от свободного сочетания лишь тем, что ее опорное слово употребляется в несвободном, фразеологически связанном значении, т.е. в таком значении, которое реализуется только в сочетании с данным набором лексических единиц.

**Фразеологическое сращение/Phraseologicalfusion, concretion** – разновидность фразеологической единицы, характеризующаяся наибольшей степенью семантической неделимости, спаянности, монолитности (глобальности) вследствие непродуктивности той синтаксической модели, по которой она построена.

**Фразеология/Phraseology** (от греч. *phrásis*, род. п. *phráseōs* ‘выражение’ и *lógos* ‘слово’, ‘учение’) – 1) раздел языкознания, изучающий фразеологический состав языка в его современном состоянии и историческом развитии; 2) совокупность фразеологизмов данного языка, то же, что фразеологический состав.

**Фрейм/Frame** – языковая модель определенного фрагмента действительности.

**Функциональное изменение/Functionalchange** – изменение фонологической системы, вызванное изменением функций составляющих ее фонем.

**Цепь/Chain** – один из типов структуры семантического поля, представляющий собой множество слов, соединенных каким-либо ранговым отношением.

**Цикл/Cycle** – один из типов структуры семантического поля, обозначающий ту или иную циклическую систему (например, дни недели, времена года и т.п.).

**Экстенсионал/Extensional** – номинативная сторона языковой единицы; языковая единица, рассматриваемая в плане ее соотносимости с индивидуальными предметами в контексте речи.

**Энциклопедия (энциклопедический словарь)/Encyclopedia** – словарь, представляющий в сжатом виде состояние современного научного знания, достигнутого в тех областях, которые обозначаются собранными в нем словами.

**Эпидигматические отношения/Epidigmaticties** – внутрисловные отношения, например, отношения между значениями многозначного слова, квалифицируемые как третье измерение в лексике наряду с парадигматическими и синтагматическими отношениями.

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**3. IILOVALAR.**

**3.1. O’quv dasturi**

**O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI**

**OLIY VA O‘RTA MAXSUS TA’LIM VAZIRLIGI**

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| Ro‘yhatga olindi: BD 5111400-3.06 201\_ -yil | Oliy va O‘rta maxsus ta`lim vazirligi\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_201\_yil «\_\_\_»\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ |  |

**Ingliz tili nazariy aspektlari**

 **FAN DASTURI**

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| Bilim sohasi: Ta`lim sohasi: | 100 000 -110000 - | GumanitarPedagogika  |
| Ta’lim yo‘nalishi: | 5111400 - | Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili va adabiyoti) |

Toshkеnt – 2019

Fan dasturi Oliy va o‘rta maxsus, kasb-hunar ta’limi yo‘nalishlari bo‘yicha O‘quv-uslubiy birlashmalar faoliyatini Muvofiqlashtiruvchi Kengashning 201 \_-yil

“\_\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ dagi \_\_\_\_\_ -sonli bayonnomasi bilan ma’qullangan.

O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o‘rta maxsus ta’lim vazirligining 201\_-yil “\_\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_dagi \_\_\_\_-sonli buyrug‘i bilanma’qullangan fan dasturlarini tayanch oliy ta’lim muassasasi tomonidan tasdiqlashga rozilik berilgan.

Fan dasturi Nizomiy nomidagi Toshkent davlat pedagogika universitetida ishlab chiqildi.

**Tuzuvchilar:**

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| M.H. AlimovaN.R.Kadirova  | Nizomiy nomidagi TDPU“Ingliz tili nazariyasi va o‘qitish metodikasi” kafedrasi docentiNizomiy nomidagi TDPU“Ingliz tili nazariyasi va o‘qitish metodikasi” kafedrasi katta o‘qituvchisi |
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| **Taqrizchilar:** G.N.Tuxlieva -  | O‘zMU, “Qiyosiy tilshunoslik” kafedrasi dotsenti, filologiya fanlari nomzodi, dotsent  |
| G.Xakimova -  | O‘zDJTU,Ingliz tili fakulteti,Ingliz tili amaliy fanlar №2 kafedrasi mudiri, filologiya fanlari nomzodi  |
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| K.To’xtaeva-  |  |

 | O’ZDJTU, Ingliz tili 2-fakulteti, Ingliz tilini o’qitish metodikasi №2 kafedrasi mudiri, f.f.n, dotsent |

 Fan dasturi Nizomiy nomidagi Toshkent davlat pedagogika universiteti O‘quv -uslubiy Kengashida ko‘rib chiqilgan va tavsiya qilingan (201\_- yil “\_\_\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_dagi \_\_-sonli bayonnoma)

1. **O‘quv fanining dolzarbligi va oliy kasbiy ta`limdagi o‘rni**

5111400-Xorijiy til va adabiyoti bakalavr mutaxassisligi uchun tuzilgan mazkur dastur madaniyatlar aro muloqotni o‘rgatish fanidan tayanch ma`lumotlarni berish uchun Davlat ta`lim Standartlari talablari asosida mutaxassislikining o‘quv rejasi asosida tuzilgan va undan ishchi o‘quv dasturlarini tuzishda keng foydalaniladi.

