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**ОСНОВЫ ТЕОРИИ ПЕРВОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА**

**сборник учебно-методических материалов**

для направления подготовки 45.03.02 - Лингвистика

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*Составители: Залесова Н.М., Ищенко И.Г., Хлопова Т.В., Баженова Е.Ю.*

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# СОДЕРЖАНИЕ

# 1. ОБЩИЕ ПОЛОЖЕНИЯ

## 1.1 Цели и задачи дисциплины

Основной **целью** освоения учебной дисциплины «Основы теории первого иностранного языка» является формирование у студентов научного представления об изучаемом иностранном языке: его словарном составе, грамматическом строении, а также особенностях его стилевой дифференциации с позиций исторического развития и современного состояния изучаемого иностранного языка, в его социальной и прагматической обусловленности.

Основными **задачами** курса являются следующие:

1) познакомить студентов с основными теориями, объясняющими сущность функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка;

2) сформировать представление о базовых понятиях из сферы лексикологии, грамматики, истории, а также стилистики изучаемого иностранного языка;

3) сформировать основу научного понимания вариативности языковых средств изучаемого иностранного языка в зависимости от сферы их употребления;

5) развить у студентов умение применять полученные теоретические знания по основам теории изучаемого языка к его практическому владению;

6) развить у студентов научное мышление, соответствующее методологии предмета, научить их библиографическому поиску в изучаемой области знаний, привить им умение самостоятельно перерабатывать фундаментальную и текущую научную информацию по предмету, самостоятельно делать обобщения и выводы из данных, приводимых в специальной литературе, а также из собственных наблюдений над фактическим языковым материалом в его разных речевых формах, осмысленно сопоставляя грамматические явления изучаемого иностранного и родного языка.

Поставленные задачи курса демонстрируют его многоплановость и многоаспектность.

В результате освоения дисциплины обучающийся должен демонстрировать следующие результаты образования:

1) Знать: основные фонетические, лексические, грамматические, словообразовательные явления и функциональные разновидности изучаемого иностранного языка; композиционные элементы текста;

2) Уметь: работать с электронными словарями и другими электронными ресурсами; выражать основными способами семантическую, коммуникативную и структурную преемственность между частями высказывания;

3) Владеть: системой лингвистических знаний и основами современных методов научного исследования.

## 1.2 Содержание дисциплины

### 1.2.1 Модуль 1 Лексикология английского языка

## 1. The object of lexicology.

### Plan
1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Its practical and theoretical value.
2. Connection of lexicology with other branches of linguistics.
3. Definition of the word. Characteristics of the word as the basic unit of the language.

Lexicology (of Greek origin: lexis "word" + logos "learning") is the branch of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language. Distinction between the terms 'vocabulary', 'lexis', 'lexicon' on the one hand, and 'dictionary', on the other.

Lexical study is a wide-range domain, involving such diverse areas as the sense relationships between words, the use of abbreviations, puns and euphemisms, the compilation of dictionaries and many others. Thus, lexicology deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups.

The word is the basic unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.

The term word-group denotes a group of words that exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning and of syntactic function.

Types of lexicology: general lexicology, special lexicology, contrastive lexicology, comparative lexicology, historical lexicology, descriptive lexicology.

Branches of lexicology: etymology, word-formation, semantics, phraseology, lexicography.

Modern approaches to the word are characterized by two different levels of study: syntagmatic and paradigmatic. On the paradigmatic (substitution) level, the word is studied in its relationship with other words in the vocabulary system. On the syntagmatic (sequence) level, the word is analyzed in its linear relationships with words in connected speech.

One of the objectives of lexicological studies is the study of the vocabulary as a system. The vocabulary can be studied by means of two approaches: descriptive or synchronic (from Greek 'syn' – "together with" and 'chronos' – "time") and historical or diachronic ('dia' – "through"), i.e. the synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language at the given stage of its development, the diachronic approach deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary in course of time.

The basic unit of the lexicology is the word. Various approaches to definition are based on writing traditions, formal criteria, phonetic aspect, semantic aspect, etc.

To give definition to the word is a very difficult task as the word has many different aspects: it has its own sound form and some grammar forms. Also words are units of speech, they serve the purposes of human communication.

The first type of definition relies mainly on writing traditions that separate by spaces sequences of letters or characters.

The second type of definition considers the indivisible unit of thought as the most essential criterion.

The third type of definition relies on purely formal criteria. A word is viewed as a form which can occur in isolation and have meaning but which cannot be analysed into elements which can occur alone and also have meaning.

The modern approach to word studies distinguishes the external and the internal structures of the word. By the external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure: prefixes, suffixes, roots, etc. The internal structure of the word is its meaning or its semantic structure. The area of lexicology specializing in the semantic studies of the word is called *semantics*.

The following four characteristics are considered essential:
- first, the word is an uninterruptible unit;
- secondly, the word may consist of one or more morphemes;
- thirdly, the word occurs typically in the structure of phrases;
- finally, it is also an important characteristic of each word that it should belong to a specific word class.

No matter how careful we are in our definition of the word, we are bound to accommodate a certain amount of vagueness or ambiguity, which is inherent in the very nature of language in general and that of the word in particular. The most important sources of ambiguity are:
- the generic character of the word;
- the multiplicity of aspects in every word;
- the lack of clear-cut boundaries in the non-linguistic world;
- the lack of familiarity with the referent of the words.


## 2. English vocabulary as a system

**Plan**

1. The main variants of the English language.
2. Variants of English in the United Kingdom.
3. Variants of English outside the British Isles.
4. Some peculiarities of British English and American English.

In modern linguistics the distinction is made between Standard English and territorial variants and local dialects of the English language.

Standard English may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood.

Variants of English are regional varieties possessing a literary norm. There are distinguished variants existing on the territory of the United Kingdom (British English, Scottish English and Irish English), and variants existing outside the British Isles (American English, Canadian English, New Zealand English, South African English and Indian English). British English is often referred to the written Standard English and the pronunciation known as Received Pronunciation (RP).

Local dialects are varieties of English peculiar to some districts, used as means of oral communication in small localities; they possess no normalized literary form.

Lexical differences between the American and British variants of the English language:
1. Cases where there are no equivalent words in one of the variants.
2. Cases where different words are used for the same denotatum (sweet – candy).
3. Cases where some words are used in both variants but are much commoner in one of them.
4. Cases where one (or more) lexico-semantic variants is specific to either British English or American English.
5. Cases where one and the same word in one of its lexico-semantic variants is used oftener in British English than in American English.
5. Cases where the same words have different semantic structure in British English and American English.

There are five main groups of local dialects in Great Britain: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. The close links existing between some of the dialects make it possible to unite them into two major groups: 1) Southern dialects and 2) Northern and Midlands dialects.

The English language in the United States is characterized by relative uniformity throughout the country. Written American English is fairly standardized across the country. However, there is some variation in the spoken language. Three major belts of dialects, each with its own characteristic features, are identified: Northern, Midland and Southern.

English is the official language in over 60 countries, and is represented in every continent. In four continents, Asia, Africa and the Americas, and in the Pacific, it is an official language in some 34 countries. Currently, English is the de facto international language of the Third World.

## 3. Etymology of English Words. Process of Borrowing

**Plan**

1. Historical development of the English vocabulary.
2. Words of native origin.
3. Borrowing. Types of borrowings.
4. Influence of borrowings.

Etymology (from Greek "etymon" + "logos") is a branch of linguistics that studies the origin and history of words tracing them to their earliest determinable sources.

The place of the English language among the languages of the world. English as one of the languages of the Germanic Branch of the Indo-European family.

How English came to England. The first inhabitants of the land – Celts (the fifth millenium BC). The first invasion of the Roman Empire (55 - 54 BC). The second Roman invasion and their conquest of the British territory. (43 – 410 AD). Intrusion of the Germanic tribes – Angles, Saxons, Frisians and Jutes, their war with the Celts for 200 years. Formation of the Anglo-Saxon society and the English language.

The English vocabulary contains a huge number of words of foreign origin. Modern scholars suppose that borrowed words in the English language make about 65-70%. Mostly they come from Latin, French. About 650 words were borrowed from Scandinavian languages.

The character of borrowings depends on the period of the British history when they were borrowed. There can be an original (primary) language and a transmitting one. E.g. *table* → Latin (original – *tabula*) → French (trans.) → English.

There can be two ways of borrowing words: 1) while talking/ communicating; 2) in an indirect way (through literature).

Native words make the backbone of the English language, though they are few in number. Sometimes native words are called Old-English or Anglo-Saxon. They form 2 groups: of common Indo-European origin; of common Germanic origin.

Sometimes scientists distinguish words of the English proper element – words that don't have similar representatives in other Indo-European or Germanic languages (their roots or other elements are different). Native words in general are the most active part of the vocabulary. Among the 500 most frequently used English words more than 80% are of native origin. They are often used in word-building (word-formation).

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech and through written speech. Borrowings may be direct or indirect, i.e. through another language.

Distinction must be made between the term 'source of borrowing' and the term 'origin of borrowing'. The first should applied to the language from which the loan word was taken into English. The second refers to the language to the language to which the word may be traced.

English during its historical development borrowed words from: Celtic, Latin, Scandinavian, French, Greek, Italian, Spanish, Russian, German, Indian and other languages. Types of borrowings:
- translation borrowings are words and expressions formed from the material existing in the English language but according to patterns taken from another language, by way of literal morpheme-for-morpheme translation;
- semantic borrowings – development in an English word of a new meaning under the influence of a related word in another language;
- borrowings proper – are words taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language;
- international words – words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowing from one ultimate source.

Borrowings exerted much influence on the development of English and brought changes or innovations on all the levels of the language system. They have influenced:
- the phonetic structure of English words and the sound system;
- the word-structure and the system of word-building;
- the semantic structure of English words;
- the lexical territorial divergence.


## 4. Morphological Structure of English Words

**Plan**

1. Morphemes. Classification of morphemes.
2. Morphemic types of words.
3. Types of word segmentability.
4. Derivational affixes.
5. Inflectional (functional) affixes.

Morphemes – the smallest meaningful units in a language (which consist of a word or part of a word that cannot be divided without losing its meaning) (Longman).

All morphemes are subdivided into 2 large classes: root morphemes and affixational morphemes. Affixational morphemes include suffixes and prefixes.

Some words consist only of one root morpheme. They are called root words. Naturally root morphemes make words, but affixational morphemes can't make words as a rule. The root morpheme is the lexical nucleus of the word. They contain the main lexical meaning of the word.

Affixational morphemes include derivational affixes (such as –er, -or, -ness and so on), inflexional affixes (which carry the grammatical meaning of the word – look<u>ed</u>, the girl<u>'s</u> smile).

Also morphemes can be free and bound. Free morphemes can function independently, as independent words. Usually they are root morphemes, though there can be exceptions.

There can be morphemes which have different phonemic shapes. Such elements are called allomorphs.

According to their structure (English) words are classified into:
1) root words (*cat*);
2) derived words (built with the help of some derivational affixes – *beauti**ful***);
3) compound words (consist of at least 2 root morphemes – *football*);
4) compound derivatives (include not only root morphemes, but also derivational ones – *pig-headed*).

The largest class of the 4 above will be derived words.

The structure of a word undergoes changes, it can be developed.  Some morphemes can be fused (joined) or lost in the course of time.

The stem is that part of the word that remains unchanged throughout the paradigm. In the English language the root and the stem of a word often coincide (can be the same).

The stem structure may be represented in several ways. It may be generalized with the help of symbols: n – for nouns, v – for verbs, adj – for adjectives, adv – for adverbs and so on.

All living languages are characterized by the creation of new words. This process is called word-building or word-formation – the process of creating new words from elements existing in the language with the help of some patterns. That is, if the pattern V + able exists in English we can create words according to it.

New words can appear because of some semantic changes of the word (changes in the lexical meaning).

Derivation, conversion, semantic development are quite productive. As for non-productive ways of word-formation (not really spread), they are: sound-interchange (blood – to bleed); back-formation (baby-sitter – to baby-sit).

The nature, type and arrangement of the immediate constituents of the word are known as its derivational structure. Though the derivational structure of a word is closely connected with its morphemic (or morphological) structure and often coincides with it, it differs from the morphemic structure in principle.

The analysis of the morphemic structure reveals the hierarchy of morphemes making up the word, the way a word is constructed, the structural and the semantic type of the word and how a new word of similar structure should be understood.

The basic elementary units of the derivational structure of words are: derivational bases, derivational affixes and derivational patterns. A derivational base is the part of the word, which establishes connection with the lexical unit that motivates the derivative and determines its individual lexical meaning describing the difference between words in one and the same derivational set.

Derivational affixes are Immediate Constituents of derived words in all parts of speech. Derivational affixes have two basic functions: 1) stem building which is common to all affixational morphemes: derivational and non-derivational; 2) word-building.

Semantically derivational affixes are characterized by a unity of part-of-speech meaning, lexical meaning, differential and distributional meanings.

A derivational pattern (DP) is a regular meaningful arrangement, a structure that imposes rigid rules on the order and the nature of the derivational bases and affixes that may be brought together. DPs may represent the derivational structure at different levels of generalization:

a) at the level of structural types. Patterns of this level are known as structural formulas;

b) at the level of structural patterns;

c) at the level of structural-semantic patterns.


## 5. Types of Word Formation in English

### Plan

1. Conversion. Different approaches. Typical Semantic Relations in Conversion.

2. Compounding as a type of word-building. Structural classification of compounds. Semantic classification of compounds.

3. Lexical shortenings. Graphical abbreviations. Acronyms.


In linguistics conversion is a type of word-formation; it is a process of creating a new word in a different part of speech without adding any derivational element. The morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged. There are changes in the syntactical function of the original word, its part of speech and meaning.

The question of *conversion* has been a controversial one in several aspects. The term conversion was first used by Henry Sweet at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The nature of conversion has been analyzed by several linguists. A number of terms have been offered to describe the process in question.

The most objective treatment of conversion belongs to Victoria Nikolaevna Yartseva. According to her, it is a combined morphological, syntactical and semantic way of word-formation.

The process was called "*non-affixal derivation*" (Galperin) or "*zero derivation*".

The term "*functional change*" (by Arthur Kennedy) also has short-comings. The term implies that the first word merely changes its function and no new word appears. It isn't possible.

The largest group related through conversion consists of verbs converted from nouns. The relation of the conversion pair in this case can be of the following kind:

1) instrumental relations;

2) relations reflecting some characteristic of the object;

3) locative relations;

4) relations of the reverse process, the deprivation of the object.

The second major division of converted words is deverbial nouns (nouns converted from verbs). They denote:

1) an instance of some process;

2) the object or the result of some action;

3) the place where the action occurs;

4) the agent or the instrument of the action.

Conversion is not only a highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. There are a lot of words in the English language that are short and morphologically unmarked (don't indicate any part of speech). By short words we mean monosyllables, such words are naturally more mobile and flexible than polysyllables.

In English verbs and nouns are specially affected by conversion. Conversion has restrictions. It's impossible to use conversion if verbs cannot represent some process as a succession of isolated actions. Besides, the structure of the first word shouldn't be complicated.

Conversion is typical not only of nouns, verbs and adjectives, but other parts of speech as well, even such minor elements as interjections and prepositions or shortened words.

Word-compounding is a way of forming new words combining two or more stems. It's important to distinguish between compound words and word-combinations, because sometimes they look or sound alike. It happens because compounds originate directly from word-combinations.

The major feature of compounds is their inseparability of various kinds: graphic, semantic, phonetic, morphological.

There is also a syntactic criterion which helps us to distinguish between words and word combinations. For example, between the constituent parts of the word-group other words can be inserted (*a tall handsome boy*).

In most cases the structural and semantic centre of the compound word lies on the second component. It shows what part of speech the word is. The function of the first element is to modify, to determine the second element. Such compounds (with the structural and semantic centre "in" the word) are called endocentric.

There are also exocentric compounds where the centre lies outside (pickpocket).

Another type of compound words is called bahuvrihi – compound nouns or adjectives consisting of two parts: the first being an adjective, the second – a noun.

There are several ways to classify compounds. Firstly, they can be grouped according to their part of speech. Secondly, compounds are grouped according to the way the stems are linked together: morphological compounds (few in number); syntactic compounds (from segments of speech, preserving articles, prepositions, adverbs).

The third classification is according to the combinability of compounding with other ways of word-formation: 1) compounds proper (formed by a mere juxtaposition of two stems);
2) derived or derivational compounds (have affixes in their structure);
3) converted compounds;
4) contractive compounds (based on shortening);
5) compounds based on back formation;

The structural meaning of a compound may be described through the interrelation of its components. e.g. N + Adj (*heart-sick* – the relation of comparison).

In most cases compounds are motivated. They can be completely motivated, partially motivated, unmotivated. In partially motivated compounds one of the components (or both) has changed its original meaning. The meaning of unmotivated compounds has nothing to do with the meanings of their individual parts.

Shortening stands apart from other ways of word-formation because it doesn't produce new words. It produces variants of the same word. The differences between the new and the original word are in style, sometimes in their meaning.