1. **O‘quv fanining maqsadi va vazifasi**

Fanni o‘qitishdan maqsad – ta`lim oluvchilarning bo‘lajak kasbiy faoloyatlari uchun puhta nazariy asos yasash, chet tilni o‘rganishning uslub va yondashuvlari, tilning ilmiy bilimlar tizimida tutgan o‘rni bilan tanishtirish, ularga til sahtlarning asosiy qonuniyatlarini o‘rgatishdan iborat. Talabalarning shahsiy fikrlarni turli xil usullar bilan yoritishning muayan nutq sharoitiga mos yo‘llarini aniqlash.Fanning maqsadiga talabalarga lingvistik, lingvomadaniy va kommunikativ ko‘nikma va malakalarini ingliz tili lug’at boyligi orqali shakklantirish hamkiradi.

Fanning vazifasi ta`lim oluvchilarning tabiiy til mohiyatiga oid bilimlarni egallashga imkoniyat yaratish, ulardan tilning ichki tuzilmasi, til qatlamalari va birliklarini ilmiy asosda tadqiq etish ko‘nikmalarini shakllantirish hamda ularning bir biri bilan o‘zaro munosabatlari to‘g‘risida tushunchalarga ega bo‘lishlarini ta`minlashdan iborat. Fanning vazifasiga ta`lim oluvchilarning so‘z ma‘nosi xususiyarlari, til lug‘at tarkibining asosiy birliklari, so’zning morphologic, leksik, semantic tuzilishi, so‘zlarni yasalishi, frazeologik birikmalar, so‘zlarning kelib chiqishinio‘rgatish kiradi.

**Kompetentsiya-** kommunikatsiya ishtirokchilarining o‘zlari tomonidanqo’yilgananiq maqsadlarga qaratilgan nutq faoliyatini shakllantirishgaimkon beradigan bilim, ko‘nikma va malaka shaxsiy fazilatlar yig’indisiniifodalaydi.

 **Kommunikativ kompetenstiya** – o‘rganilayotgan chet tilida so‘zlashuvchilar bilan muloqot qilishni amalga oshirish qobiliyati va tayyorgarligi, shuningdek, talabalarning tili o‘rganilayotgan mamlakatnazariy fonetika, grammatika va leksikologiyasi bilan tanishish, o‘z mamlakati madaniyatini yanada yaxshiroq anglashi, uni muloqot jarayonida ko‘rsata olishini nazarda tutadi.

 Mazkur o‘quv fanini o‘rganishning asosiy vazifalariga talabalarda quyidagi kompetenstiyalarni shakllantirilish kiradi:

 **Lingvistik kompetenstiya** o‘rganilayotgan til egalari bilan muloqot qilish uchun til haqidagi ma`lumotlarni (fonetika, leksika, grammatikani) etarli darajada bilish va nutq faoliyati turlari (tinglab- tushunish, gapirish, o‘qish va yozish)da qo‘llay bilishni nazarda tutadi.

**Ijtimoiy-lingvistik kompetenstiya** so‘zlovchining biror bir nutqiy vaziyat, kommunikativ maqsad va xohish-istagidan kelib chiqqan holda kerakli lingvistik shakl, ifoda usulini tanlash imkonini yaratadi.

**Diskursiv kompetenstiya** (diskurs – bu og‘zaki yoki yozma matn) matnni to‘g‘ri talqin qilish va tuzish, shuningdek, shunga mos nutqiy muloqot turini tanlash uchun og‘zaki va yozma matnlar lingvistik, stilistik hamda tarkibiy xususiyatlarini bilib olishni nazarda tutadi.

**Ijtimoiy-madaniy kompetenstiya** autentik nutqning milliy xususiyatlarini - o‘zi yashayotgan mamlakatning urf-odatlari, qadriyatlari, marosimlari va boshqa milliy-madaniy xususiyatlarini tili o‘rganilayotgan mamlakat bilan taqqoslagan holda taqdim eta olish qobiliyatini ko‘zda tutadi.

**III.Asosiy qism (nazariy va amaliy mashg‘ulotlar)**

**1-Module.**

**1-Module. Ingliz tili nazariy grammatikasi**

**Theme 1.Introduction to Theoretical Grammar.The grammatical structure of a language**

The place of grammar in the system of language. Main notions of grammar: grammatical meaning, grammatical form, grammatical categories.Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations as the subject of study of theoretical grammar.

**Theme 2.The morphemic structure of a language.**

The Types of Morphemes.Morphemic analysis.language and speech levels and their corresponding units

**Theme 3.Grammatical Categories**

Categorization.Definition of grammatical category.Opposition.Types of grammatical categories.The grammatical categories of case of nouns.The grammatical gategory of degrees of comparison.The category of voice.The grammatical category of mood.The category of posteriority.The categories of number and person.

**Theme 4.Parts of Speech. The notional parts of speech**

General description of the notion “a part of speech”.Notional and functional parts of speech. Subcategorization of parts of speech.Noun, verb, adjective, adverb.

**Theme 5.The functional parts of speech**

Difference between the notional and functional words.The different approaches of linguistics to this issue.The ways of classifying of functional parts of speech.

**Theme 6. Parts of Sentence.The Main Parts and the Secondary Parts. Phrase structure**

The difference between the word, the word-sentence and the sentence.Nominative and predicative functions of the sentence.The difference between the notional and functional words.The structural and syntactic characteristics of the sentence.Main and secondary parts of the sentence.The types of co-ordinate phrases.The types of subordinate phrases. The types of predicative phrases

**Theme 7.Syntax**

The subject matter of syntax.Linguistic relations between words.Types of Syntactic Relations.

**Theme 8.Sentence. Types of sentence**

Types of sentences according to the aim of the speaker. Interrogative sentences. Exclamatory sentences. Imperative sentences. Elliptical sentences.One -member sentences.

**Theme 9.Sentence Structure. Simple Sentence**

Structural and syntactic types of sentences.Simple sentences.One-member and two-member sentences.

**Theme 10.Compound Sentence. Complex Sentence**

Compound and complex sentences.Complete and elliptical sentences.Types of nominalization of the English sentence.

**Theme 11.Composite Sentence**

Grammatical organization, structure and semantics of the compound sentence.Classification of complex sentences.Functional transpositions of subordinate clauses.

**Theme 12.Sequence of Tenses**

Sequence of tenses definition.Sequence of tenses rules. Meaning and use.

**Theme 13.Indirect and Represented Speech**

Indirect and Represented Speech definition Indirect and Represented Speech rules. Meaning and use.

**Theme 14. Sentence Clauses**

Difference between clause and sentence. Independent Clauses. Dependent Clauses. Noun Clause. Adjective Clause. Adverbial Clause.

**Theme 15. The notion of pronoun: their semantic and morphological peculiarities**

 General description of the notion of pronoun. Semantic and morphological peculiarities of pronoun.

 **Theme 16. The category of voice of the Verb**

General description of category of voice of the verb. Types of grammatical categories.

**2-Module. Ingliz tili nazariy fonetikasi**

**Theme1. Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics**

The subject matter of phonetics. Branches and divisions of phonetics. Methods of phonetic investigation. Phonetics and other disciplines. Practical application and theoretical significance of phonetics.

**Theme 2.Phonological Theories**

Phonological schools and theories.I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay’s Theory of Phonology. The St.Petersburg Phonological School. L.V. Scherba’s Phonemic Concept. The Moscow Phonological School.The Prague Phonological School.The London Phonological School.Phonological Trends in the USA

**Theme 3.The System of English Phonemes**

Phoneme.The definition of phoneme.The phoneme as the unity of three aspects.Phonological and phonemic mistakes in pronunciation.Modification of phonemes in connected speech

**Theme 4.Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English**

The phenomenon of syllable.Syllable formation and division.Functional aspect of the syllable.

**Theme 5.Word Stress in English**

Definition.The nature of stress. English word stress. Production and perception. Degrees of word stress. Placement of word stress.

**Theme 6.The Functions of Sentence Stress**

Rhythmical structure of a sentence.Factors of sentence stress.Degrees of sentence stress.

**Theme 7.Intonation Structure of English.Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation**

The definition of intonation, its components and factors.Methods of indicating and describing intonation.Intonation pattern as the basic unit of intonation. Functions of intonation: communicative, distinctive, organizing, intonation in discourse, pragmatic, rhetorical.

**Theme 8.The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds**

Voice producing mechanism. The ways of production English speech sounds. Articulatory classification of English vowels.Articulatory classification of English consonants.

**Theme 9.The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds**

Periodic and non-periodic sound waves amplitude. Frequency and intensity.The acoustic classification of English vowels.The acoustic classification of English consonants.

**Theme 10.The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds**

Features of perception.Continuity.Resonance.Tembre.Phonological status of diphthongs.

**Theme 11.Phonostylistics as a Branch of Phonetics**

Phonostylistics as a branch of phonetics.Extralinguistic situation and its components.Style-forming factors.Classification of phonetic styles.Stylistic modifications of speech sounds.

**Theme 12.Stylistic Use of Intonation**

Phonostyles and their registers.Informational style.Academic style.Publicistic style.Declamatory style.Artistic reading.Conversational style.

**Theme 13.Varieties of English pronunciation**

The Orthoepic Norm.National Variants of English Pronunciation.Regional Types of Pronunciation in Great Britain.Regional Types of Pronunciation in the USA.The Main Points of Difference between RP and GA.Styles of Pronunciation.Choice of the Teaching Norm**.**

**3-Module. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi**

**Theme 1.Introduction into Lexicology**

Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English. Subject matter of Lexicology.Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of linguistics.Relationships, approaches and subbranches.

**Theme 2.The English language as a vocabulary system**

Word and word studies in Lexicology.Morphemes.Types of morphemes.Principles of morphemic analysis.Principles of derivational analysis.Stems.Types of stems.

**Theme 3.The Etymology of Modern English vocabulary**

Words of native origin and their characteristics.Ways of borrowing into English. Criteria and assimilation of borrowings.Special type of borrowings.

**Theme 4.Morphological structure of the English words**

Morphemes. Affixational morphemes: derivational morphemes andfunctional morphemes. Free morphemes.Monomorphic and polymorphic words.Levels of analysis of the morphological structure of the word.

**Theme 5.Semantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure**

Semasiology. Referential approach to meaning. Functional approach to meaning. Grammatical meaning. Lexical meaning. Lexico-grammatical meaning. Stylistic connotations.

**Theme 6.Homonyms**

The definition of homonyms.The sources of homonyms.The classification of homonyms.

**Theme 7.Homonymy and polysemy**

Definition of polysemy. Synchronic and diachronic analysis of polysemy. Polysemy and frequency of the word.The difference between homonymy and polycemy.