There are two major groups of shortenings (colloquial and written abbreviations). Among shortenings there can be polysemantic units as well.

Shortenings are classified a) according to the position of the shortened part of the word (clipped words), b) into shortened word combinations, c) into abbreviations, d) into blendings.

Among clipped words there are cases of apocope, aphaeresis, and syncope.

Abbreviations can be read as in the alphabet, as one word. When initialisms are pronounced with the names of the letters of the alphabet, they may be called alphabetisms or abbreviations. But when they are pronounced like individual lexical items, they are acronyms. There are also cases when alphabetisms are mixed with acronyms and the two systems of pronunciation are combined.

Aphetic forms are a special kind of shortening characterized by the omission of the initial unstressed syllable as in 'scuse me and 'cause for excuse me and because respectively.

A blend may be defined as a new lexeme built from parts of two (or possibly more) words in such a way that the constituent parts are usually easily identifiable, though in some instances, only one of the elements may be identifiable. Blends may also be referred to as 'telescope' or 'portemanteau' words. Blends tend to be more frequent in informal style in the registers of journalism, advertising and technical fields. They five rise either to new morphemes or to folk etymology.

Folk etymology is viewed here as a minor kind of blending. It is a naïve misunderstanding of a relatively esoteric word which gives it a new, but false, etymology.

# 6. Semasiology. Structure of lexical meaning

**Plan**

1. Theory of meaning. Word as a linguistic sign.
2. Referential approach. Semantic triangle.
3. Structure of lexical meaning.
4. Inner form of a word and motivation.
5. Polysemy. Types of semantic changes.

The branch of linguistic which specializes in the study of meaning is called semantics or semasiology. The modern approach to semantics is based on the fact that any word has its inner form which is called the semantic structure.

Following de Saussure (1959), the linguistic sign is a mental unit consisting of two faces, which cannot be separated: a concept and an acoustic image. Since the word is a linguistic sign, a discussion of 'word meaning' is focuses on the relationship between the two faces of the sign.

There are two main approaches to the meaning of a word: referential and functional.

The referential approach is based on the notion of the referent (the object the word is devoted to). It also operates the notions of the concept and word. The word and the referent are related only through the concept. The essential characteristic of the referential approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound-form of the linguistic sign; the concept underlying this sound-form; the referent, i.e. the part or aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.

Meaning is not to be identical with any of the three points of the triangle, but is closely connected with them.

The referential definitions of meaning are usually criticized on the ground that:

1) they cannot be applied to sentences;
2) they cannot account for certain semantic additions emerging in the process of communication;
3) they fail to account for the fact that one word may denote different objects and phenomena (polysemy) while one and the same object may be denoted by different words (synonymy).

According to the functional approach the meaning of a word depends on the function of the word in a sentence. The approach is not perfect because it can help us only to compare the meanings of words. Speaking about the meaning of a word both approaches should be combined.

Word-meaning is not homogeneous. It is made up of various components.

The lexical meaning of the word is the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions.

In the general framework of lexical meaning several aspects can be singled out. They are:

a) the denotational aspect – is the part of lexical meaning which establishes correlation between the name and the object, phenomenon, process or characteristic feature of concrete reality, which is denoted by the given word.
b) The connotational aspect of lexical meaning is the part of the meaning which reflects the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about. Connotation includes: the emotive charge, evaluation, intensity (or expressiveness), imagery.
c) The pragmatic aspect 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 and the given language community; information on the tenor of discourse; information on the register of communication.

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

a) phonetical motivation;
b) morphological motivation;
c) semantic motivation.

Most words are polysemantic. Monosemantic words are usually found among terms and scientific words. The ability of words to have more than one meaning is called polysemy. Polysemy exists only in the language system.

The semantic structure of a polysemantic word may be described as a combination of its semantic variants. Each variant can be described from the point of view of their denotational and connotational meaning.

Polysemy is closely connected with the notion of the context (the minimum stretch of speech which is sufficient to understand the meaning of a word). The main types of context are lexical and grammatical. Every word in its development has undergone many semantic changes. The causes of semantic changes can be extralinguistic and linguistic. There are different kinds of change that occur.

One of the most familiar kinds of relationship between meanings is that of metaphor where a word appears to have both a 'literal', meaning and one or more 'transferred' meaning. Metaphor is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. It can be based on different types of similarity: similarity of shape, position, function, etc.

Sometimes the meaning may be transformed on the basis of contiguity. It is metonymy. There are different types of metonymy. The name of the place may be used for its inhabitants; the name of some person may become a common noun with the meaning of some features characteristic for the person.

Metaphor and metonymy are different kinds of process. Metaphor is a way of conceiving of one thing in terms of another, and its primary function is understanding. Metonymy has primarily a referential function, that is, allows us to use one entity to stand for another.

## 7. Types of semantic relations.

**Plan**

1. Types of semantic relations.
2. Synonymy. Classification of synonyms.
3. Antonyms. Classifications of antonyms.

There are four basic types of semantic relations: proximity, equivalence, inclusion and opposition.

Synonyms are defined as words belonging to one part of speech, close in meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts. Synonyms are characterized by either the semantic relations of equivalence or by the semantic relations of proximity. As the degree of semantic proximity may be different, different types of synonyms can be singled out.

Full (total, absolute) synonyms, i.e. words characterized by semantic equivalence, are extremely rare.
The degree of semantic proximity is best of all estimated in terms of the aspects of meaning, i.e. the connotational, the denotational, and the pragmatic aspect.

The highest degree of proximity is observed in synonyms which have similar denotational aspects but differ either in the connotational or the pragmatic aspect of meaning.

Taking into account the difference of synonyms by the three aspects of their meaning they may be classified into stylistic, ideographic and ideographic-stylistic synonyms.

Synonymic condensation refers to situations when writers or speakers bring together several words from one the same thematic group to enhance the purport, to make more detailed and more refined a certain underlying sense, to add conviction and force to their statements or, simply, to make for greater prosodic prominence of the 'thing-meant' (Minajeva).

The contrast of semantic features helps to establish the semantic relations of opposition. There are two types of relations of semantic opposition: polar oppositions are those which are based on the semantic feature uniting two linguistic units by antonymous relations (rich – poor, dead – alive; young – old). Relative oppositions imply that there are several semantic features on which the opposition rests (to leave – to arrive).

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.

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

Semantically, antonyms may be classified into:

1. Contradictories represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like, dead – alive, single – married. Contradictory antonyms are mutually opposed, they deny one another.

2. Contraries are antonyms that can be arranged into a series according to the increasing difference in one on their qualities. Contraries are gradable antonyms, they are polar members of a gradual opposition which may have intermediate members.

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.

Another type of semantic relations is the relationship of inclusion which exists between two words if the meaning of one word contains the semantic features constituting the meaning of the other word. The semantic relations of inclusion are called hyponymic relations. The general term is referred to as the classifier or the hyperonym. The more specific term (the hyponym) is included in the more general term.

## 8. Word groups and phraseological units

### Plan
1. Collocability. Lexical and grammatical valency.
2. Structure and classification of word groups.
3. Phraseology. Problems of definition.
4. Different principles of classification of phraseological units.

The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations is described as its lexical valency or collocability. The range of the lexical valency of words is linguistically restricted by the inner structure of the English word-stock.

Grammatical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures.

The meaning of word groups can be divided into lexical and structural (grammatical) components. The lexical meaning of the word group may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words. The structural meaning of the word groups is the meaning conveyed mainly by the pattern of arrangement of its constituents.

The lexical and structural components of meaning in word groups are interdependent and inseparable.

A phraseological unit can be defined as a reproduced and idiomatic (non-motivated) or partially motivated unit built up according to the model of free word groups and semantically and syntactically brought into correlation with words.

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

English and American linguists often use the term "idiom" which may denote a) a mode of expression; b) structural form peculiar to a given language; c) 'idiom' may be synonymous to the words "language" or "dialect" denoting a form of expression peculiar to a people, a country, a district, or to an individual.

The structural criterion brings forth features which state a certain structural similarity between phraseological units and free word-combinations at the same time opposing them to single words. The semantic criterion – the meaning in phraseological units is created by mutual interaction of elements and conveys a single concept. The syntactic criterion reveals the close ties between single words and phraseological units as well as free word-groups. Like words, phraseological units may have different syntactic functions in the sentence.

Semantic classification of phraseological units. It is based on the motivation of the unit. This classification was suggested by acad. Vinogradov V.V., who developed some points first advanced by the

Swiss scientist Charles Bally. According to the degree of idiomatic meaning of various groups of phraseological units, V.V. Vinogradov classified them as follows:

a) phraseological fusions;
b) phraseological unities;
c) phraseological combinations.

Structural classification of phraseological units. Prof Smirnitsky A.I., who worked out this classification, described phraseological units as highly idiomatic set expressions functioning as word equivalents, and characterized by their semantic and grammatical unity:

a) one-top (one-summit) phraseological units
b) two-top phraseological units.

Functional classification of phraseological units. This classification, suggested by prof. Arnold I.V., is based on the grammatical unity typical of all phraseological units and their functioning in the language as word equivalents. They may be subdivided into:

a) noun equivalents;
b) verb equivalents;
c) adjective equivalents;
d) adverb equivalents;
e) phraseological units functioning like prepositions;
f) phraseological units functioning like interjections.

Contextual classification of phraseological units. This approach was suggested by prof. Amosova N.N. She considers phraseological units to be units of fixed context. Units of fixed context are subdivided into two types: phrasemes and idioms.

Prof. Kunin's classification of phraseological units (structural-semantic classification). Kunin divides them into the following classes:

a) nominative phraseological units;
b) nominative-communicative phraseological units;
c) interjectional phraseological units;
d) Communicative phraseological units

## 9. English lexicography

**Plan**

1. Some of the main problems in lexicography.
2. Classification and types of dictionaries.
3. Modern trends in English lexicography.

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. It has a common object of study with lexicology as both describe the vocabulary of a language.

The term dictionary is used to denote a book that lists the words of a language in a certain order (usually alphabetical) and gives their meanings, or that gives the equivalent words in a different language.

The most important problems of lexicography are connected with:

1) the selection of lexical units for inclusion;
2) the arrangement of the selected lexical units;
3) the setting of the entry;
4) the selection and arrangement of word-meaning;
5) the definition of meanings;
6) the illustrative material.

Dictionaries may be classified under different heads.

According to the choice of items included and the sort of information given about these items dictionaries may be divided into two big groups – encyclopedic and linguistic.

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

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

According to the language of explanations, all dictionaries are divided into: monolingual and bilingual.

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

Modern trends in English lexicography are connected with the appearance and rapid development of such branches of linguistics as corpus linguistics and computational linguistics. Corpus-based linguistics deals mainly with compiling various electronic corpora for conducting investigations in different linguistic fields. Computational linguistics is the branch of linguistics in which the techniques of computer science are applied to the analysis and synthesis of language and speech.

The use of language corpora and the application of modern computational techniques in various lexicographical researches and in dictionary-making, have stipulated the appearance of corpus-based lexicography and computational lexicography.

## 1.2.3 Модуль 2 Стилистика английского языка

### Лекция 1 The object of the stylistics. Different classifications of expressive means.

1. Problems of the stylistic research.
2. Stylistics of language and speech.
3. Types of stylistic research and branches of stylistics.
4. Stylistics and other linguistic disciplines.
5. Stylistic neutrality and stylistic colouring.

Different classifications of expressive means.
1. Expressive means and stylistic devices. Definition.
2. Hellenistic Roman rhetoric system.
3. Stylistic theory and classification of expressive means by G.Leech.
4. I.R. Galperin's classification of expressive means and stylistic devices.
5. Classification of expressive means and stylistic devices by Y.M. Skrebnev.

#### 1.1 Problems of the stylistic research

Stylistics, sometimes called lingvo-stylistics is a branch of general linguistics.

It deals mainly with two interdependent tasks: a) the investigation of the inventory of special language media which by their ontological features secure the desirable effect of the utterance (stylistic devices and expressive means) and b) certain types of texts (discourse) which due to the choice and arrangement of language means are distinguished by the pragmatic aspect of the communication (functional styles).

The types of texts that are distinguished by the pragmatic aspect of the communication are called functional styles of language (FS); the special media of language which secure the desirable effect of the utterance are called stylistic devices (SD) and expressive means (EM). ' .

Some scholars claim that stylistics is a comparatively new branch of linguistics, which has only a few decades of intense linguistic interest behind it. The term stylistics really came into existence not too long ago. In point of fact the scope of problems and the object of stylistic study go as far back as ancient schools of rhetoric and poetics.

#### 1) The problem of style definition.

The word style is derived from the Latin word 'stylus' which meant a short stick sharp at one end and flat at the other used by the Romans for writing on wax tablets.

Now the word style is used in so many senses that it has become a breeding ground for ambiguity. The word is applied to the teaching of how to write a composition (see below); it is also used to reveal the

correspondence between thought and expression; it frequently denotes an individual manner of making use of language; it sometimes refers to more general, abstract notions thus inevitably becoming vague and obscure, as, for example, "Style is the man himself" (Buffon), "Style is depth" (Derbyshire);* "Style is deviations" (Enkvist); "Style is choice", and the like.

**Style is the basic notion of stylistics and it is concerned with specificity (mode, manner) of expression in speech acts and in writing.** This specificity lies in language variation and choice for the language user to achieve the desired (planned) effects of the message upon the receiver of the information (who may be either a reader or hearer). The variety of language means differs in the mode of emotion representations. Each stylistic form is marked either by expressivity or emotivity. The following examples represent different degrees of emotivity in the phrases: sit down- sink to your seat- take the seat, please, do sit down, down sit – go to your seat – may I offer you a chair? - Sit, Down! So, stylistics deals with the manner of expression in language or various possibilities of language behavior through choice of EMs (выразительные средства) and SDs (стилистические приемы).

Definition of stylistics: Stylistics is that branch of linguistics which studies the principles, and effect of choice and usage of different language elements in rendering thought and emotion under different conditions of communication.

 Of course the problem of style definition is not the only one stylistic research deals with.


**2) Other problems of stylistic research.**
Stylistics is concerned with such issues as
1) the aesthetic function of language;
2) expressive means in language;
3) synonymous ways of rendering one and the same idea;
4) emotional colouring in language;
5) a system of special devices called stylistic devices;
6) the splitting of the literary language into separate systems called style;
7) the interrelation between language and thought;
8) the individual manner of an author in making use of the language.


**1.2. Stylistics of language and speech**
One of the fundamental concepts of linguistics is the dichotomy of «language and speech» (langue— parole) introduced by F. de Saussure. According to it language is a system of elementary and complex signs- phonemes, morphemes, words, word combinations, utterances and combinations of utterances. Language as such a system exists m human minds only and linguistic forms or units can be systematised into paradigms.

So language is **a mentally** organised system of linguistic units. An individual speaker never uses it. When we use these units we mix them in acts of speech. As distinct from language **speech is not purely mental phenomenon**, *not a system* **but** *a process* of combining these linguistic elements into linear linguistic units that are called syntagmatic.

The result of this process is the linear or syntagmatic combination of vowels and consonants into words, words into word-combinations and sentences and combination of sentences into texts. The word «syntagmatic» is a purely linguistic term meaning a coherent sequence of words (written, uttered or just remembered).

Stylistics is a branch of linguistics that deals with **texts**, not with the system of signs or process of speech production as such. But within these texts elements stylistically relevant are studied both syntagmatically and paradigmatically (loosely classifying all stylistic means paradigmatically into tropes and syntagmatically into figures of speech).

Eventually this brings us to the notions of *stylistics of language* and *stylistics of speech*. Their difference lies in the material studied. **The stylistics of language analyses permanent or** *inherent* **stylistic properties of language elements** while **the stylistics of speech studies stylistic properties, which appear in a context, and they are called** *adherent.*

Russian words like тол**мач, штудировать, соизволять** or English words **prevaricate, comprehend, lass** are bookish or archaic and of these are their **inherent** properties. The unexpected use of any of these words in a modern context will be an **adherent** stylistic property.

So stylistics of language describes and classifies the inherent stylistic colouring of language units. Stylistics of speech studies the composition of the utterance – the arrangement, selection and distribution of different words, and their adherent qualities.

### 1.3 Types of stylistic research and branches of stylistics

1) Literary and linguistic stylistics
2) Comparative stylistics
3) Decoding stylistics
4) Functional stylistics
5) Stylistic lexicology
6) Stylistic Phonetics
7) Stylistic grammar
8) Stylistic Morphology
9) Stylistic Syntax

### 1.4 Stylistics and other linguistic disciplines

As is obvious from the names of the branches or types of stylistic studies this science is very closely linked to the linguistic disciplines philology students are familiar with: **phonetics, lexicology and grammar** due to the common study source.

**Stylistics and lexicology**: they both are interested in words, their meanings and forms, their nominative development;

**Stylistics and grammar**: every stylistic language means and device is formed on the basis of morphological and syntactical fluctuation or transposition (that is usage of grammatical forms and categories for stylistic purposes). In stylistics a deviation from grammatical standard in Off you go! Hardly had he known… is viewed as syntactical CD that helps to represent emotions or nerve-strain.