**Theme 8.Synonyms**

Definition of synonyms. Criteria of synonymity. Classification of synonyms.The dominant synonym. The Source of synonyms. Collocation of words.

**Theme 9**.**Antonyms**

Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms.Some debatable points of antonyms

**Theme 10. Semantic systems of English**

Semantic systems in English. Semantic fields. Neologisms. Archaic words. Obsolutewords. Emotionally coloured words. Evaluatory words. Stylistic differences of words. The correlation of different aspects of words

**Theme 11.Word formation**

Word formation phenomenon. Word formation and its basic peculiarities.Ways of word formation.

**Theme 12. Affixation. Conversion**

Affixation and its subdivisions. Prefixation and suffixation. Semantics of affixes.The classification of affixes. Definition of conversion.The most common types of conversion.Criteria of semantic derivation.Substantivization of adjectives.

**Theme 13.** Word combination in Modern English

Word-groups. Subordinative word-groups,verbal groups, pronominal, statival.Types of word combinations.

**Theme 14. Phraseology**

Phraseology in Modern English. Phraseological units with different components. Definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity. Ways of forming phraseological units. Classification of phraseological units

**Theme 15.The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English**

Neutral, literary and colloquial words. Literary words. Terms. Bookish (learned) words. Poetic and highly literary words. Barbarisms.Slangisms. Social jargonisms.Vulgarisms.

**Theme 16.The main peculiarities of the vocabulary system of the English speaking countries**

The main variants of the English language.Social variation of the English language.The main variants of the English Language.Standard English variants of English. Local dialects.

**Theme 17.The difference between British and American English**

Some peculiarities of British English and American English. Local dialects in Great Britain.Local dialects in the US.The difference between British and American English.

**Theme 18. Methods used in lexicological research**

Componential analysis.Cognitive analysis of words. Method of semantic differential. Distributional analysis.Transformational analysis.The Immediate constituents analysis. Contrastive analysis. Statistical analysis.

**Theme 19. Lexicography of the English language**

Lexicography. English dictionaries and their development. Dictionary compiling and its origin.Types of dictionaries.Entry of a dictionary. Attitudes towards dictionaries. Learning and teaching vocabulary (modern technologies).

**3.2.Fanning ishchi dasturi**

**O`ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI**

**OLIY VA O`RTA MAXSUS TA‘LIM VAZIRLIGI**

**TОSHKENT VILOYATI**

**CHIRCHIQ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI**

|  |  |
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|   | «Tasdiqlayman»O’quv ishlari bo’yicha prorektor\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ I.Q. Xaydarov 2019 yil “\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ |

**INGLIZ TILI NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI**

**FANINING ISHCHI O‘QUV DASTURI**

**(2- kurs uchun)**

 Bilim sohasi: 100000 – Gumanitar

 Ta’lim sohasi: 110000 – Pedagogika

 Bakalavriat yo‘nalishi: 5111400 – Xorijiy tillar (ingliz tili va

 adabiyoti)

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| **№** | **Mashg’ulot turi** | Ajratilgan soat | Semestr Semestr |
| III |  |  IV |  |
| 1. | Nazariy (Ma’ruza)  | 32 |  |  | 32 |  |
| 2. | Seminar  | 16 | - |  | 16 |  |
| 3. | Amaliy mashg’ulot | 16 | - |  | 16 |  |
| 4. | Mustaqil ta’lim soati | 56 | - |  | 56 |  |
|  | Jami auditoriya soatlari | 64  | -- |  | 64 |  |
|  | Umumiy o’quv soatlar |  120 |  | 120 |  |

**Chirchiq – 2019**

Fanning ishchi o‘quv dаsturi O‘zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o‘rta maxsus ta’lim vazirligining201\_\_-yil “\_\_\_\_”\_\_\_dagi\_\_\_-sonli buyrug’i bilan tasdiqlangan “Chet til o’qitishning innovatsion pedagogik texnologiyalari” namunaviy o‘quv dasturi asosida ishlab chiqildi.

Fanning ishchi o‘quv dasturiToshkent viloyatiChirchiqdavlat pedagogika instituti kengashining 2019\_ yil “\_\_”\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_dagi “\_”- sonli bayoni bilan tasdiqlangan

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| **Tuzuvchilar:** | **M.A. Yusupova**–Toshkent viloyati Chirchiq davlat pedagogika instituti Xorijiy tillar kafedrasi mudiri**N.N. Yuldasheva-**Toshkent viloyati Chirchiq davlat pedagogika instituti Xorijiy tillar kafedrasi o’qituvchisi |

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| --- | --- |
| **Taqrizchilar**: | **J.Sh. Djumabayeva**O’zMU ingliz filologiyasi kafedrasi mudiri, Filologiya fanlari doktori, professor **M.S.Tadjibayev**Toshkent viloyatiChirchiqdavlat pedagogika instituti “Fakultetlararo chet tillar” kafedrasi, f.f.n.,dotsent |
|  |  |

Fanning ishchi о‘quv dasturi Toshkent viloyati Chirchiq davlat pedagogika instituti “Tarix va tillar” fakulteti kengashining 2019-yil «\_\_» avgustdagi \_\_\_\_\_-sonli majlisida muhokamadan o’tkazilgan.

**Fakultet dekani: y.f.n., dots. R.A.Ikramov**

Fanning ishchi о‘quv dasturi Toshkent viloyati Chirchiq davlat pedagogika instituti “Tarix va tillar” fakulteti “Xorijiy tillar” kafedrasining 2019-yil «\_\_» \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_dagi \_\_\_\_-sonli majlisida ko’rib chiqilgan va tasdiqlashga tavsiya qilingan.

**Kafedra mudiri: M.A.Yusupova**

 **O’QUV FANI O’QITILISHI BO’YICHA USLUBIY KO’RSATMALAR**

“Ingliz tili aspektlari” fanini o‘zlashtirish jarayonida bakalavriyat talabasi quyidagilarni bilishi kerak.

Fan bo‘yicha talabalarning bilim va ko‘nikmalariga quyidagi talablar qo‘yiladi.

**Talaba:**

* Nazariy va amaliy grammatika, normativ grammatika va til kompetensiyasi orasidagi bog‘liqlik xususiyatlari;
* Nazariy va amaliy fonetika, til kompetensiyasi orasidagi bog‘liqlik xususiyatlari
* so‘z ma‘nosi xususiyarlari, til lug‘at tarkibining asosiy birliklari, so’zning morphologic, leksik, semantic tuzilishi **tasavvurga ega bo‘lishi;**
* so‘zlarni yasalishi, frazeologik birikmalar, so‘zlarning kelib chiqishini o‘rgatish kiradi
* ingliz tili nazariy grammatikasining rivojlanish bosqichlari **bilishi va ulardan foydalana olishi;**;
* morfema turlari va so‘zning morfemik tuzilishi, so‘z turkumlari va ularning morfologik kategoriyalari;
* gap turlarivauningtuzilishi, gap bo‘laklarivaso‘ztartibi;
* ingliz va o‘zbek tilining Grammatik tizimidag ifarqlar va o‘xshash hodisalarini qiyoslay olish.

**MA’RUZA MASHG’ULOTLARI**

*1-jadval*

**1-Modul. Ingliztili nazariy fonetikasi**

**4- semestr**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **#** | **Themes of lectures** | **Hours per lecture** |
|  |
|  | Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics. | **2** |
|  | Phonological Theories. | **2** |
|  | Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English. | **2** |
|  | Word Stress in English. | **2** |
|  | The Functions of Sentence Stress. | **2** |
|  | Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation. | **2** |
|  | The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | Stylistic Use of Intonation. | **2** |
|  | Varieties of English pronunciation | **2** |
|  | **Jami (4-semestr)** | **20 soat** |

**3-modul. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi**

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| **№** | **Ma’ruzalar mаvzulаri** | **Dars soatlari hajmi** |
|  | **4- semester** |  |
| 1. | Introduction into Lexicology, Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English | **2** |
| 2. | Morphological structure of the English words  | **2** |
| 3. | Semantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure | **2** |
| 4. | Homonymy and polysemy  | **2** |
| 5. | Criteria of synonymity and classification of synonyms  | **2** |
| 6. | Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms  | **2** |
|  | **Jami (4-semestr)** | **12 soat** |
| **JAMI** | **32soat** |

Ma`ruza mashg`ulotlari multimedia qurulmalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada akadem guruhlar oqimi uchun o‘tiladi. O’quv mashg’ulotlarining sifatli va samarali tashkil etilishiga ta’sir etuvchi quyidagi interfaol usullardan: klaster, aqliy hujum, T-sxema, baliq skeleti, konseptual jadval, venn-diagramma, keys-stadi kabilardan keng foydalaniladi.

**3. SEMINAR MASHG’ULOTLARI**

*2-jadval*

**1-Modul.Ingliz tili nazariy fonetikasi**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **#** | **Themes of lectures** | **Hours per lecture** |
| **4-semestr** |
|  | Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics.Phonological Theories. | **2** |
|  | Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.Word Stress in English. | **2** |
|  | The Functions of Sentence Stress.Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation. | **2** |
|  | The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds.The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | Stylistic Use of Intonation.Varieties of English pronunciation | **2** |
|  | **Jami (4-semestr)** | **10 soat** |

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**3-modul.Ingliztilileksikologiyasi**

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| **№** | **Ma’ruzalar mаvzulаri** | **Dars soatlari hajmi** |
|  | **4- semester** |  |
| 1. | Introduction into Lexicology, Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English.Morphological structure of the English wordsSemantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure | **2** |
| 2. | Homonyms. The sources of homonyms. The classification of homonyms. Homonymy and polysemy.Criteria of synonymity and classification of synonyms. Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms | **2** |
| 3. | Word formation and ways of word formationAffixation and its subdivisions. Conversion | **2** |
|  | **Jami (4-semestr)** | **6soat** |
|  **JAMI** | **6 soat** |

Seminar mashg`ulotlar multimedia qurulmalari va boshqa texnologiyalar bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada har bir akadem guruhda alohida o`tkaziladi. Mashg`ulotlarni olib borish usullari turli-tuman ko`rinishda bo`lsa-da, faol va interfaol metodlar ko`proq qo`llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq. Shuningdek, “Keys-stadi”texnologiyasi ishlatiladi, keyslar mazmuni o`qituvchi tomonidan belgilanadi. Ko`rgazmal imateriallar va axborotlar multimedia qurilmalari yordamida uzatiladi.