**Stylistics and phonology**. Phonology forms a basis for stylistic analysis, as the peculiarities of sound speech organization (such as rhythm, alliteration, rhyme) are used in onomatopea, in cases of non-standard pronunciation, when the length of sounds is changed, when words and intonation are chosen on sound-rhythmical purposes. This field of language is widely experimented in poetry and drama.

**Stylistics and psycholinguistics.** How can people express one and the same thought in different ways or styles and how may they interpret differently one and the same text? The choice of language means may be either spontaneous or intentional (thus representing personal, emotive meaning).

Psycholinguistics studies mechanisms of speech production, process of word choicer, structures, intonation, and in this aspect stylistics and psycholinguistics overlap.

**Stylistics and rhetoric**. Rhetoric is the science about the correctness, beauty and effectiveness of speech production. It studies the same phenomena as stylistics, but from its own point of view.

### 1.5. Stylistic neutrality and stylistic colouring

The **stylistic colouring** is nothing but the knowledge where, in what particular type of communication, the unit in question is current. On hearing for instance the above-cited utterance «I don't know nothing» («I ain't never done nothing») we compare it with what we know about standard and non-standard forms of English and this will permit us to pass judgement on what we have heard or read.

Within the stylistically coloured words there is another opposition between **formal vocabulary and informal vocabulary**.

**Conclusion**

**Stylistics is a separate branch of linguistics that studies expressive properties of linguistic units, their functioning and interaction in conveying ideas and emotions in a certain text or communicative context.**

Like other linguistic disciplines stylistics deals with the lexical, grammatical, phonetic and phraseological data of the language. However there is a distinctive difference between stylistics and the other linguistic subjects. Stylistics does not study or describe separate linguistic units like phonemes or words or clauses as such. It studies their *stylistic function.* Stylistics is interested in the expressive potential of these units and their interaction in a text.

Stylistics focuses on the expressive properties of linguistic units, their functioning and interaction in conveying ideas and emotions in a certain text or communicative context.

Stylistics interprets the opposition or clash between the contextual meaning of a word and its denotative meaning.

**Лекция 2**
**Stylistic Classification of the English Vocabulary**
1. Neutral, common literary and common colloquial vocabulary
2. Special literary vocabulary
3. Special colloquial vocabulary

**1. Neutral, common literary and common colloquial vocabulary**
The word-stock of any language may be represented as a definite system in which different **aspects** of words may be singled out as interdependent.

The word-stock of any given language can be roughly divided into three uneven groups, differing from each other by the **sphere** of its possible use. The biggest layer of the English word-stock is made up of *neutral* words, possessing no stylistic connotation and suitable for any communicative situation, two smaller ones are *literary* and *colloquial* strata respectively.

**Literary words** serve to satisfy communicative demands of official, scientific, poetic messages, while the **colloquial** ones are employed in non-official everyday communication.

Though there is no immediate correlation between the **written and the oral** forms of speech on the one hand, and **the literary and colloquial words**, on the other, yet, for the most part, the first ones are mainly observed in the written form, as most literary messages appear in writing. And vice versa: though there are many examples of colloquialisms in writing (informal letters, diaries), their usage is associated with the oral form o f communication.

Consequently, taking for analysis printed materials we shall find literary words in authorial speech, descriptions, considerations, while colloquialisms will be observed in the types of discourse, simulating (copying) everyday oral communication-i.e., in the dialogue (or interior monologue) of a prose work.

When we classify some speech (text) fragment as literary or colloquial it does not mean that all the words constituting it have a corresponding stylistic meaning. More than that: **words with a pronounced stylistic connotation are few** in any type of discourse, the overwhelming majority of its lexis being neutral.

It is this that makes it unstable, fleeting. The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character. That means it is unrestricted in its use. It can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity. It is this that makes the layer the most stable of all.

The literary layer of words consists of groups accepted as legitimate members of the English vocabulary. They have no local or dialectal character.

The colloquial layer of words as qualified in most English or American dictionaries is not infrequently limited to a definite language community or confined to a special locality where it circulates.

Each of the two named groups of words, possessing a stylistic meaning (literary and colloquial), is not homogeneous as to the quality of the meaning, frequency of use, sphere of application, or the number and character of potential  users.  This is why each one is further divided into the *common* (general), i.e.

known to and used by native speakers in generalized literary (formal) or colloquial (informal) communication, and *special* bulks. The latter ones, in their turn, are subdivided into subgroups, each one serving a rather narrow, specified communicative purpose.

**The literary vocabulary** consists of the following groups of words:

1. common literary; 2. terms and learned words; 3. poetic words; 4. archaic words; 5. barbarisms and foreign words; 6. literary coinages including nonce-words.

**The colloquial vocabulary** falls into the following groups: 1. common colloquial words; 2. slang; 3. jargonisms; 4. professional words; 5. dialectal words; 6. vulgar words; 7. colloquial coinages.

The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term **standard English vocabulary**. Other groups in the literary layer are regarded as special literary vocabulary and those in the colloquial layer are regarded as special colloquial (non-literary) vocabulary.

*Neutral words*, which form the bulk of the English vocabulary, are used in both literary and colloquial language. Neutral words are the main source of synonymy and polysemy. It is the neutral stock of words that is so prolific in the production of new meanings new words by means of conversion, word compounding, word derivation.

Unlike all other groups, the neutral group of words cannot be considered as having a special stylistic colouring, whereas both literary and colloquial words have a definite stylistic colouring.

*Common literary words* are chiefly used in writing and in polished speech.

**2. Special literary vocabulary**

Literary words, both general (also called learned, bookish, high-flown) and special, contribute to the message the tone of solemnity, sophistication, seriousness, gravity, learnedness. They are used in official papers and documents, in scientific communication, in high poetry, in authorial speech of creative prose.

**Лекция 3**

**Phonetic expressive means and stylistic devices**
1. Onomatopoeia.
2. Alliteration.
3. Rhyme.
4. Rhythm.
5. Graphical arrangement of a word.
6. Graphon.
7. Absence of punctuation.
8. Changes of the type (italics, capitalization).

The stylistic approach to the utterance is not confined to its structure and sense. There is another thing to be taken into account which, in a certain type of communication, viz. belles-lettres, plays an important role. This is the way a word, a phrase or a sentence sounds.

The sound of most words taken separately will have little or no aesthetic value. It is in combination with other words that a word may acquire a desired phonetic effect. The way a separate word sounds may produce a certain euphonic (благозвучный) impression, but this is a matter of individual perception and feeling and therefore subjective.

The theory of sound symbolism is based on the assumption that separate sounds due to their articulatory and acoustic properties may awake certain ideas, perceptions, feelings, images, vague though they might be. Recent investigations have shown that "it is rash to deny the existence of universal, or widespread, types of sound symbolism."

In poetry we cannot help feeling that the arrangement of sounds carries a definite aesthetic function. Poetry is not entirely divorced from music. Such notions as harmony, euphony, rhythm and other sound phenomena undoubtedly are not indifferent to the general effect produced by a verbal chain. Poetry, unlike prose, is meant to be read out loud and any oral performance of a message inevitably involves definite musical (in the broad sense of the word) interpretation.

Now let us see what phonetic SDs secure this musical function.

**Onomatopoeia**

Onomatopoeia is a combination of speech-sounds which aims at imitating sounds produced in nature (wind, sea, thunder, etc), by things (machines or tools, etc), by people (sighing, laughter, patter of feet, etc) and by animals. Combinations of speech sounds of this type will inevitably be associated with whatever produces the natural sound. Therefore the relation between onomatopoeia and the phenomenon it is supposed to represent is one of metonymy.

There are two varieties of onomatopoeia: <u>direct and indirect</u>

**Alliteration** is a phonetic stylistic device which aims at imparting a melodic effect to the utterance. The essence of this device lies in the repetition of similar sounds, in particular consonant sounds, in close succession, particularly at the beginning of successive words:

Alliteration, like most phonetic expressive means, does not bear any lexical or other meaning unless we agree that a sound meaning exists as such. But even so we may not be able to specify clearly the character of this meaning, and the term will merely suggest that a certain amount of information is contained in the repetition of sounds, as is the case with the repetition of lexical units.

Alliteration in the English language is deeply rooted in the traditions of English folklore. The laws of phonetic arrangement in Anglo-Saxon poetry differed greatly from those of present-day English poetry. In Old English poetry alliteration was one of the basic principles of verse and considered, along with rhythm, to be its main characteristic. Each stressed meaningful word in a line had to begin with the same sound or combination of sounds.

A variant of alliteration is **assonance**, i.e. <u>repetition of the same or similar vowels o</u>nly, as in the phrase *wear and tear (My shoes show signs of wear and tear, the wear and tear of city life).*

**Rhyme**

Rhyme is the repetition of identical or similar terminal sound combinations of words.

Rhyming words are generally placed at a regular distance from each other. In verse they are usually placed at the end of the corresponding lines.

The dissevering function of internal rhyme makes itself felt in a distinctive pause, which is a natural result of the longer line. This quality of internal rhyme may be regarded as a leading one.

The distinctive function of rhyme is particularly felt when it occurs unexpectedly in ordinary speech or in prose. The listener's attention is caught by the rhyme and he may lose the thread of the discourse.

**Graphical means**

In contemporary advertising, mass media and, above all, imaginative prose sound is foregrounded mainly through the change of its accepted graphical representation. This intentional violation of the graphical shape of a word (or word combination) used to reflect its authentic pronunciation is called *graphon.*

Graphons, indicating irregularities or carelessness of pronunciation were occasionally introduced into English novels and journalism as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century and since then have acquired an ever growing frequency of usage, popularity among writers, journalists, advertizers, and a continuously widening scope of functions.

**Лекция 4**

**Lexical stylistic devices**

1. The interaction of different types of lexical meaning.
a) primary dictionary and contextually imposed meanings (metaphor, metonymy, irony);
b) primary and derivative logical meanings (zeugma and pun).
2. The interaction of different types of lexical meaning.
b) logical and emotive (epithet, oxy'moron);
c) logical and nominative (antonomasia).
3. Intensification of a feature (simile, hyperbole, periphrasis).
4. Peculiar use of set expressions (clichés, proverbs, epigram, quotations).

Different linguistic schools and individual scholars have different views of the list of specification of connotational meanings. The list includes such entries as pragmatic, associative, ideological or conceptual, evaluative, emotive, expressive, stylistic.

1) Pragmatic one is directed at the perlocutionary effect of utterance.

2) Associative one is connected with related and non-related notions through individual psychological or linguistic associations.

3) Ideological (conceptual) one reveals political, social, ideological preferences of the user.

4) Evaluative one states the value of the indicated notion.

The **evaluative** component charges the word with negative, positive, ironic or other types of connotation conveying the speaker's attitude in relation to the object of speech. Very often this component is a part of the denotative meaning, which comes to the fore in a specific context.

**Emotive** connotations express various feelings or emotions. The emotive component of meaning may be occasional or usual (i.e. inherent and adherent). It is important to distinguish words with emotive connotations from words, describing or naming emotions and feelings like *anger* or *fear,* because the latter are a special vocabulary subgroup whose denotative meanings are emotions. They do not connote the speaker's state of mind or his emotional attitude to the subject of speech.

**Expressive** one aims at creating the image of the object in question.

There is also **stylistic** connotation. A word possesses stylistic connotation if it belongs to a certain functional style or a specific layer of vocabulary (such as archaisms, barbarisms, slang, jargon, etc). Stylistic connotation is usually immediately recognizable.

1. Irony

In all previously discussed lexical SDs we dealt with various transformations of the logical (denotational) meaning of words, which participated in the creation of metaphors, metonymies, puns, zeugmas, etc. Each of the SDs added expressiveness and originality to the nomination of the object. Evaluation of the named concept was often present too, but it was an optional characteristic, not inherent in any of these SDs. Their subjectivity relies on the new and fresh look at the object mentioned, which shows the latter from a new and unexpected side.

**Lexical stylistic devices**

In *irony,* which is our next item of consideration, subjectivity lies in the evaluation of the phenomenon named. The essence of this SD consists in the foregrounding not of the logical but of the evaluative meaning. The context is arranged so that the qualifying word in irony reverses the direction of the evaluation, and the word positively charged is understood as a negative qualification and (much-much rarer) vice versa.

In the stylistic device of irony it is always possible to indicate the exact word whose contextual meaning diametrically opposes its dictionary meaning. This is why this type of irony is called *verbal* irony. There are very many cases, though, which we regard as irony, intuitively feeling the reversal of the evaluation, but unable to put our finger on the exact word in whose meaning we can trace the contradiction between the said and the implied. The effect of irony in such cases is created by a number of statements, by the whole of the text. This type of irony is called *sustained,* and it is formed by the contradiction of the speaker's (writer's) considerations and the generally accepted moral and ethical codes.

*Antonomasia* is a lexical SD in which a proper name is used instead of a common noun or vice versa, i.e. a SD, in which the nominal meaning of a proper name is suppressed by its logical meaning or the logical meaning acquires the new – nominal – component. Logical meaning, as you know, serves to denote concepts and thus to classify individual objects into groups (classes). Nominal meaning has no classifying power for it applies to one single individual object with the aim not of classifying it as just another of a number of objects constituting a definite group, but, on the contrary, with the aim of singling it out of the group of similar objects, of individualizing one particular object.

*Epithet* is probably as well known to you as metaphor, because it is widely mentioned-by the critics, scholars, teachers, and students discussing a literary work. Epithet expresses characteristics of an

object, both existing and imaginary. Its basic feature is its emotiveness and subjectivity: the characteristic attached to the object to qualify it is always chosen by the speaker himself. Our speech ontologically being always emotionally coloured, it is possible to say that in epithet it is the emotive meaning of the word that is foregrounded to suppress the denotational meaning of the latter.

*Hyperbole* is a stylistic device in which emphasis is achieved through deliberate exaggeration, — like epithet, relies on the foregrounding of the emotive meaning. The feelings and emotions of the speaker are so raffled that he resorts in his speech to intensifying the quantitative or the qualitative aspect of the mentioned object. E.g.: In his famous poem "To His Coy Mistress" Andrew Marvell writes about love: "My vegetable love should grow faster than empires."

Hyperbole is aimed at exaggerating quantity or quality. When it is directed the opposite way, when the size, shape, dimensions, characteristic features of the object are hot overrated, but intentionally underrated, we deal with *understatement.*

*Oxymoron.* This is a device which combines in one phrase two words (usually: noun + adjective) whose meanings are opposite and incompatible (a living corpse, a low sktscraper).

It is a stylistic device the syntactic and semantic structures of which come to clashes. In Shakespearian definitions of love, much quoted from his *Romeo and Juliet,* perfectly correct syntactically, attributive combinations present a strong semantic discrepancy between their members. Cf.: "O brawling love! O loving hate! O heavy lightness! Serious vanity! Feather of lead, bright smoke, cold fire, sick health!"

*Periphrasis* is a very peculiar stylistic device which basically consists of using a roundabout form of expression instead of a simpler one, i.e. of using a more or less complicated syntactical structure instead of a word. Depending on the mechanism of this substitution, periphrases are classified into *figurative* (metonymic and metaphoric), and *logical.* The first group is made, in fact, of phrase-metonymies and phrase-metaphors, as you may well see from the following example: "The hospital was crowded with the surgically interesting products of the fighting in Africa" (I.Sh.) where the extended metonymy stands for "the wounded".

There is a variety of periphrasis which we shall call **euphemistic**.

Euphemism, as is known, is a word or phrase used to replace an unpleasant word or expression by a conventionally more acceptable one, for example, the word 'to die' has bred the following euphemisms: to pass away, to expire, to be no more, to depart, to join the majority, to be gone, and the more facetious ones: to kick the bucket, to give up the ghost, to go west. So euphemisms are synonyms which aim at producing a deliberately mild effect.

**Лекция 5**

**Syntactical expressive means and stylistic devices**

1. Main Characteristics of the Sentence.
2. Syntactical SDs.
3. Sentence Length.
4. One-Word Sentence.
5. Punctuation.
6. Arrangement of Sentence Members. Rhetorical Questions. Types of repetition. Parallel constructions.
7. Chiasmus. Inversion. Suspense. Detachment. Completeness of Sentence Structure. Ellipsis. One-Member Sentences.
8. Apokoinu Constructions. Break.
9. Types of Connection. Polysyndeton. Asyndeton. Attachment.

Stylistic study of the syntax begins with the study of the length and the structure of a sentence. It appears, the length of any language unit is a very important factor in information exchange, for the human brain can receive and transmit information only if the latter is punctuated by pauses.

Theoretically speaking a sentence can be of any length, as there are no linguistic limitations for its growth, so even monstrous constructions of several hundred words each, technically should be viewed as sentences.

Unable to specify the upper limit of sentence length we definitely know its lower mark to be one word. **One-word sentences** possess a very strong emphatic impact, for their only word obtains both the word-and the sentence-stress. Abrupt changes from short sentences to long ones and then back again, create a very strong effect of tension and suspense for they serve to arrange a nervous, uneven, ragged rhythm of the utterance.

Not only the clarity and understandability of the sentence but also its expressiveness depend on the position of clauses, constituting it. So, if a sentence opens with the main clause, which is followed by dependent units, such a structure is called *loose,* is less emphatic and is highly characteristic of informal writing and conversation. *Periodic* sentences, on the contrary, open with subordinate clauses, absolute and participial constructions, the main clause being withheld until the end. Such structures are known for their emphasis and are used mainly in creative prose. Similar structuring of the beginning of the sentence and its end produces *balanced* sentences known for stressing the logic and reasoning of the content and thus preferred in publicist writing.

The possibilities of intonation are much richer than those of punctuation. Indeed, intonation alone may create, add, change, reverse both the logical and the emotional information of an utterance. Punctuation is much poorer and it is used not alone, but emphasizing and substantiating the lexical and syntactical meanings of sentence-components. *Points of exclamation* and *of interrogation, dots, dashes* help to specify the meaning of the written sentence which in oral speech would be conveyed by the intonation. It is not only the *emphatic types of punctuation* listed above that may serve as an additional source of information, but also more conventional *commas, semicolons and full stops.* E.g.: "What's your name?" "John Lewis." "Mine's Liza. Watkin." (K.K.) The full stop between the name and the surname shows there was a pause between them and the surname came as a response to the reaction (surprise, amusement, roused interest) of John Lewis at such an informal self-introduction.

Punctuation also specifies the communicative type of the sentence. So, as you well know, a point of interrogation marks a question and a full stop signals a statement. There are cases though when a statement is crowned with a question mark. Often this punctuation-change is combined with the change of word-order, the latter following the pattern of question. This peculiar interrogative construction which semantically remains a statement is called a **rhetorical question.** Unlike an ordinary question, the rhetorical question does not demand any information but serves to express the emotions of the speaker and also to call the attention of listeners. Rhetorical questions make an indispensable part of oratoric speech for they very successfully emphasize the orator's ideas. In fact the speaker knows the answer himself and gives it immediately after the question is asked. The interrogative intonation and / or punctuation draw the attention of listeners (readers) to the focus of the utterance. Rhetorical questions are also often asked in "unanswerable" cases, as when in distress or anger we resort to phrases like "What have I done to deserve..." or "What shall I do when...". The artificiality of question-form of such constructions is further stressed by exclamation marks which, alongside points of interrogation, end rhetorical questions.

The effect of the majority of syntactical stylistic devices depends on either the *completeness of the structure* or on the *arrangement of its members.* The order in which words (clauses) follow each other is of extreme importance not only for the logical coherence of the sentence but also for its connotational meanings. The following sprawling rambling sentence from E. Waugh's novel *Vile Bodies,* with clauses heaping one over another, testifies to the carelessness, talkativeness and emotionality of the speaker: "Well, Tony rang up Michael and told him that I'd said that William, thought Michael had written the review because of the reviews I had written of Michael's book last November, though, as a matter of fact, it was Tony himself who wrote it." (E.W.) More examples showing the validity of the syntactical pattern were shown in Exercise I on the previous page.

One of the most prominent places among the SDs dealing with the arrangement of members of the sentence decidedly belongs to **repetition**. As a syntactical SD repetition is recurrence of the same word,

word combination, phrase for two and more times. According to the place which the repeated unit occupies in a sentence (utterance), repetition is classified into several types:

*Inversion* which was briefly mentioned in the definition of chiasmus is very often used as an independent SD in which the direct word order is changed either completely so that the predicate (predicative) precedes the subject; or partially so that the object precedes the subject-predicate pair. Correspondingly, we differentiate between *partial* and a *complete inversion.*

Still another SD dealing with the arrangement of members of the sentence is *suspense* which is a deliberate postponement of the completion of the sentence. The term "suspense" is also used in literary criticism to denote an expectant uncertainty about the outcome of the plot. To hold the reader in suspense means to keep the final solution just out of sight. Detective and adventure stories are examples of suspense fiction. The theme, that which is known, and the rheme, that which is new, of the sentence are distanced from each other and the new information is withheld, creating the tension of expectation. Technically, suspense is organized with the help of embedded clauses (homogeneous members) separating the predicate from the subject and introducing less important facts and details first, while the expected information of major importance is reserved till the end of the sentence (utterance).

A specific arrangement of sentence members is observed in *detachment,* a stylistic device based on singling out a secondary member of the sentence with the help of punctuation (intonation). The word-order here is not violated, but secondary members obtain their own stress and intonation because they are detached from the rest of the sentence by commas, dashes or even a full stop as in the following cases: "He had been nearly killed, ingloriously, in a jeep accident." (I.Sh.) "I have to beg you for money. Daily." (S.L.) Both "ingloriously" and "daily" remain adverbial modifiers, occupy their proper normative places, following the modified verbs, but — due to detachment and the ensuing additional pause and stress — are foregrounded into the focus of the reader's attention.

The second, somewhat smaller, group of syntactical SDs deals not so much with specificities of the arrangement as with the **completeness of sentence-structure.** The most prominent place here belongs to *ellipsis,* or deliberate omission of at least one member of the sentence, as in the famous quotation from *Macbeth:* What! all my pretty chickens and their dam // at one fell swoop?

In contemporary prose ellipsis is mainly used in dialogue where it is consciously employed by the author to reflect the natural omissions characterizing oral colloquial speech. Often ellipsis is met close to dialogue, in author's introductory remarks commenting the speech of the characters. Elliptical remarks in prose resemble stage directions in drama. Both save only the most vital information letting out those bits of it which can be easily reassembled from the situation. It is the situational nature of our everyday speech which heavily relies on both speakers' awareness of the conditions and details of the communication act that promotes normative colloquial omissions. Imitation of these oral colloquial norms is created by the author through ellipsis, with the main function of achieving the authenticity and plausibility of fictitious dialogue.

Ellipsis is the basis of the so-called *telegraphic style,* in which connectives and redundant words are left out. In the early twenties British railways had an inscription over luggage racks in the carriages: "The use of this rack for heavy and bulky packages involves risk of injury to passengers and is prohibited." Forty years later it was reduced to the elliptical: "For light articles only." The same progress from full completed messages to clipped phrases was made in drivers' directions: "Please drive slowly" "Drive slowly" "Slow".

The biggest contributors to the telegraphic style are *one-member* sentences, i.e. sentences consisting only of a nominal group, which is semantically and communicatively self-sufficient. Isolated verbs, proceeding from the ontological features of a verb as a part of speech, cannot be considered one-member sentences as they always rely on the context for their semantic fulfilment and are thus heavily ellipticized sentences. In creative prose one-member sentences are mostly used in descriptions (of nature, interior, appearance, etc.), where they produce the effect of a detailed but laconic picture foregrounding its main components; and as the background of dialogue, mentioning the emotions, attitudes, moods of the speakers.

In *apokoinu constructions* the omission of the pronominal (adverbial) connective creates a blend of the main and the subordinate clauses so that the predicative or the object of the first one is simultaneously

used as the subject of the second one. Cf: "There was a door led into the kitchen." (Sh. A.) "He was the man killed that deer." (R.W.) The double syntactical function played by one word produces the general impression of clumsiness of speech and is used as a means of speech characteristics in dialogue, in reported speech and the type of narrative known as "entrusted" in which the author entrusts the telling of the story to an imaginary narrator who is either an observer or participant of the described events.

The last SD which promotes the incompleteness of sentence structure is *break (aposiopesis)*. Break is also used mainly in the, dialogue or in other forms of narrative imitating spontaneous oral speech. It reflects the emotional or/and the psychological state of the  speaker: a sentence may be broken because the speaker's emotions prevent him from finishing it. Another cause of the break is the desire to cut short the information with which the sentence began. In such cases there are usually special remarks by the author, indicating the intentional abruptness of the end. (See examples in Exercise IV). In many cases break is the result of the speaker's uncertainty as to what exactly he is to promise (to threaten, to beg).

To mark the break, dashes and dots are used. It is only in cast-iron structures that full stops may also appear, as in the well-known phrases "Good intentions, but", or "It depends".

The arrangement of sentence members, the completeness of sentence structure necessarily involve various *types of connection* used within the sentence or between sentences. Repeated use of conjunctions is called *polysyndeton;* deliberate omission of them is, correspondingly, named *asyndeton.* Both polysyndeton and asyndeton, have a strong rhythmic impact. Besides, the function of polysyndeton is to strengthen the idea of equal logical (emotive) importance of connected sentences, while asyndeton, cutting off connecting words, helps to create the effect of terse, energetic, active prose.

These two types of connection are more characteristic of the author's speech. The third type — *attachment (gap-sentence, leaning sentence, link)* on the contrary,' is mainly to be found in various representations of the voice of the personage — dialogue, reported speech, entrusted narrative. In the attachment the second part of the utterance is separated from the first one by a full stop though their semantic and grammatical ties remain very strong.

**Лекция 6**

**Stylistic grammar**

1. The theory of grammatical gradation.
2. Grammatical metaphor and types of grammatical transposition.
3. Morphological stylistics. Stylistic potential of the parts of speech:
a) the noun and its stylistic potential;
b) the article and its stylistic potential;
c) the stylistic power of the pronoun;
d) the adjective and its stylistic functions;
e) the verb and its stylistic properties;
f) affixation and its expressiveness.

**Stylistic potential of the parts of speech**
1.   The noun and its stylistic potential
The stylistic power of a noun is closely linked to the grammatical categories this part of speech possesses. First of all these are the categories of number, person and case.

2. The category of case (possessive case) which is typical of the proper nouns, since it denotes possession becomes a mark of personification.

3. The article and its stylistic potential
The article may be a very expressive element of narration especially when used with proper names.

For example, the indefinite article may convey evaluative connotations when used with a proper name:
*I'm a Marlow by birth, and we are a hot-blooded family.* (Follett)

It may be charged with a negative evaluative connotation and diminish the importance of someone's personality, make it sound insignificant.

The definite article may contribute to the devices of gradation or help create the rhythm of the narration.

4. The stylistic power of the pronoun

The stylistic functions of the pronoun also depend on the disparity between the traditional and contextual (situational) meanings. This is the grammatical metaphor of the first type based on the transposition of the form, when one pronoun is transposed into the action sphere of another pronoun.

So personal pronouns *We, You, They* and others can be employed in the meaning different from their dictionary meaning.

The implication is meant to oppose the speaker and his interlocutor to this indefinite collective group of people.

*All the people like us are we, and everyone else is they.* (Kipling)

Such pronouns as *One, You, We* have two major connotations: that of 'identification' of the speaker and the audience and 'generalization' (contrary to the individual meaning).

Note should be made of the fact that such pronouns as *We, One, You* that are often used in a generalized meaning of 'a human being' may have a different stylistic value for different authors.

Possessive pronouns may be loaded with evaluative connotations and devoid of any grammatical meaning of possession.

*Watch what you're about, my man!* (Cronin)

*Your precious Charles or Frank or your stupid Ashley/* (Mitchell)

The same function is fulfilled by **the absolute possessive form** in structures like *Well, you tell that Herman of yours to mind his own business.* (London)

The range of feelings they express may include irony, sarcasm, anger contempt, resentment, irritation, etc.

**Demonstrative pronouns** may greatly enhance the expressive colouring of the utterance.

*That wonderful girl! That beauty! That world of wealth and social position she lived in!* (London)

*These lawyers! Don't you know they don't eat often?* (Dreiser)

In these examples the demonstrative pronouns do not point at anything but the excitement of the speaker.

Pronouns are a powerful means to convey the atmosphere of informal or familiar communication or an attempt to achieve it.

5. The adjective and its stylistic functions

The only grammatical category of the English adjective today is that of comparison. Comparison is only the property of qualitative and Quantitative adjectives, but not of the relative ones.

When adjectives that are not normally used in a comparative degree are used with this category they are charged with a strong expressive power.

The verb and its stylistic properties

The verb is one of the oldest parts of speech and has a very developed grammatical paradigm. It possesses more grammatical categories that any other part of speech. All deviant usages of its tense, voice and aspect forms have strong stylistic connotations and play an important role in creating a metaphorical meaning. A vivid example of the grammatical metaphor of the first type (form transposition) is the use of 'historical present' that makes the description very pictorial, almost visible.

6. Affixation and its expressiveness

Unlike Russian the English language does not possess a great, variety of word-forming resources.

In Russian we have a very developed system of affixes, with evaluative and expressive meanings: diminutive, derogatory, endearing, exaggerating, etc.

We can find some evaluative affixes as a remnant of the former morphological system or as a result of borrowing from other languages, such as: *weakling, piglet, rivulet, girlie, lambkin, kitchenette.*

Diminutive suffixes make up words denoting small dimensions, but also giving them a caressing, jocular or pejorative ring.

These suffixes enable the speaker to communicate his positive or negative evaluation of a person or thing.

The suffix *-ian/-ean* means 'like someone or something, especially connected with a particular thing, place or person', e. g. *the pre-Tolstoyan novel.* It also denotes someone skilled in or studying a particular subject: *a historian.*

The connotations this suffix may convey are positive and it is frequently used with proper names, especially famous in art, literature, music, etc. Such adjectives as *Mozartean, Skakespearean, Wagnerian* mean *like Mozart, Shakespeare, Wagner* or in that style.

However some of these adjectives may possess connotations connected with common associations with the work and life of famous people that may have either positive or negative colouring. For instance The Longman Dictionary of the English Language and Culture gives such definitions of the adjective Dickensian: suggesting Charles Dickens or kis writing, e. g. a the old-fashioned, unpleasant dirtiness of Victorian England: *Most deputies work two to an office in a space of Dickensian grinmess.* b the cheerfulness of Victorian amusements and customs: *a real Dickensian Christmas.*

The suffix *-ish* is not merely a neutral morpheme meaning a small degree of quality like *blue— bluish,* but it serves to create 'delicate or tactful' occasional evaluative adjectives—*baldish, dullish, biggish.* Another meaning is 'belonging or having characteristics of somebody or something'.

Most dictionaries also point out that *-ish* may show disapproval *{selfish, snobbish, raffish)* and often has a derogatory meaning indicating the bad qualities of something or qualities which are not suitable to what it describes (e.g. *mannish* in relation to a woman).

Another suffix used similarly is—*esque,* indicating style, manner, or distinctive character: *arabesque, Romanesque.* When used with the names of famous people it means 'in the manner or style of this particular person'. Due to its French origin it is considered bookish and associated with exquisite elevated style. Such connotations are implied in adjectives like *Dantesque, Turneresque, Kafkaesque.*

Most frequently used suffixes of the negative evaluation are: *-ard, -ster, -aster, -eer* or half-affix *-monger: drunkard, scandal-monger, black-marketeer, mobster.*

Considering the problem of expressive affixes differentiation should be made between negative affixes such as *in-, un~, ir-, non-,* etc. *{unbending, irregular, non-profit)* and evaluative derogatory affixes. Evaluative affixes with derogatory connotations demonstrate the

speaker's attitude to the phenomenon while negative affixes normally represent objects and phenomena that are either devoid of some quality or do not exist at all (e. g. a *non-profit organization* has mostly positive connotations).

All these examples show that stylistic potentials of grammatical forms are great enough. Stylistic analysis of a work of art among other things should include the analysis of the grammatical level that enables a student to capture the subtle shades of mood or rhythmical arrangement or the dynamics of the composition.

## Лекция 7

### The theory of functional styles

1. Colloquial vs. literary type of communication.
2. Oral vs. written form of communication.
3. Different classifications of functional styles.
4. I.R. Galperin's classification of functional styles.

I. R. Galperfn's classification of expressive means and stylistic devices
The classification suggested by Prof. Galperin is simply organised and very detailed. His manual «Stylistics» published in 1971 includes the following subdivision of expressive means and stylistic devices based on the level-oriented approach:
1. Phonetic expressive means and stylistic devices.
2. Lexical expressive means and stylistic devices.
3. Syntactical expressive means and stylistic devices.

1. Phonetic expressive means and stylistic devices

To this group Galperin refers such means as:

1) onomatopoeia (direct and indirect): *ding-dong; silver bells... tinkle, tinkle;*

2) alliteration (initial rhyme): *to rob Peter to pay Paul;*

3) rhyme (full, incomplete, compound or broken, eye rhyme, internal rhyme. Also, stanza rhymes: couplets, triple, cross, framing/ring);

4) rhythm.

2. Lexical expressive means and stylistic devices

There are three big subdivisions in this class of devices and they all deal with the semantic nature of a word or phrase. However the criteria of selection of means for each subdivision are different and manifest different semantic processes.

I. In the first subdivision the principle of classification is the interaction of different types of a word's meanings: dictionary, contextual, derivative, nominal, and emotive. The stylistic effect of the lexical means is achieved through the binary opposition of dictionary and contextual or logical and emotive or primary and derivative meanings of a word.

A. The first group includes means based on the interplay of dictionary and contextual meanings:

metaphor, metonymy, irony.