**4. AMALIY MASHG’ULOTLARI**

*3-jadval*

**1-Modul.Ingliztilinazariyfonetikasi**

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| **№** | **Themes of practical lessons** | **Hours per seminar** |
| **4-semestr** |
|  | The System of English Phonemes. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.Word Stress in English. The Functions of Sentence Stress. Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation. | **4** |
|  | The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds | **4** |
|  | **Jami (4-semestr)** | **8 soat** |
| **3-modul. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi** |
| **№** | **Amaliy mashg’ulot mаvzulаri** | **Dars soatlari****hajmi** |
|  | **4- semester** |  |
| 1. | Homonyms. The classification of homonyms. Homonymy and polysemyCriteria of synonymity and classification of synonyms | **2** |
| 2.  | Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms | **2** |
| 3.  | Word formation and ways of word formation. Affixation and its subdivisions. ConversionWord combination in Modern English | **2** |
| 4.  | Phraseology in Modern English. Phraseological units with different components. The difference between British and American English | **2** |
|  | **Jami (4 semestr)****JAMI** | **8 soat****16 soat** |

Amaliy mashg`ulotlar multimedia qurulmalari va boshqa texnologiyalar bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada har bir akadem guruhda alohida o`tkaziladi. Mashg`ulotlarni olib borish usullari turli-tuman ko`rinishda bo`lsa-da, faol va interfaol metodlar ko`proq qo`llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq. Shuningdek, “Keys-stadi” texnologiyasi ishlatiladi, keyslar mazmuni o`qituvchi tomonidan belgilanadi. Ko`rgazmali materiallar va axborotlar multimedia qurilmalari yordamida uzatiladi.

**5. Mustaqil ta’lim**

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| --- | --- | --- |
| **№** | **Themes** | **Hours**  |
| **4-semestr** |
|  | Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics. | **2** |
|  | Phonological Theories. | **2** |
|  | The System of English Phonemes. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English. | **2** |
|  | Word Stress in English. | **2** |
|  | The Functions of Sentence Stress. | **2** |
|  | Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation. | **2** |
|  | The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | Phonostylistics as a Branch of Phonetics. | **2** |
|  | Stylistic Use of Intonation. | **2** |
|  | Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English. | **2** |
|  | Word Stress in English. | **2** |
|  | The Functions of Sentence Stress. | **2** |
|  | Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation. | **2** |
|  | The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds. | **2** |
|  | **Jami (4-semestr)** | **34 soat** |
| **№** | **Themes** | **Hours** |
|  | **4- semester** |  |
| 1. | Introduction into Lexicology, Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English | **2** |
| 2. | Morphological structure of the English words  | **2** |
| 3. | Semantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure | **2** |
| 4. | Homonymy and polysemy  | **2** |
| 5. | Criteria of synonymity and classification of synonyms  | **2** |
| 6. | Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms  | **2** |
| 7. | Semantic systems in English. Neologisms absolute and archaic words  | **2** |
| 8. | Word formation and ways of word formation | **2** |
| 9. | Affixation and its subdivisions. Conversion | **2** |
| 10 | Word combination in Modern English | **2** |
| 11 | Phraseology in Modern English. Phraseological units with different components | **2** |
|  |  | **Jami 22 soat** |
|  | **Jami**  | **56 soat** |

Mustaqil o`zlashtiriladigan mavzular bo`yicha talabalar tomonidan referatlar tayyorlanadi va uni taqdimoti tashkil qilinadi. Talabalar tomonidan mustaqil ishlar tayyorlanayotganda ular e’tiborini ilg’or xorij tajribasi bilan mamlakatimiz iqtisodiyotida qo’lga kiritilayotgan yutuqlarning asoslarini bog’lash, tahlil etish, o’z fikrlarini hayotiy misollar bilan yoritishga yo’naltiriladi.

**FAN BO’YICHA TALABALAR BILIMINI BAXOLASH VA NAZORAT QILISH ME’ZONLARI**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Baholashusullari** | **Ekspress testlar, yozma ishlar, og`zaki so`rov, prezentatsiyalar va boshqalar** |
| **Baholashmezonlari** | **86 balldan – 100 ballgacha «a’lo» baho** uchun tаlаbаning bilim dаrаjаsi quyidаgilаrgа jаvоb bеrishi lоzim: talabaning darslarni to‘liq o‘zlashtirishi, qo‘shimcha o‘quv-metodik adabiyotlardan keng foydalanishi, ijodiy va mustaqil ishlarni talab darajasida bajarishi, DTS talablariga mos bilim, malaka va ko‘nikmalarga ega bo‘lishi nazarda tutiladi.**71 balldan – 85 ballgacha «yahshi» baho** uchun tаlаbаning bilim dаrаjаsi quyidаgilаrgа jаvоb bеrishi lоzim: talabaning darslarni to‘liq o‘zlashtirishi, qo‘shimcha o‘quv-metodik adabiyotlardan foydalanishi, ijodiy va mustaqil ishlarni bajarishi, DTS talablariga mos bilim, malaka va ko‘nikmalarga ega bo‘lishi nazarda tutiladi.**55 balldan – 70 ballgacha «qoniqarli» baho** uchun tаlаbаning bilim dаrаjаsi quyidаgilаrgа jаvоb bеrishi lоzim: talabaning darslarni o‘zlashtirishi, davomati, ijodiy va mustaqil ishlarni bajarishi, bilim, malaka va ko‘nikmalarining DTS talablariga «qoniqarli» darajada mos kelishi nazarda tutiladi.**0 balldan –54 ballgacha «qoniqarsiz» baho** uchun tаlаbаning bilim dаrаjаsi quyidаgilаrgа jаvоb bеrishi lоzim: talaba o‘tilgan fan bo‘yicha aniq tasavvurga ega emas, fanning predmeti, maqsadlari, pritsiplari va o’rganilish tarihi haqida bilmaydi. |

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|  | **Reytingbaholashturlari** | **Maks. ball** | **O’tkazishvaqti** |
|  | **Joriynazorat:** | 40 | Semestr davomida |
|  | Mustaqil ta’lim topshiriqlarni o’z vaqtida va sifatli bajarilishi (Ma’ruzachi o’qituvchisi tomonidan qabul qilinadi) | 10 |
|  | Seminar mashg’ulotlarda faolligi, savollarga to’g’ri javob berilganligi, amaliy topshiriqlarni bajarganligi uchun | 25 |
|  | Ma’ruza mashg’ulotlarda faolligi, muntazam ravishda konspekt yuritishi uchun (Ma’ruzachi o’qituvchisi tomonidan qabul qilinadi) | 5 |
|  | **Oraliqnazorat** |  30 |
|  | Oraliq nazorat test shaklida o’tkaziladi (Ma’ruzachi o’qituvchisi tomonidan qabul qilinadi) | 30 |  |
|  | **Yakuniynazorat** | 30 |
|  | **Yozma**(Yakuniy nazorat shakli fakultet kengashi bilan kelishib, rektor buyrug’I bilan tasdiqlanadi) | 30 |
|  | **JAMI** | **100** |

**9. ASOSIY VA QO’SHIMCHA O’QUV ADABIYOTLAR XAMDA AXBOROT MANBAALARI**

**Asosiy adabiyotlar**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **№** | **Muallif** | **Adabiyot nomi** | **Nashr yili** |
| **1.** | Абдуазизов А.А. | English Phonetics | Т.: Мусиқа, 2007 |
| **2.** | Iriskulov M. | Theoretical grammar of the English language | T.: 2006 |
| **3.** | Мuminov O. | Lexicology of the English language | Т.: Меҳридарё, 2006 |
| **4.** | Ginzburg R. Hidekill S. Knyazeva G.  | A course in modern English lexicology | M.: Высшаяшкола, 1979 |
| **5.** | Арнольд И.В. | Лексикологиясовременногоанглийскогоязыка | M.: Высшаяшкола, 1986 |
| **6.** | Антрушина Г.Б. Афанасьева, О.В, Морозова Н.Н. | Лексикологияанглийскогоязыка | М.: Дрофа, 2004 |

**Qo’shimcha adabiyotlar**

1. Бондарко Л.В.,Вербицкая Л.А. Основы общей фонетики. − М.:Академия, 2002. −192 с.
2. Леонтьева С.Ф. Теория фонетики современного английского языка. 3-е издание. − М.: Наука, 2002. −201 с.
3. Roach P. English Phonetics and Phonology. A practical course. Oxford. Longman. 2000. − Pр.430.
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9. Аракин В. Д. Англо-русский словарь. −М.: Русский язык, 2002. −590 с.
10. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка. − М.: Флинта, 2004. – 384 с.
11. Мусаев Қ.М., Қудратов М.Ш. Инглизча-русча-ўзбекчаиқтисодийлуғат. – Т.: Фан, 2001. – 776 б.
12. Мюллер В. К. Англо-русский словарь. −М.: Юнвес, 2004. −767 с.
13. ХокинсД. М. The Oxford dictionary of the English language. −М.:Астрель, 2002. −828 с.

**Internet saytlari**

1. English Pronunciation. <http://international.ouc.bc.ca/pronunciation>
2. ESL. Resourse Center. <http://eslus.com/eslcenter.htm>
3. Learn to spell confidently. [www.spelling.hemscott.net](http://www.spelling.hemscott.net)

**3.3. Oraliq nazorat savollari**

1. Lexicology is the part of linguistics that studies
2. Early Latin borrowings were mostly
3. Semasiology is the branch of lexicology that deals with
4. Words that are identical in sound form but different in meaning are called
5. A morpheme is
6. Define the origin of the following words
7. Structurally morphemes fall into
8. The root of the word is
9. A paradigm is
10. An allomorph is
11. A bound stem contains
12. Which of the following words have derived stems
13. Connotative meaning is …
14. Derivational compounds are
15. Which of the following words are derived compounds?
16. Compound words contain
17. Form or functional words comprise
18. Narrowing of meaning is …
19. Etymology investigates
20. Words are divisible into
21. The evolution of vocabulary forms is the object of