B. The second unites means based on the interaction of primary and derivative meanings:

polysemy: *Massachusetts was hostile to the American **flag**, and she would not allow it to be hoisted on her State House;*

zeugma and pun: *May's mother always stood on her gentility; and Dot's mother never stood on anything but her active little feet.* (Dickens)

C. The third group comprises means based on the opposition of logical and emotive meanings:

interjections and exclamatory words

epithet: *a well-matched, fairly-balanced give-and-take couple.* (Dickens)

oxymoron: *peopled desert, populous solitude, proud humility.* (Byron)

D. The fourth group is based on the interaction of logical and nominal meanings and includes:

antonomasia; *Mr. Facing-Both-Ways does not get very far in this world.* (The Times)

II. The principle for distinguishing the second big subdivision according to Galperin is entirely different from the first one and is based on the interaction between two lexical meanings simultaneously materialised in the context. This kind of interaction helps to call special attention to a certain feature of the object described. Here belong:

simile: *treacherous as a snake, faithful as a dog, slow as a tortoise.*

periphrasis: *a gentleman of the long robe (a lawyer); the fair sex.* (women)

euphemism: *In private I should call him a liar. In the Press you should use the words: 'Reckless disregard for truth'.* (Galsworthy)

hyperbole: *The earth was made for Dombey and Son to trade in and the sun and the moon were made to give them light.* (Dickens)

III. The third subdivision comprises stable word combinations in their interaction with the context:

cliches: *clockwork precision, crushing defeat, the whip and carrot policy.*

proverbs and sayings: *Come! he said, milk's spilt.* (Galsworthy)

epigrams: *A thing of beauty is a joy for ever.* (Keats)

Quotations: *Ecclesiastes said, 'that all is vanity'.* (Byron)

allusions: *Shakespeare talks of the herald Mercury.* (Byron)

decomposition of set phrases: *You know which side the law's buttered.* (Galsworthy)

3. Syntactical expressive means and stylistic devices

Syntactical expressive means and stylistic devices are not paradigmatic but syntagmatic or structural means. In defining syntactical devices Galperin proceeds from the following thesis: the structural elements have their own independent meaning and this meaning may affect the lexical meaning. In doing so it may impart a special contextual meaning to some of the lexical units.

The principal criteria for classifying syntactical stylistic devices are:

— the juxtaposition of the parts of an utterance;

— the type of connection of the parts;

— the peculiar use of colloquial constructions;

— the transference of structural meaning.

Devices built on the principle of juxtaposition

inversion (several types): *A tone of most extravagant comparison Miss Tox said it in.* (Dickens)

detached constructions: *She was lovely: all of her—delightful.* (Dreiser)

parallel constructions:

*The seeds ye sow—another reaps, The robes ye weave—another wears The arms ye forge—another bears.*(Shelley)

chiasmus:

*In the days of old **men** made **manners Manners** now make men.*(Byron)

repetition: *For glances beget ogles, ogles sighs, sighs wishes, wishes words, and words a letter.* (Byron)

enumeration: *The principle production of these towns... appear to be soldiers, sailors, Jews, chalk, shrimps, officers, and dock-yard men.* (Dickens)

suspense:

*Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle-Know ye the land of the cedar and vine...*

*'Tis the clime of the East—'tis the land of the Sun.*(Byron)

climax: *They looked at hundred of houses, they climbed thousands of stairs, they inspected innumerable kitchens.* (Maugham)

antithesis: *Youth is lovely, age is lonely; Youth is fiery, age is frost.* (Longfellow)

Devices based on the type of connection include

Asyndeton: *Soams turned away; he had an utter disinclination for talk, "ke one standing before an open grave...* (Galsworthy)

polysyndeton: *The heaviest rain, and snow, and hail, and sleet, could boast of the advantage over him in only one respect.* (Dickens)

gap-sentence link: *It was an afternoon to dream. And she took outi Jon's letters.* (Galsworthy)

Figures united by the peculiar use of colloquial constructions

Ellipsis: *Nothing so difficult as a beginning; how soft the chin which' bears his touch.* (Byron)

Aposiopesis (break-in-the-narrative): *Good intentions but -; You just come home or I'll...*

Question in the narrative: *Scrooge knew he was dead? Of course he did. How could it be otherwise?* (Dickens)

Represented speech (uttered and unuttered or inner represented speech):

*Marshal asked the crowd to disperse and urged responsible diggers to prevent any disturbance...* (Prichard)

*Over and over he was asking himself, would she receive him ?*

Transferred use of structural meaning involves such figures as

Rhetorical questions: *How long must we suffer? Where is the end?* (Norris)

Litotes: *He was no gentle lamb (London); Mr. Bardell was no deceiver.}* (Dickens)

Since «Stylistics» by Galperin is the basic manual recommended for this course at university level no further transposition of its content is deemed necessary. However other attempts have been made to classify all expressive means and stylistic devices because *some principles applied in this system do not look completely consistent and reliable.*

1)There are two big subdivisions here that classify all devices into either lexical or syntactical. At the same time there is a kind of mixture of principles since some devices obviously involve both lexical and syntactical features, e. g. antithesis, climax, periphrasis, irony, and others.

2) According to Galperin there are structural and compositional syntactical devices, devices built on transferred structural meaning and the type of syntactical connection and devices that involve a peculiar use of colloquial constructions. Though very detailed this classification provokes some questions concerning the criteria used in placing the group 'peculiar use of colloquial constructions' among the

syntactical means and the group called 'peculiar use of set expressions' among the lexical devices. Another criterion used for classifying lexical expressive means namely, 'intensification of a certain feature of a thing or phenomenon' also seems rather dubious. Formulated like this it could be equally applied to quite a number of devices placed by the author in other subdivisions of this classification with a different criteria of identification, such as metaphor, metonymy, epithet, repetition, inversion, suspense, etc. It does not seem quite just to Place all cases of ellipsis, aposiopesis or represented speech among colloquial constructions.

**Лекция 8**

**The Belles-Lettres style**
**Publicistic Style**
**Newspaper Style**

1. The language of poetry, or simply verse.
2. Emotive prose, or the language of fiction.
3. The language of the drama.
5. Oratory and speeches.
6. The essay.
7. Journalistic articles.
8. Brief news items.
9. Advertisements and announcements.
10. The headline.
11. The editorial

The belles-lettres style is a generic term for three substyles in which the main principles and the most general properties of the style are materialized. These three sub-styles are:
1. The language of poetry, or simply verse.
2. Emotive prose, or the language of fiction.
3. T'he language of the drama.
Each of these substyles has certain common features, typical of the general belles-lettres style, which make up the foundation of the style, by which the particular style is made recognizable and can therefore be singled out. Each of them also enjoys some individuality. This is revealed in definite features typical only of one or another substyle. This correlation of the general and the particular in each variant of the belles-lettres style had manifested itself differently at different stages in its historical development.
The common features of the substyles may be summed up as follows. First of all comes the common function which may broadly be called "aesthetico-cognitive". This is a double function which aims at the cognitive process, which secures the gradual unfolding of the idea to the reader and at the same time calls forth a feeling of pleasure, a pleasure which is derived from the form in which the content is wrought. The psychological element, pleasure, is not irrelevant when evaluating the effect of the communication. x This pleasure is caused not only by admiration of the selected language means and their peculiar arrangement but also (and this is perhaps the main cause) by the fact that the reader is led to form his own conclusions as to the purport of the author. Nothing gives more pleasure and satisfaction than realizing that one has the ability to penetrate into the hidden tissue of events, phenomena and human activity, and to perceive the relation between various seemingly unconnected facts brought together by the creative mind of the writer.

The general aim of publicistic style, which makes it stand out as a separate style, is to exert a constant and deep influence on public opinion, to convince the reader or the listener that the interpretation given by the writer or the speaker is the only correct one and to cause him to accept the point of view expressed in the speech, essay or article not merely through logical argumentation but through emotional

appeal as well.

This brain-washing function is most effective in oratory, for here the most powerful instrument of persuasion, the human voice, is brought into play.

Due to its characteristic combination of logical argumentation and emotional appeal, publicistic style has features in common with the style of scientific prose, on the one hand, and that of emotive prose, on the other. Its coherent and logical syntactical structure, with an expanded system of connectives and its careful paragraphing, makes it similar to scientific prose. Its emotional appeal is generally achieved by the use of words with emotive meaning, the use of imagery and other stylistic devices as in emotive prose; but the stylistic devices used in publicistic style are not fresh or genuine.- The individual element essential to the belles-lettres style is, as a rule, little in evidence here. This is in keeping with the general character of the style.

The manner of presenting ideas, however, brings this style closer to that of belles-lettres, in this case to emotive prose, as it is to a certain extent individual. Naturally, of course, essays and speeches have greater individuality than newspaper or magazine articles where the individual element is generally toned down and limited by the requirements of the style,

Further, publicistic style is characterized by brevity of expression. In some varieties of this style it becomes a leading feature, an important linguistic means. In essays brevity sometimes becomes epigrammatic.

English newspaper style may be defined as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means which is perceived by the community as a separate linguistic unity that serves the purpose of informing and instructing the reader.

Information and evaluation co-exist in the modern English newspaper, and it is only in terms of diachrony that the function of information can claim priority. In fact, all kinds of newspaper writing are to a greater or lesser degree both informative and evaluative. But, of course, it is obvious that in most of the basic newspaper "genres" one of the two functions prevails; thus, for example, news of all kinds is essentially informative, whereas the editorial is basically evaluative.

Information in the English newspaper is conveyed, in the first place, through the-medium of:
1) brief news items,
2) press reports (parliamentary, of court proceedings, etc.),
3) articles purely informational in character,
4) advertisements and announcements.

The newspaper also seeks to influence public opinion on political and other "matters. Elements of appraisal may be observed in the very selection and way of presentation of news, in the use of specific vocabulary, such as allege and claim, casting some doubt on the facts reported, and syntactic constructions indicating a lack of assurance on the part of the reporter as to the correctness of the facts reported or his desire to avoid responsibility.

The headlines of news items, apart from giving information about the subject-matter, also carry a considerable amount of appraisal (the size and arrangement of the headline, the use of emotionally coloured words and elements of emotive syntax), thus indicating the interpretation of the facts in the news item that follows.

But, of course, the principal vehicle of interpretation and appraisal is the newspaper article, and the editorial in particular. Editorials (leading articles or leaders) are characterized by a subjective handling of facts, political or otherwise. They have much in common with classical specimens of publicistic writing and are often looked upon as such. However, newspaper evaluative writing unmistakably bears the stamp of newspaper style. Thus, it seems natural to regard newspaper articles, editorials included, as coming within the system of English newspaper style. But it should be noted that while editorials and other articles in opinion columns are predominantly evaluative, newspaper feature articles, as a rule, carry a considerable amount of information, and the ratio of the informative and the evaluative varies substantially from article to article.

**Лекция 9**

**Scientific prose style**
**The style of official documents**
**Complex linguostylistic and philological analysis of the text**

The language of science is governed by the aim of the functional style of scientific prose, which is to prove a hypothesis, to create new concepts, to disclose the internal laws of existence, development, relations between different phenomena, etc. The language means used, therefore, tend to be objective, precise, unemotional, devoid of any individuality; there is a striving for the most generalized form of expression.

"The proper medium of scientific expression," writes E. Sapir, "is therefore a generalized language that may be defined as a symbolic algebra of which all known languages are translations. One can adequately translate scientific literature because the original scientific expression is itself a translation." l

The first and most noticeable feature of this style is the logical sequence of utterances with clear indication of their interrelations and interdependence. It will not be an exaggeration to say that in no other functional style do we find such a developed and varied system of connectives as in scientific prose.

A second and no less important feature, and perhaps the most conspicuous, is the use of terms specific to each given branch of science. It will be wise to state in passing that due to the rapid dissemination of scientific and technical ideas, particularly in what are called the exact sciences, we may observe the process of "determinization", that is, some scientific and technical terms begin to circulate outside the narrow field they belong to and eventually begin to develop new meanings. But the overwhelming majority of terms do not undergo this process of determinization and remain the property of scientific prose. There they are .born, may develop new terminological meanings, and there they die. No other field of human activity is so prolific in coining new words as science is. The necessity to penetrate deeper into the essence of things and phenomena gives rise to new concepts, which require new words to name them. As has already been pointed out, a term will make more direct reference to something than a descriptive explanation, a non-term. Hence the rapid creation of new terms in any developing science.

Further, the general vocabulary employed in scientific prose bears its direct referential meaning, that is, words used in scientific prose will always tend-to be used in their primary logical meaning. Hardly a single word will be found here which, in contrast to the belles-lettres style, is used in more than one meaning. Nor will there be any words with contextual meaning. Even the possibility of ambiguity is avoided. Furthermore, terms are coined so as to be self-explanatory to the greatest possible degree. But in spite of this a new term in scientific prose is generally followed (or preceded!) by an explanation.

Likewise, neutral and common literary words used in scientific prose will be explained, even if their

meaning is only slightly modified, either in the context (by a parenthesis or an attributive phrase) or in a foot-note.

In modern scientific prose an interesting phenomenon can be observed – the exchange of terms between various - branches of science. This is evidently due to the interpenetration of scientific ideas. Self-sufficiency in any branch of science is now a thing of the past. Collaboration of specialists in related sciences has proved successful in many fields. The exchange of terminology may therefore be regarded as a natural outcome of this collaboration.- Mathematics has priority in this respect. Mathematical terms have left their own domain and travel freely in other sciences, including linguistics.

A third characteristic feature of scientific style is what we may call sentence-patterns. They are of three types: postulatory, argumentative and formilative. A hypothesis, a scientific conjecture or a forecast must be based on facts already known, on facts systematized and defined. Therefore, every piece of sci-entific prose will begin with postulatory pronouncements which are taken as self-evident and needing no proof. A reference to these facts is only preliminary to the exposition of the writer's ideas and is therefore summed up in precisely formulated statements accompanied, if considered necessary, by references to sources.

The writer's own ideas are also shaped in formulae, which are the enunciation of a doctrine or theory, of a principle, an argument, the result of an investigation, etc. The definition sentence-pattern in a scientific utterance, that is, the sentence which sums up the argument, is generally a kind of clincher sentence. Thus, in his "Linguistics and Style" Nils Eric Enkvist concludes one of his arguments in the following words:

A fourth observable feature of the style of modern scientific prose, and one that strikes the eye of the reader, is the use of quotations and references. These sometimes occupy as much as half, a page. The references also have a definite compositional pattern, namely, the name of the writer referred to, the title of the work quoted, the publishing house, the place and year it was published, and the page of the excerpt quoted or referred to.

A fifth feature of scientific style, which makes-it distinguishable torn other styles, is the frequent use of foot-notes, not of the reference kind, but digressive in character. This is in full accord with the main requirement of the style, which is logical coherence of ideas expressed. Anything that seems to violate this requirement or seems not to be immediately relevant to the matter in hand, but at the same time may serve indirectly to back up the idea, will be placed in a foot-note.


### 1.2.3 Модуль 3 Грамматика английского языка


## 1. SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

### 1. System as a Linguistic Notion

Human language is a verbal means of communication; its function consists in forming, storing and exchanging ideas as reflections of reality. Being inseparably connected with the people who create and use it, language is social and psychological by nature. Language incorporates three constituent parts. They are the phonological system, the lexical system, and the grammatical system. The phonological system determines the material (phonetic) form of its significative units; the lexical system comprises the whole set of nominative means of language (words and stable word-groups); the grammatical system presents the whole set of regularities determining the combination of nominative units in the formation of utterances. The aim of theoretical grammar of language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system. To achieve this aim it is necessary to scientifically analyze and define its categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances in the process of speech production. Modern linguistics is essentially based on the systemic conception of language. System in general is defined as a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function. The interpretation of language as a system develops a number of notions, namely: the notions of language levels and language units, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, the notions of form and meaning (function), of synchrony and diachrony, of analysis and synthesis, and some others.

## 2. Language and Speech

The discrimination of language and speech is the fundamental principle of linguistics. This principle has sustained throughout the whole history of the study of language. With a special demonstrative force it was confirmed by LA. Beaudoin de Courtenay (end of the XIX c.) and F. de Saussure (beginning of the XX c.) who analyzed the language-speech dichotomy in connection with the problem of identifying the subject of linguistics. The two great scholars emphatically pointed out the difference between synchrony and diachrony stressing the fact that at any stage of its historical evolution language is a synchronic system of meaningful elements, i.e. a system of special signs. Language in the narrow sense of the word is a system of means of expression, while speech is a manifestation of the system of language in the process of communication. The system of language includes the body of material units - sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups, and a set of regularities or "rules" of the use of these units. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterances and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text made up of lingual units of various status. From the functional point of view all the units of language should be classed into those that are non-meaningful semantically, such as phonemes, and those that express a certain semantic meaning, such as words. The non-meaningful units may be referred to as "cortemes", they provide a physical cover (acoustic, graphical) for meaningful units; the meaningful units, in distinction to cortemes, may be referred to as "signemes". Signeme is a lingual sign. The introduction of a special name for it is called upon to show that there is a profound difference between lingual signs and non-lingual, common signs.

## 3. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations

Lingual units stand to one another in two fundamental types of relations: syntagmatic and paradigmatic. Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units
in a segmental sequence (string).

## 4. Language Units and Language Levels

Units of language are divided into segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental units consist of phonemes, they form phonemic strings of various status. Suprasegmental units do not exist by themselves, but are realized with segmental units and express different modificational meanings reflected on the strings of segmental units. The segmental units of language form a hierarchy of levels. Units of each higher level are formed of units of the immediately lower level.

**Questions:**

1. **What are the determining features of a system? How do they apply to language?**
2. **What is the functional relevance of the language unit?**
3. **What conceptual correlation is the language-speech dichotomy based on?**
4. **What is the correlation of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations?**
5. **What is the difference between segmental and suprasegmental units?**
6. **What language levels are identified in the language system?**
7. **What conditions the non-overlapping of language levels?**
8. **What functions do the language units, representatives of the six language levels, perform?**

## 2. CATEGORIAL STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

### 1. Notion of Opposition. Oppositions in Morphology

The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as categorial grammatical meanings. The forms rendering these meanings are identified within definite paradigmatic series. The grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms. The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function constitutes a paradigm. The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by grammatical oppositions which are generalized correlations of lingual forms by means of which certain functions are expressed.

There exist three main types of qualitatively different oppositions: "privative", "gradual", "equipollent". By the number of members contrasted, oppositions are divided into binary and more than binary.

The most important type of opposition in morphology is the binary privative opposition. The privative morphological opposition is based on a morphological differential feature which is present in its strong (marked) member and is absent in its weak (unmarked) member. This featuring serves as the immediate means of expressing a grammatical meaning, e.g. we distinguish the verbal present and past tenses with the help of the privative opposition whose differential feature is the dental suffix "-(e)d": *"work II worked":* "non-past (-) // past (+)".

**Questions:**

**1. In what way are the two notions - "grammatical category" and "opposition" - interconnected?**

**2. What grammatical elements constitute a paradigm?**

**3. What are the differential features of privative, gradual, and equipollent oppositions?**

## 3. NOUN AND ITS CATEGORIES

### 1. Noun as a Part of Speech

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of "substance". The semantic properties of the noun determine its categorial syntactic properties: the primary substantive functions of the noun are those of the subject and the object. Its other functions are predicative, attributive and adverbial. The syntactic properties of the noun are also revealed in its special types of combinability. In particular, the noun is characterized by the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb; by the casal combinability which coexists with its prepositional combinability with another noun; by the contact combinability with another noun.

As a part of speech the noun has also a set of formal features. Thus, it is characterized by specific word-building patterns having typical suffixes, compound stem models, conversion patterns. The noun discriminates four grammatical categories: the categories of gender, number, case, and article determination.

### 2. Category of Gender

The problem of gender in English is being vigorously disputed. Linguistic scholars as a rule deny the existence of gender in English as a grammatical category and stress its purely semantic character. The actual gender distinctions of nouns are not denied by anyone; what is disputable is the character of the gender classification: whether it is purely semantic or semantico-grammatical.

In fact, the category of gender in English is expressed with the help of the obligatory correlation of nouns with the personal pronouns of the third person. The third person pronouns being specific and obligatory classifiers of nouns, English gender distinctions display their grammatical nature.

### 3. Category of Number

The category of number is expressed by the opposition of the plural form of the noun to its singular form.

As the traditional interpretation of the singular and the plural members does not work in many cases, recently the categorial meaning of the plural has been reconsidered and now it is interpreted as the denotation of "the potentially dismembering reflection of the structure of the referent" (correspondingly, the categorial meaning of the singular is treated as "the non-dismembering reflection of the structure of the referent").

The categorial opposition of number is subjected to the process of oppositional reduction. Neutralization takes place when countable nouns begin to function as Singularia Tantum nouns, denoting in such cases either abstract ideas or some mass material, or when countable nouns are used in the function of the Absolute Plural.

### 4. Category of Case

The case meanings in English relate to one another in a peculiar, unknown in other languages, way: the common case is quite indifferent from the semantic point of view, while the genitive case

functions as subsidiary element in the morphological system of English because its semantics is also rendered by the Common Case noun in prepositional collocations and in contact.

In the discussion of the case problem four main views advanced by different scholars should be considered: the "theory of positional cases", the "theory of prepositional cases", the "limited case theory", and the "postpositional theory".

**5. Category of Article Determination**

The problem of English articles has been the subject of hot discussions for many years. Today the most disputable questions concerning the system of articles in English are the following: the identition of the article status in the hierarchy of language units, the number of articles, their categorial and pragmatic functions.

There exist two basic approaches to the problem of the article status: some scholars consider the article a self-sufficient word which forms with the modified noun a syntactic syntagma; others identify the article with the morpheme-like element which builds up with the stem a specific morph.

**Questions:**
**1. What are the "part of speech" properties of a noun? •**
**2. What does the peculiarity of expressing gender distinctions in English consist in?**
**3. What differentiates the category of gender in English from that in Russian?**
**4. What makes the category of case in English disputable?**
**5. What are the strong and weak points of the "prepositional", "positional", and "postpositional" case theories?**
**10. What are the main approaches to the treatment of the article?**


# 4. VERB: GENERAL. NON-FINITE VERBS, THE CATEGORY OF PERSON AND NUMBER.

**1. Classification of Verbs**

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. This is due to the central role it performs in the expression of the predicative functions of the sentence, i.e. the functions of establishing the connection between the situation (situational event) named in the utterance and reality. The complexity of the verb is inherent not only the intricate structure of its grammatical categories, but also in its subclass divisions, as well as in its falling into two sets of forms profoundly different from each other: the finite set and the non-finite set.

**2. Non-Finite Forms of the Verb**

Non-finite forms of the verb (verbids) are the forms of the verb which have features intermediary between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. Their mixed features are revealed in their semantics, morphemic structural marking, combinability, and syntactic functions. Verbids do not denote pure processes but present them as peculiar kinds of substances and properties; they do not express the most specific finite verb categories - the categories of tense and mood; they have a mixed, verbal and non-verbal, valency; they perform mixed, verbal and non-verbal, syntactic functions.

**The infinitive** combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, as a result it serves as the verbal name of a process. By virtue of its general process-naming function, the infinitive should be considered as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb.

**The gerund,** like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun and gives the process the verbal name. In comparison with the infinitive the gerund reveals stronger substantive properties. Namely, as different from the infinitive, and similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or its pronominal equivalents (expressing the subject of the verbal process), and it can be used with prepositions.

**The present participle** serves as a qualifying-processual name. It combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb.

The present participle has two categories: the category of retrospective coordination and the category of voice. The triple nature of the present participle finds its expression in its mixed (verb-type,

adjective- type, adverb-type) valency and its syntactic functions (those of the predicative, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier).

The **past participle** combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective. The categorial meaning of the past participle is qualifying: it gives some sort of qualification to the denoted process. The past participle has no paradigmatic forms; by way of paradigmatic correlation with the present participle, it conveys implicitly the categorial meanings of the perfect and the passive. Its valency is not specific; its typical syntactic functions are those of the attribute and the predicative.

### 3. Categories of Person and Number

The finite forms of the verb make up a very complex and intricate system; its intricacy is caused by the fact that they are directly connected with the structure of the sentence, the finite verb functioning as its predication center.

The morphological study of the English finite verb includes the study of its categories, those of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, and mood. Person and number are treated by scholars as closely related categories. In their treatment, two approaches are contrasted: traditional and modern.

In accord with the traditional approach to these two categories, scholars point out to the existence in English of three persons and two numbers.

In modern linguistic works on the problem it is also stressed that the categories of person and number are closely interwoven in English and should be considered together. At the same time it is particularly emphasized that these categories are specific because they don't convey the inherently "verbal" semantics.

### Questions:

**1. What is the general categorial meaning of the verb?**
**2. What does the processual categorial meaning of the verb determine?**
**3. What are the mixed lexico-grammatical features of the verbids revealed in?**
**4. What is peculiar to the predication expressed by the verbids?**
**5. Which of the verbids is considered the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb?**
**6. What grammatical categories does the infinitive distinguish?**
**7. What grammatical categories does the gerund have?**
**8. What grammatical categories differentiate the present participle from the past participle?**
**9. What considerations are relevant for interpreting the half-gerund as gerundial participle?**
**10. What is specific to the categories of person and number in English?**

## 5. VERB AND ITS CATEGORIES

### 1. Category of Tense

The category of tense is considered to be an immanent grammatical category which means that the finite verb form always expresses time distinctions.

The category of tense finds different interpretations with different scholars. Thus, in traditional linguistics grammatical time] is often represented as a three-form category consisting of the "linear" past, present, and future forms. The future-in-the-past does not find its place in the scheme based on the linear principle, hence, this system is considered to be deficient, not covering all lingual data.

At the same time, linguists build up new systems of tenses in order to find a suitable place in them for future-in-the past. Nevertheless, many of such schemes are open to criticism for their inconsistency, which finds its expression in the fact that some of them deny the independent status of future tenses while others exclude from the analysis future-in-the-past forms.

The said inconsistency can be overcome if we accept the idea that in English there exist two tense categories.

The first category - the category of primary time - expresses a direct retrospective evaluation of the time of the process denoted, due to which the process receives an absolutive time characteristic. This category is based upon the opposition of "the past tense" and "the present tense", the past tense being its strong member.

The second tense category is the category of "prospective time", it is based upon the opposition of "after-action" and "non-after-action", the marked member being the future tense. The category of prospect is relative by nature, which means that it characterizes the action from the point of view of its correlation with some other action. As the future verbal form may be relative either to the present time, or to the past time included in non-future, the English verb acquires two different future forms: the future of the present and the future of the past. It means that the future of the past is doubly strong expressing the strong members of the category of primary time and the category of prospect.

## 2. Category of Aspect

Grammatical aspective meanings form a variable grammatical category which is traditionally associated with the opposition of continuous and non-continuous forms of the verb. Yet, one can find a great divergence of opinions on the problem of the English aspect. The main difference lies in the interpretation of the categorial semantics of the oppositional members - continuous and indefinite forms: the categorial meaning of the continuous -form is usually defined as the meaning of duration, while the interpretation of the categorial semantics of the Indefinite form causes controversy (the indefinite form may be interpreted as having no aspective meaning (I.P. Ivanova), as a form having a vague content (G.N. Vorontsova), as a form stressing the fact of the performance of the action (A.I. Smirnitsky). In Modern Linguistics A.I. Smirnitsky's interpretation of the categorial semantics of the indefinite form is widely accepted.

In theoretical grammar the interpretation of perfect / non-perfect verb-forms also refers to disputable questions. Some linguists interpret the opposition of perfect / non-perfect forms as aspective (O. Jespersen, I.P. Ivanova, G.N. Vorontsova), others - as the opposition of tense forms (H. Sweet, G.O. Curme, A. Korsakov). A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to prove that perfect and non-perfect make up a special, self-sufficient, category which he called the "category of time correlation"; this viewpoint is shared now by a vast majority of linguists.

Developing A.I. Smirnitsky's views on the categorial semantics of perfect / non-perfect forms, we can come to the conclusion that in English there exist two aspective categories: the category of development (based on the opposition of continuous and non-continuous forms) and the category of retrospective coordination (based on the opposition of perfect and non-perfect forms).

The perfect form has a mixed categorial meaning: it expresses both retrospective time coordination of the process and the connection of the prior action with a time-limit reflected in a subsequent event. The recognition of the two aspect categories also enables one to give a sound interpretation to the perfect continuous forms: they must be treated as forms having marks in both the aspect categories.

## 3. Category of Voice

The category of voice occupies a peculiar place in the system of verbal categories because it reflects the direction of the process as regards the participants in the situation denoted by a syntactic construction. The passive form, being marked, expresses the reception of the action by the subject of the syntactic construction; its weak countermember - the active form - has the meaning of "non-passivity".

In comparison with Russian, the category of voice in English has a much broader representation as not only transitive but also intransitive objective verbs can be used in the passive voice.

Another peculiarity of voice distinctions of English verbs consists in the fact that active forms often convey passive meanings.

## 4. Category of Mood

A great divergence of opinions on the question of the category of mood is caused by the fact that identical mood forms can express different meanings and different forms can express similar meanings.

The category of mood shows the relation of the nominative content of the sentence towards reality. By this category the action can be presented as real, non-real, desirable, recommended, etc.

It is obvious that the opposition of the one integral form of the indicative and the one integral form of the subjunctive underlies the unity of the whole system of English moods. The formal mark of this opposition is the tense-retrospect shift in the subjunctive, the latter being the strong member of the opposition. The shift consists in the perfect aspect being opposed to the imperfect aspect, both turned into the relative substitutes for the absolute past and present tenses of the indicative.

The study of the English mood reveals a certain correlation of its formal and semantic features. The subjunctive, the integral mood of unreality, presents the two sets of forms according to the structural division of verbal tenses into the present and the past. These form-sets constitute the two corresponding functional subsystems of the subjunctive, the mood of attitudes, and the conditional, the mood of appraising causal-conditional relations of process.

Today scholars discuss different classifications of moods in English revealing new correlations of meaning and form in the process of expressing mood distinctions but so far a universally accepted system of moods has not been worked out.

**Questions**

**1. What does the immanent character of the category of tense imply?**
**2. What is the main weak point of the traditional "linear" interpretation of tenses?**
**3. What are the theoretical advantages of identifying in English two separate tense categories?**
**4. What is the main point of difference between the two categories of tense: the category of primary time and the category of prospect?**
**5. What categorial meanings do continuous forms and non-continuous forms express?**
**6. What category do the perfect forms express?**
**7. What accounts for the peculiar place of the category of voice among the verbal categories?**
**8. What makes the expression of voice distinctions in English specific?**
**9. What does the category of mood express?**
**10. What features of mood forms should be taken into account to give a full picture of English moods?**

## 6. SUNTAX, ITS BASIC UNITS

### 1. Basic Units of Syntax: Phrase and Sentence

Syntax treats phrases and sentences. Both syntactic units are studied in paradigmatic and syntagmatic syntax.

The phrase is the object of minor syntax. The phrase is usually understood as a combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of a word.

The sentence belongs to a different language level - the level lying above the phrasemic level. The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Any coherent connection of words having an informative destination is effected within the framework of the sentence. Therefore, the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The nominative meaning of the syntagmatically complete average sentence (an ordinary proposemic nomination) reflects a processual situation or event that includes a certain process (actional or statal) as its dynamic center, the agent of the process, the objects of the process, and also the various conditions and circumstances of the realization of the process. This content of the proposemic event forms the basis of the traditional syntactic division of the sentence into its nominative parts.

The difference between the phrase and the sentence is fundamental: the phrase is a nominative unit which fulfils the function of polynomination denoting a complex referent (phenomenon of reality) analyzable into its component elements together with various relations between them; the sentence is a unit of predication which, naming a certain situational event, shows the relation of the denoted event towards reality. Taking into consideration the two-aspective character of the sentence as a meaningful unit of language, predication should be interpreted not simply as referring the content of the sentence to reality, but as referring the nominative content of the sentence to reality. It is this interpretation of the semantico-functional nature of predication that discloses, in one and the same generalized presentation, both the unity of the two identified aspects of the sentence, and also their different, though mutually complementary, meaningful roles. Hence, the sentence as a lingual unit performs not one, but two

essential signemic (meaningful) functions: first, substance-naming, or nominative function; second, reality-evaluating, or predicative function.

Phonetically, the sentence is distinguished by a relevant intonation (intonation contour).

**2. Traditional Classification of Phrases** :

Linguists discuss different classifications of phrases, all of them having their own advantages. These classifications help reveal those aspects of phrases which are determined by the grammatical features of phrase constituents and by the syntactic functions of the phrase as a unit.

The traditional classification of phrases is based on the part of speech status of the phrase constituents. In accordance with this criterion, the following types of phrases can be identified: "noun + noun", "adjective + noun", "verb + noun", "verb + adverb", "adverb + adjective", "adverb + adverb", etc. Phrases are made up not only by notional words but also by functional words, e.g.: "in accordance with", "due to", "apart from", "as soon as" - such phrases perform in a sentence preposition-like and conjunction-like functions.

**Questions:**

**1. What are the differential features of the phrase?**
**2. What are the differential features of the sentence?**
**3. What makes the sentence the main object of syntax?**
**4. What functions does the sentence perform?**
**5. In what way does the notion of nominative aspect of the sentence specify the notion of predication?**
**6. What are the strong points of the traditional classification of phrases?**

## 7. ACTUAL DIVISION OF THE SENTENCE. COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF SENTENCES

**1. The Main Principles of Actual Division of the Sentence**

The actual division of the sentence exposes its informative perspective showing what immediate semantic contribution the sentence parts make to the total information conveyed by the sentence.

From the point of view of the actual division the sentence can be divided into two sections: thematic (theme) and rhematic (rheme). The theme expresses the starting point of communication; it means that it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, emphasizing its contextually relevant center. Between the theme and the rheme intermediary, transitional parts of the actual division can be placed, also known under the term "transition". Transitional parts of the sentence are characterized by different degrees of their informative value.

**2. Language Means of Expressing the Theme and the Rheme**

Language has special means to express the theme. They are the following: the definite article and definite pronominal determiners, a loose parenthesis introduced by the phrases "as to", "as for", and the direct word-order pattern.