|  |
| --- |
| 1. The system of the grammatical forms of a word is
 |
| 1. Semantically morphemes are classified as
 |
| 1. What is the meaning of the underlined parts of words: monolingual, monosyllable, monologue?
 |
| 1. The synonymous term for "amelioration" is…
 |
| 1. Compound words are…
 |
| 1. What are the synonyms?
2. What are the antonyms?
3. What are the homonyms?
4. What are the neologisms?
 |
| 1. What are bound morphemes?
2. What are free morphemes?
3. What are compound morphemes?
4. What are derivative morphemes?
 |
| 1. What are homographs
2. What are homonyms proper
3. What are homophones
4. What are synonyms
 |
| 1. What are homonyms
2. What are borrowed
3. What are neologisms
4. What are native
5. What are contraries
6. What are contradictories
7. What are incompatibles
8. What are antonyms proper
9. what are translation loans
10. What are fully assimilated borrowings?
11. What are partially assimilated borrowings?
12. What are unassimilated borrowings?
13. What type of grammatical description is English grammatical theory represented by?
14. What do the scientists of the traditional school of grammar rely on in their studies of different grammatical phenomena?
15. What does a new approach of the American school of structural linguistics consist of?
16. How does transformational grammar differ from other schools of grammar?
17. What is grammatical structure?
18. How are words grouped into the parts of speech?
19. What is grammatical meaning and grammatical form?
20. Into what parts is grammar subdivided?
21. What does each part deal with?
22. What is a grammatical category?
23. What are the peculiar features of any grammatical category?
24. What is the binary opposition of the grammatical form?
25. What are the means of expressing a grammatical meaning?
26. What ways of building of new words do we find in any language?
27. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical means?
28. What grammatical meanings can be expressed by suffixation, sound- interchange and suppletive forms?
29. What is agglutinated affixation?
30. What is inflected affixation?
31. What problems arise in connection with analytical forms?
32. What is the difference between grammatical analytical form and free word combination or fixed word combination?
33. What is meant by the degrees of grammaticalization in analytical forms?
34. What analytical forms may be called complete and incomplete?
35. What factors predetermine different approaches to the parts of speech classification?
36. Why can’t the form be regarded as the only criteria for the classification?
37. Can the function of a word help to class words into certain groups?
38. What is the main shortcoming of establishing word-classes suggested by Fries?
39. What principles should be taken into consideration in the parts of speech classification?
40. What are the three principles worked out by our linguists?
41. What is meant by combinability?
42. Why is it necessary to consider it in the classification of words into certain groups?
43. What can you say about notional and function (formal )words?
44. Give some examples to prove the disputable problems existing in linguistics concerning the grammatical categories of parts of speech.
45. Describe noun as a part of speech.
46. What are the semantic features of the noun?
47. What grammatical categories of the noun do you know?
48. What can you say about the case category of nouns? Speak on the different views.
49. What is the category of number of nouns?
50. What is the category of gender?
51. How are the grammatical categories of nouns expressed?
52. What can you say about the possessive case?
53. Does it always express the meaning of possession?
54. What is the homonymity of grammatical forms?
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56. What reasons does Vorontsova put forward to substantiate her theory denying the existence of the category of case in English?
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62. What grammatical categories has the verb?
63. What are the morphological features of the verb?
64. What are the syntactical features of the verb?
65. What is the category of person?
66. What is the absolute use of the tense?
67. What is the relative use of the tense?
68. What is time correlation?
69. What is the category of aspect?
70. What are terminative verbs? Is it a grammatical feature of the verb?
71. What are durative verbs? Is it a grammatical feature of the verb?
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73. What opposition in the category of aspect in English based on?
74. What are the marked and non-marked aspect forms in English?
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79. What are Gigadlo, Ivanova and Iofic’s opinion concerning the perfect tense forms?
80. What are Ilyish, and Vorontsova’s opinion concerning the perfect tense forms?
81. What terms do Ilyish and Vorontsova suggest for the explanation of perfect tense forms?
82. What is your opinion about the categories of aspect and tense of verbs?
83. What is Smirnitsky’s opinion concerning the categories of tense and aspect of verbs?
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86. Show the time correlation between perfect tense forms and other tense forms/
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**Yakuniy nazorat savollari**1. Lexicology as a science
2. General characteristic features of Modern English.
3. The English language as a vocabulary system.
4. The Etymology of Modern English vocabulary
5. The English word stock.
6. Origin of words in English
7. Early Latin borrowings
8. Borrowed words in English.
9. The classification of borrowed words.
10. The assimilation of borrowed words in English.
11. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed
12. Etymological doublets
13. The result of borrowings
14. Morphological structure of the English words and word formation
15. Morphemes.Types of morphemes.
16. Principles of morphemic analysis.
17. Principles of derivational analysis.
18. Stems. Types of stems.
19. Semasiology
20. Semantic structure of the English word.
21. Changes in semantic structure
22. Homonyms and their definition. The sources of homonyms.
23. The classification of homonyms
24. The difference between homonymy and polysemy.
25. Criteria of synonymity.
26. Classification of synonyms.
27. The Dominant synonym
28. The source of synonyms.
29. The main sources of synonyms
30. Definition of antonyms.
31. Classification of antonyms.
32. Word formation and ways of word formation
33. Ways of forming phraseological units.
34. Classification of phraseological units.
35. Affixation and its subdivisions
36. Conversion
37. Word combination in Modern English
38. Phraseology in Modern English.
39. Phraseological units with different components.
40. The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English
41. Lexicography of the English language. English dictionaries and their development
42. Dictionary compiling and origin
43. Types of dictionaries
44. Entry of a dictionary
45. Attitudes towards dictionaries
46. Methods used in lexicological research
47. Semantic fields
48. Neologisms. Obsolete and archaic words.
49. Emotionally coloured words.
50. Stylistic differences of the vocabulary system of Modern English.
51. The expansion of the English language.
52. 53.The difference between British and American English.
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 |