In comparison with the language means used to express the theme, language has a richer arsenal of means to express the rheme because the rheme marks the informative focus of the sentence. To identify the rhematic elements in the utterance one can use a particular word-order pattern together with a specific intonation contour, an emphatic construction with the pronoun "it", a contrastive complex, intensifying particles, the so-called "there-pattern", the indefinite article and indefinite pronominal determiners, ellipsis, and also special graphical means.

**3. Actual Division and Communicative Sentence Types**

The theory of actual division has proved fruitful in the study of the communicative properties of sentences. In particular, it has been demonstrated that each communicative type is distinguished by features which are revealed first and foremost in the nature of the rheme.

As a declarative sentence immediately expresses a proposition, its actual division pattern has a complete form, its rheme making up the center of some statement.

As an imperative sentence does not directly express a proposition, its rheme represents the informative nucleus not of an explicit proposition, but of an inducement in which the thematic subject is usually zeroed. If the inducement is emphatically addressed to the listener, or to the speaker himself, or to the third person, thematic subjects have an explicit form.

The differential feature of the actual division pattern of an interrogative sentence is determined by the fact that its rheme is informationally open because this type of sentence expresses an inquiry about information which the speaker does not possess. The function of the
rheme in an interrogative sentence consists in marking the rhematic position in a response sentence, thus programming its content. Different types of questions are characterized by different types of rhemes.

The analysis of the actual division of communicative sentence types gives an additional proof of the "non-communicative" nature of the so-called purely exclamatory sentences (e.g. "Oh, I say!"): it shows that interjectional utterances of the type don't make up grammatically predicated sentences with their own informative perspective; in other words, they remain mere signals of emotions.

The actual division theory combined with the general theory of paradigmatic oppositions can reveal the true nature of intermediary predicative constructions distinguished by mixed communicative features. In particular, this kind of analysis helps identify a set of intermediary communicative sentence types, namely, the sentences which occupy an intermediary position between cardinal communicative sentence types.

### 4. Structural Classification of Simple Sentences

In traditional linguistics sentences, according to their structure, are divided into simple and composite, the latter consisting of two or more clauses. The typical English simple sentence is built up by one "predicative line" realized as the immediate connection between the subject and the predicate of the sentence.

Simple sentences are usually classified into one-member and two-member sentences. This distinction is based on the representation of the main parts of the sentence: sentences having the grammatical subject and the grammatical predicate are termed "two-member" sentences; if sentences have only one of these main parts they are termed "one-member" sentences.

Another structural classification of simple sentences is their classification into complete and elliptical. The language status of the elliptical sentence is a disputable question; many linguists connect the functioning of elliptical sentences with the phenomena of representation and substitution.

**Questions:**

**1. What are the main principles of the actual division of the sentence?**
**2. What sentence elements can be called "thematic"?**
**3. What language means mark the theme of the sentence?**
**4. What is understood by the rheme of the sentence?**
**5. What language means are used to express the rheme of the sentence?**
**6. In what do you see the connection of the actual division and the communicative sentence types?**
**7. What actual division pattern is typical of the declarative sentence?**
**8. What actual division pattern characterizes the imperative sentence?**
**9. What kind of rheme is peculiar to the interrogative sentence?**
**10. In what way does the actual division help reveal the differential features of intermediary communicative sentence types?**
**11. What do the structural classifications of simple sentences reveal?**
**12. What does the difference between the one-member and the two-member sentence consist in?**

**8. COMPOSITE SENTENCE**

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

According to the number of predicative lines sentences are classified into simple, composite and semi-composite. The simple sentence is built up by one predicative line, while the composite sentence is built up by two or more predicative lines. As a polypredicative construction, the composite sentence, from the referential point of view, reflects a few elementary situations as a unity.

### 2. Compound Sentence

The compound sentence is based on parataxis, i.e. coordination. By coordination the clauses in the composite sentence are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank. The position of the coordinate clause is always rigidly fixed and it serves as one of the differential features of coordination as such.

It is usual to single out the following types of semantic relations between coordinative clauses: copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, and resultative.
Coordinating connectors are divided into proper and semi-functional, the latter revealing adverbial features.

### 3. Complex Sentence

The complex sentence is based on hypotaxis, i.e. subordination. By subordination the principal clause positionally dominates the subordinate clause making up with it a semantico-syntactic unity. The subordinate clause can be joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector, or, with some types of clauses, asyndetically.

Subordinate clauses can be classified on different principles: either functional, or categorial.

In accord with the functional principle, subordinate clauses are classified on the analogy of the positional parts of the simple sentence. As a result of this classification, subordinate clauses are classed into subject, predicative, object, attributive, and adverbial.

The categorial classification is aimed at revealing the inherent nominative properties of the subordinate clauses irrespective of their immediate position in the sentence.

According to their integral features all subordinate clauses are divided into four generalized types: clauses of primary nominal positions, clauses of secondary nominal positions, clauses of adverbial positions, clauses of parenthetical positions.

### 4. Semi-Composite Sentence and Its Types

Semi-composite sentences are sentences in which one predicative line is represented by a semi-predicative construction. Semi-composite sentences are divided into semi-complex and semi-compound according to the type of relations between the semi-clause and the main clause - subordinative and coordinative, respectively.

The semi-complex sentence is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from minimum two base sentences, one matrix and one insert. In the process of semicomplexing the insert sentence is transformed into a partially depredicated construction which is embedded in one of the syntactic positions of the matrix sentence. In the resulting construction, the matrix sentence becomes its dominant (main) part and the insert sentence, its subordinate semi-clause.

The semi-complex sentences fall into a number of subtypes. Their basic division is dependent on the character of predicative fusion: this may be effected either by the process of position-sharing (word sharing), or by the process of direct linear expansion. The sentences based on position-sharing fall into those of subject-sharing and those of object-sharing. The sentences based on semi-predicative linear expansion fall into those of attributive complication, adverbial complication, and nominal-phrase complication. Each subtype is related to a definite complex sentence (pleni-complex sentence) as its explicit structural prototype.

The semi-compound sentence is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of coordination. The structure of the semi-compound sentence is derivationally to be traced back to minimum two base sentences having an identical element belonging to one or both of their principal syntactic positions, i.e. either the subject, or the predicate, or both. According to the process of semi-compounding, coordinative fusion can be either syndetic or asyndetic. Thus, from the formal point of view, a sentence possessing coordinated notional parts of immediately sentential reference (directly related to its predicative line) is to be treated as semi-compound. But different structural types of syntactic coordination even of direct sentential reference (coordinated subjects,

predicates, objects, adverbial modifiers) display very different implications as regards semi-compounding composition of sentences.

**Questions:**

**1. What is the main principle of differentiating between the simple sentence and the composite sentence?**
**2. What are the two main syntactic types of clause connection?**
**3. What are the differential features of the compound sentence?**
**4. What semantic relations underlie coordinative clauses?**
**5. What are the differential features of the complex sentence?**
**6. What principles are used for classifying subordinate clauses?**
**7. What sentence is termed "semi-composite"?**
**8. What is the nature intermediary syntactic character of the semi-composite sentence?**
**9. What types of semi-composite sentences are singled out?**
**10. What are the differential features of the semi-complex sentence?**
**11. What is peculiar to the semi-compound sentence?**

## 9. LINGUISTICS OF TEXT

### 1. Text as a Linguistic Notion

Any text is a coherent stretch of speech which is a semantico-topical and syntactic unity. Sentences organized in dictemes make up textual stretches on syntactic lines according to a communicative purpose in a particular communicative situation. As a result, a textual stretch has a unifying topic. So, in syntactic terms a text is a strictly topical stretch of talk (a continual succession of dictemes) centering on a common informative purpose. In the framework of the given understanding of text, it has two main differential features: topical (semantic) unity and semantico-syntactic cohesion.

### 2. Textual Units. The notions of «Cumuleme», «Occurseme», and «Dicteme»

One can single out different types of textual stretches (units). Irrespective of their specific features, all textual units are united by their common function - they represent the text as a whole integrally expressing the textual topic.

Earlier, analysing the structure of text linguists identified semantically connected sentence sequences as certain syntactic formations. These formations, or unities, were given the names of "complex syntactic unity", or "super-phrasal unity", or "supra-sentential construction".

Since sentences in these unities are joined by means of syntactic cumulation, it stands to reason to call such sentence sequences "cumulemes".

The cumuleme is essentially a constituent part of one-direction sequence of sentences forming monologue speech. Besides one-direction sequences, i.e. cumulemes, two-direction sequences should be recognized that essentially build up constituent parts of dialogue speech. The component constructions-utterances in these sequences are positioned to meet one another, hence their name "occursemes" (of the Latin root meaning "to meet").

The new approach to the nature of text has been proposed by the introduction of the notion of dicteme - the elementary topical textual unit. The dicteme occupies the highest position in the hierarchy of segmental levels of language. It can be expressed either by a cumuleme (a sequence of two or more sentences), or by one single sentence placed in a topically significant position. The dicteme, as an elementary topical textual unit, is polyfunctional. In the text it performs the functions of nomination, predication, topicalization, and stylization.

### 3. Textual Categories. Topical Unity and Semantico-Syntactic Cohesion as Basic Textual Categories

Textual categories appear and function only in the text as a language unit of the highest rank. Textual categories reveal the cardinal and the most general differential features of the text.

Today the list of textual categories is open: linguists name different textual categories because they approach the text from different angles. To the list of textual categories scholars usually refer cohesion, informativeness, retrospection, modality, causality, implication, the author's image, and some others.

In spite of the diversity of opinions on the question, most linguists agree that the basic textual categories are topical unity and semantico-syntactic cohesion. It is conditioned by the fact that the general idea of a sequence of sentences forming a text includes these two notions. On the one hand, it presupposes a succession of spoken or written utterances irrespective of their forming or not forming a coherent semantic complex. On the other hand, it implies a strictly topical stretch of talk, i.e. a continual succession of sentences centering on a common informative purpose. It is this latter understanding of the text that is syntactically relevant. It is in this latter sense that the text can be interpreted as a lingual entity with its two distinguishing features: first, semantic (topical) unity, second, semantico-syntactic cohesion.

**Questions:**

**1. What definition of text is syntactically relevant?**
**2. What are the principles of identifying textual units?**
**3. What is the basic difference between a cumuleme and an occurseme?**
**4. What is the role of the dicteme in the formation of text?**
**5. What basic functions are performed by the dicteme?**
**6. What textual categories do scholars usually identify?**
**7. What enables linguists to regard topical unity and semantico-syntactic cohesion as the basic textual categories?**

### 1.2.4 Модуль 4 История английского языка

**Раздел 1 История английского языка как наука**
Лекция 1 История английского языка как научная дисциплина

История языка как научная дисциплина представляет собой систематическое описание развития языка и установления закономерностей его развития.

Динамика различных сторон языка в их историческом развитии описывается понятием диахронии; под синхронией понимается статическое состояние языка, прежде всего в современный период.

Цель дисциплины: выяснить закономерности развития всех уровней английского языка. Задачи дисциплины: сформировать представление о системе английского языка в диахронном аспекте, о роли экстралингвистических факторов в языке; приобрести навык самостоятельного анализа исторического языкового материла.

Сравнительно-историческое изучение языка ставит перед собой задачи выяснения происхождения данного языка, определения характера исторических отношений между ним и другими языками. Сравнительно-историческое изучение языка пользуется сопоставительным (сравнительно-историческим) методом, с помощью которого научно описываются факты данного языка в сравнении с соответствующими фактами другого языка.

Приемы сравнительно-исторического метода: доказательство материального родства языков (поиск регулярных соответствий), реконструкция (восстановление первоисточника на основании сравнения языковых единиц родственных языков или одного языка в диахронном разрезе), определение хронологии, определение ареала распространения языковых явлений.

Этапы становления истории языка как науки:

16 в. – рост национального самосознания побудил интерес к памятникам письменности на национальных языках. Собираются и издаются Бодлеанское и Коттонианское собрания рукописей (Оксфордский университет). Опубликован первый словарь «трудных» слов. 1755 г. – толковый словарь С. Джонсона.

17 в. – изучение отдельных германских языков навело на мысль о родстве между ними. Появились первые сопоставительные грамматики.

18 в. – развивается идея о генетической связи языков и об их исторической изменчивости. Знакомство ученых с санскритом навело ученых на мысль о существовании общего источника европейских языков.

1786 г. –У. Джонс сформулировал понятие языка-основы, или праязыка («the common source»).

19 в. – исторический подход стал главным принципом изучения языка:

1816 г. – Ф. Бопп впервые описал грамматическую систему санскрита в сравнении с греческим, латинским, персидским и германскими языками;

1818 г. – Р. Раск доказал общность германских языков и выявил важные фонетические соответствия между ними и другими индоевропейскими языками;

1837 г. – Я. Гримм издал труд «Немецкая грамматика», в котором немецкая граммактика описана в сравнении с другими германскими языками.

20 в. – сравнительно-исторический метод используется во взаимодействии с другими направлениями (типология, лингвистическая география).

**Раздел 2 Особенности древнегерманских языков**

Лекция 2 Классификация древнегерманских языков. Особенности германских языков.

Периодизация истории английского языка

Английский язык принадлежит к германской группе языков, которая входит в семью индоевропейских языков. Английский язык выделился из германского праязыка, или общегерманского языка-основы в 15-10 вв. до н.э. К началу н.э. можно говорить об образовании трех ветвей древнегерманских языков: восточно-германская, северо-германская, западно-германская. Со временем они разделились на отдельные языки. Это было обусловлено миграцией древнегерманских племен на территории Европы.

Восточно-германская группа: готский, вандальский, бургундский, на которых говорили племена готов, вандалов, бургундов. Все эти языки мертвые. Самый значимый сохранившийся письменный источник – «Серебряный кодекс», перевод Евангелия с греческого языка на готский 4 в.

Северо-германская группа: древнешведский, древненорвежский, древнедатский, древнеисландский. Из них развились современные языки, в том числе фарерский. На всех языках сохранились письменные памятники, самые ранние относятся к 12 в.

Западно-германская группа: древневерхненемецкий, древнефризский, франкский, древнесаксонский, древнеанглийский. На них говорили германские племена англов, саксов, ютов, фризов, франков, тевтонов и т.д. Из древневерхненемецкого развились немецкий язык и идиш, из древнесаксонского – нижненемецкие диалекты, из франкского – нидерландский, бурский (африкаанс), из древнефризского – фризский, из древнеанглийского – английский. На всех сохранились письменные памятники, самые ранние относятся к 7 в.

При создании своих письменных памятников германские племена пользовались руническим, готским, латинским алфавитами.

Фонетические особенности древнегерманских языков

1. Закон Гримма

1) Индоевропейским глухим смычным **p, t, k** соответствуют в германских языках глухие щелевые **f, þ, h:** лат. **p**lenus, греч. **p**leos – гот. **f**ulls, да. **f**ull, лат. **t**res, рус. **т**ри – гот. **þ**reis, да. **þ**reo, лат. **c**or, **c**ordis – гот. **h**airto, да. **h**eorte.

2) Индоевропейским звонким смычным придыхательным **bh, dh**, **gh** соответствуют в германских языках звонкие смычные без придыхания **b, d, g:** скр. **bh**rata, рус. брат – да. **b**rōþor, скр. vi**dh**ava рус. вдова – да. wi**d**we, скр. la**gh** – да. li**cg**ean.

3) Индоевропейским звонким смычным **b, d, g** соответствуют в германских языках глухие смычные **p, t, k:** рус. **б**олото, лит. **b**alà – да. **p**ōl, лат. **d**ecem, рус. **д**есять – гот**. t**aihun, да. **t**ien, лат. e**g**o, греч. e**g**o(n) > гот. i**k**, да.i**c**, дисл. e**k.**

2. Закон Вернера

Этот закон гласит: если индоевропейскому глухому смычному предшествовал безударный гласный или ударение падало за два слога до него, то получившийся из него по первому передвижению согласных глухой щелевой озвончается, а впоследствии этот звонкий щелевой переходит в звонкий смычный. Например, в греческом слове patér глухой смычный **t** стоит после неударного гласного. При таких условиях получившийся из **t** глухой щелевой **þ** озвончается в **ð**, который впоследствии переходит в звонкий смычный **d**: греч. patér > да. faþár > faðár > fǽder.

Кроме озвончения щелевых, получившихся из глухих взрывных, согласно закону Вернера, озвончается глухой щелевой **s**, не имеющий отношения к первому передвижению согласных. Это явление ротацизма. Следы ротацизма: **was – were**.

3. Ингвеонское выпадение носовых

4. Западногерманское удлинение согласных (геминация)

Периодизация истории АЯ

Экстралингвистическая периодизация основана на событиях истории страны, она отражает связь истории развития языка с историей развития английского народа.

1. Древнеанглийский период 5-11 вв., со времени вторжения германских племен на Британские острова до завоевания Британии норманнами в 1066 г.

2. Среднеанглийский период 12-15 вв., со времени Норманнского завоевания до периода абсолютной монархии.

3. Новоанглийский период с 16 в. до настоящего времени. В нем выделяется ранненовоанглийский период 16-17 вв.

Фонетико-морфологическая периодизация создана Г. Суитом, автором первой исторической фонетики и грамматики английского языка. В основе периодизации лежит морфологический принцип – наличие системы словоизменительных аффиксов.

1. Период полных окончаний – хронологически совпадает с ДА периодом.

2. Период ослабленных окончаний – совпадает с СА периодом.

3. Период утраченных окончаний – совпадает с НА.


**Раздел 3 Древнеанглийский период**

Лекция 3 Язык и письменность древнеанглийского периода

Для ДА периода известны два вида письма: руническое и латинское.

Руническое письмо было в употреблении во 2-3 вв. н.э. В древнейшей системе рунического алфавита («рунический ряд») различалось 24 знака. Весь ряд назывался «fuþark» - по последовательности первых шести знаков.

Латинское письмо стало применяться к германским языкам в результате введения христианства. При церквях и монастырях устраивались школы, в которых происходило обучение латинской грамоте. Латинский алфавит состоял из букв: **a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i (j), k, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, t, u (v), x, y, z**. Начертания **j, v** не являлись особыми знаками алфавита и представляли графические варианты **i** и **u.** Обе буквы обозначали как гласные (I, u), так и согласные (j,v). Буквы **w** не существовало, она образовалась позже из слияния двух **u (v)** , отсюда ее название. Для обозначения некоторых звуков в употребление вошли дополнительные знаки: **þ** из рунического ряда, **ð**, образованное из латинского d, **æ** из ае.

Диалекты англов, саксов, ютов после переселения на Британские острова развивались в изоляции. По письменным памятникам ДА периода установлены 4 диалекта: нортумбрийский, мерсийский, уэссекский и кентский.

Письменные памятники ДА периода:

Нортумбрийский диалект, латинским алфавитом:

1. «Предсмертная песнь» Бэды, известного историка 8 в., автора написанной на латинском языке «Церковной истории англов» (Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum), являющейся основным источником сведений о древней истории англосаксонских племен после их переселения на острова.

2. Песнь Кэдмона о мироздании, относящаяся к 7 в. и написанная пастухом Кэдмоном, поэтом-самоучкой, жившим в аббатстве Уитби в Йоркшире. Песнь состоит из 9 строк.

Мерсийский диалект, латинским алфавитом:

1. Веспасианова псалтырь – глоссы псалмов на латинском языке.

Кентский диалект – юридические документы первой половины 9 в., глоссы и переводы псалмов.

Уэссекский диалект – его литературное развитие связано с переводческой деятельностью короля Альфреда (849-901 гг.), который создал целую школу переводчиков и сам занимался переводами с латинского на уэссекский диалект.

1. «Англосаксонская хроника» - самый крупный памятник, дошла в нескольких рукописных списках. Древнейшие записи 7 и 8 вв. были собраны и сведены в единое повествование и затем переписаны, после чего были прибавлены новые записи. так получилось повествование, охватившее период с древнейших времен до 1154 г.

2. Перевод произведения папы Григория I (540-604) «Долг пастыря» (Cura pastoralis), которому добавлено предисловие, написанное королем Альфредом на уэссекском диалекте на тему о состоянии просвещения в Англии, около 890 г.

3. Перевод сочинения испанского монаха 5 в. Орозия (380-420 гг.) «История против язычников в 7 книгах» (Historiarum adversus paganos libri septem), в котором дается историческое и географическое описание известного тогда мира. В текст вставлено оригинальное повествование, написанное Альфредом о путешествиях норвежца Охтхере в Белом море к устью Северной Двины и Вульфстана вдоль южных берегов Балтийского моря.

4. Перевод трактата римского философа Боэция (470-524 гг.) «Утешение философией» (De consolatione philosophiae).

5. К 10 в. относятся переводы Этельвольда и его школы «Правила ордена бенедиктинцев». Особое значение имеют труды монаха Эльфрика (955-1002), среди которых есть его оригинальные работы: «Проповеди», «Жития святых», «Латинско-древнеанглийский разговорник».

6. От 11 в. дошли «Проповеди Вульфстана» и перевод Евангелий, а также историческая поэма «Битва при Мальдоне», в которой описано сражение 991 г. между скандинавами и англосаксами при Мальдоне (графство Эссекс).

7. К кон. 10 - нач. 11 вв. относится переделка на уэссекский диалект поэмы «Беовульф».

## Лекция 4 Фонетический строй древнеанглийского языка

Одной из особенностей системы гласных ДА является наличие параллельных рядов кратких и долгих гласных:

*i, e, u, o, a, æ, y,* например краткие *fisc (рыба), pytt (колодец), sprecan (говорить), pund (фунт), cos (поцелуй), caru (забота);* долгие *wīn (вино), brȳd (невеста), fēt (ноги), ān (один)*

*ea, eo, ie, io:* краткие *healf (половина), steorra (звезда), siolufr (серебро), Ʒiest (гость);* долгие *hēah (высокий), lēoht (свет), stīoran (мешать), cīese (сыр)*

Второй особенностью является наличие полных нередуцированных гласных в безударных окончаниях. По характеристике Г. Суита ДА период – период полных окончаний. В безударном окончании мог стоять любой гласный: *sunu (сын), nama (имя), scocon (трясли).*

В процессе развития языка в ДА период система гласных подверглась ряду изменений, в результате которых появились новые фонемы и их варианты.

Важнейшие процессы в области гласных:

1) Преломление гласных – такое фонетическое изменение, при котором под влиянием последующих согласных *h, l, r* после переднеязычного гласного развивается дифтонг. Преломлению подверглись гласные *e, æ, ǣ.*

*e>eo:* *melcan>meolcan (доить), herte>heorte (сердце), feh>feoh (скот), cneht>cneoht (мальчик)*

*æ>ea:* *æld>eald (старый), ærm>earm (рука), sæh>seah (видел), æhta>eahta (восемь)*

*ǣ>ēā:* *nǣh>nēāh (близко)*

2) Переднеязычная (палатальная) перегласовка – это такое фонетическое изменение, при котором гласный заднего ряда превращается в гласный переднего ряда, обычного того же подъема, под влиянием гласной [i] последующего слога. При этом в процессе дальнейшего развития языка этот гласный мог выпасть совсем, или перейти в неударном положении в [ə].

Примеры: *sœtian>settan (сидеть), namian>nemman (называть), lārian>lǣran (учить), ofstian>efstan (спешить), wōpian>wēpan (плакать), fullian>fyllan (наполнять), cūpian>cŷpan (сообщать), eald+ira> ieldra (старше), hēāh+ira>hīēhra (выше), feohtiþ>fieht (сражается), cēōsiþ>cīēsþ (выбирает)*

Переднеязычная перегласовка лежит в основе ряда грамматических и лексических преобразований. Так, современный способ образования множественного числа существительных путем чередования корневого гласного: *foot – feet, man – men,* степеней сравнения прилагательных: *old – elder – eldest,* образование производных существительных от качественных прилагательных: *long – length, strong – strength,* образование глаголов от существительных, прилагательных и глаголов с чередованием гласного: *blood – bleed, full – fill.*

3) Удлинение гласных. В IX в. Произошло удлинение гласных перед группами согласных *–ld, -nd, -md: cild>cīld.* Если за этой группой стоял еще один согласный, удлинения не происходило: *cildru (дети).*

4) Палатализация гласных. Гласные переднего ряда [e, ē, æ, ǣ] в позиции после палатализованных [j], [k'], [sk'] дифтонгизируются:

*[æ] > [ea]: *cœlf > д.а. cealf (теленок)*

*[e] > [ie]: д.а. ʒefan > ʒiefan (давать), д.а. ʒeldan > ʒieldan (платить)*

*[ǣ] > [ēa]: д.а. scǣp > scēap (овца)*

5) Стяжение гласных. Стяжение корневого гласного и гласного флексии происходило за счет выпадения h:

*[e] > [ēo] *sehan > sēon видеть*

*[a] > [ēa] *slahan > slēan бить*

*[o] > [ō] *fohan > fōn получать*

Система согласных древнеанглийского языка: *b, c, d, f, ʒ, h, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, þ (ƀ), w, x.* Некоторые имели несколько вариантов произношения:

*c* обозначала звуки *[k], [k'],* мягкий – перед переднеязычными (*cild*).

*f, s, ƀ* в интервокальной позиции и между гласным и звонким согласным озвончались: *ofer, stefn, wesan, baƀian, wyrƀe.* Если интервокальная позиция возникала на стыке приставки и корня, озвончения не происходило: *ʒesiʒlan, ʒefaran.* Удвоенные согласные произносились глухо: *wisse, offian, oƀƀe.*

Буква *ʒ* имела три варианта произношения.

Важнейшие процессы в области согласных:

1) Ассимиляция *f* перед *n, m: fm>mm: wīfman>wīmman.*

2) Процесс удвоения согласных, связанный с переднеязычной перегласовкой: *telian>tellan*

3) Выпадение согласных, связанное с удлинением гласных: *fimf>fīf, sæʒde>sǣde*

Особенность германских языков – закрепленное ударение. В ДА ударение падает на корневой слог: *cyninʒ.* Приставки безударны. Слова из двух корней имеют два ударения: *hwælhunta, norƀmonna.*

## Лекция 5 Грамматическая система древнеанглийского языка
### Морфология

Древнеанглийский язык был синтетическим, т.е. грамматические значения выражались в нем с помощью изменения форм слов.

### Существительное

В ДА существительное обладало грамматическими категориями падежа, числа, рода. Падежи: именительный, родительный, дательный, винительный. Число: единственное, множественное. Род: мужской, женский, средний. Грамматический род может совпадать с биологическим (*dohtor* - дочь) или нет (*wīf* – женщина, ср.р.; *wīfman* – женщина, муж. р.). Т.е. уже

в ДА эта категория была неустойчива, не отражала реальных явлений и имела тенденцию к вырождению.

Все существительные в ДА подразделялись на группы в зависимости от основообразующего суффикса:

1) существительные с гласными основами (<u>сильное склонение</u>) на -a-, -ō-, -i-, -u-;

2) существительные с согласными основами на –n- (<u>слабое склонение</u>), -r-, -s-;

3) существительные с корневыми основами. Эта группа существенно отличалась от остальных по морфологическому строению: у этих слов никогда не было основообразующего суффикса, и падежные окончания присоединялись непосредственно к корню слова. Это древнейшие слова, восходящие к эпохе, когда не было деления существительных по основам. К корневым основам относились существительные мужского рода: *man* – человек, *fōt* – нога, *wīfman* – женщина, *tōþ* – зуб, и жен. р.: *ās* – дуб, *hnutu* – орех, *bōc* – книга, *ʒōs* – гусь, *mūs* – мышь.

Прилагательное

ДА прилагательное имело грамматические категории рода, числа и падежа и согласовывалось в них с существительным.

Прилагательные могли склоняться по двум типам склонения:

- по сильному типу, если существительное, к которому относится прилагательное, не имеет других определителей. Парадигма флексий – как в сильном склонении существительных с –*a*-основой;

 - по слабому типу, если у существительного есть другие определители. Парадигма флексий – как в слабом склонении существительных.

Степени сравнения ДА прилагательных образовывались двумя способами:

1) суффиксальный способ: сравнительная степень - суффикс -*ra*, развившегося из -*ira*; превосходная степень – суффикс -*est/-ost*.

2) супплетивный способ:

*ʒōd – betera – betst (хороший)*

*yfel – wiersa – wierst (плохой)*

*micel – māra – mǣst (большой)*

*lȳtel – lǣssa – lǣst (маленький)*

Эта группа супплетивных прилагательных наиболее древняя, она относится к тому периоду, когда еще не существовали суффиксы сравнительной и превосходной степени, а разные степени качества обозначались разными словами.

Глагол

ДА глагол имел грамматические категории <u>числа</u> – единственное и множественное; <u>лица</u> – первое, второе, третье; <u>времени</u> – прошедшее и настоящее (значение будущего времени передавалось формами настоящего времени в сочетании с обстоятельствами).

*faran* – ехать, плыть (сильный глагол), *tellan* – говорить (слабый глагол).

Личные окончания ДА глаголов:

| Лицо | Наст. вр. | | Прош. вр. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ед. ч. | Мн. ч. | Ед. ч. | Мн. ч. |
| 1 | *fare      telle* | *faraþ* *tellaþ* | *fōr      talde* | *fōron* *taldon* |
| 2 | *farest    tallest* | | *fōre    taldest* | |
| 3 | *fareþ    telleþ* | | *fōr      talde* | |

<u>Категория наклонения</u> – изъявительное, повелительное, сослагательное. Сослагательное наклонение, не имевшее в ДА аналитических форм, использовалось преимущественно в придаточных предложениях и особенно часто в косвенной речи после глаголов говорения, когда говорящий, передавая чужие слова, как бы снимал с себя ответственность за достоверность слов:

*Hē sǣde þæt land sīē norþweard.* – Он сказал, что та земля находится, по-видимому, к северу.

<u>Категория залога</u> реализовывалась в системе причастия где имелись формы активного и страдательного залога: *wrītende пишущий* – *ʒewriten написанный*.

Неличные формы ДА глагола представлены причастием и инфинитивом. Инфинитив склонялся по двум падежам, именительному и дательному, т.к. он произошел от

существительного. Именительный падеж заканчивался на *–an*, дательный на *–enne*. Дательный падеж употреблялся после предлога «*to*» и имел значение обстоятельства цели:

*Hē cam to sinʒenne. – Он пришел, чтобы петь.*

## Типология ДА глаголов

1. Сильные глаголы (с чередованием) исторически более древние, чем глаголы с суффиксацией. Все они были корневыми (непроизводными), обозначали основные действия, связанные с жизнедеятельностью человека, и уже в древний период были непродуктивны, т.е. новые глаголы образовывались только по типу глаголов с суффиксацией. Глаголы с чередованием делились на 7 классов.

2. Слабые глаголы являются живой продуктивной категорией. По характеру основы, определяемой по основообразующему суффиксу, слабые глаголы делились на 3 класса. Слабые глаголы не различались по основам единственного и множественного числа, поэтому у них рассматриваются три формы.

1 класс (выделяется по основообразующему суффиксу):

- правильные *dēman – dēmde – dēmed*
- неправильные *tellan – tealde – teald – рассказывать*

2 класс (суффикс -*oja*): *andswar-ian – andswar-ode – andswar-od – отвечать*

3 класс уже в ДА был вымирающим, в него входило очень мало глаголов, из которых до наших дней дошло три:

*habban – hæfde – hæfd – иметь, libban – lifde – lifd – жить, secʒan – sæʒde – sæʒd – сказать*

3. Претерито-презентные глаголы – это группа глаголов, у которых форма настоящего времени совпадала с формой прошедшего времени сильных глаголов, а форма прошедшего времени образовывалась также, как у слабых глаголов. Семантика этих глаголов была разнообразна, они обозначали разные состояния и процессы, имевшие результативный оттенок, а также различные оттенки модальных значений необходимости и возможности: *āʒan – иметь, cunnan - знать, мочь, durran – сметь, sculan – долженствовать, taʒan – мочь, mōtan - мочь, долженствовать*.

4. Супплетивные глаголы были представлены двумя словами: *bēon – быть, ʒān – идти.*

Глагол *bēon* имел две параллельные разнокорневые парадигмы в настоящем времени и супплетивную форму в прошедшем времени от глагола *wesan*, сильного глагола 5 класса. Формы глагола*: bēon – wæs – wæron.*

Глагол *ʒān* имел супплетивную форму в прошедшем времени – *ēōde*, которая имела суффикс прошедшего времени слабого глагола, но причастие прошедшего времени оканчивалось на –*n*, как у сильных глаголов – *(ʒe)ʒān*. Т.о., глагол имел формы *ʒān – ēōde - (ʒe)ʒān.*

## Местоимение

В ДА существовали разряды местоимений: личные, указательные, вопросительные, определенные, неопределенные, отрицательные, относительные.

Личные местоимения. Местоимения 1 и 2 лица в ДА значительно отличались от местоимений 3 лица по своим морфологическим характеристикам. Местоимения 1 и 2 лица имели формы единственного, множественного и двойственного лица. Местоимения 3 лица имели две формы числа, но различались по родам.

Формы 2 лица единственного числа были разными: единственное число – *þū*, множественное число – *ʒē*. Формы винительного падежа были омонимичны формам дательного падежа. Формы родительного падежа часто использовались в функции определения для выражения притяжательности. Формы двойственного числа уже в ДА текстах встречались редко и окончательно вышли из употребления в 12 в.

Во множественном числе для всех трех родов падежные формы были одинаковы.

Указательные местоимения были представлены двумя разрядами:

1) *sē* тот, *sēo* та, *þæt* то имели ослабленное указательное значение и употреблялись часто;

2) *þēs* тот, *þēōs* та, *þis* то, *þās* те имели сильное указательное значение и употреблялись редко.

Указательные местоимения имели категории рода, числа и падежа.

*Sē (тот), sēo (та), þæt (то)*

## Синтаксис

На всем протяжении истории развития английского языка некоторые черты синтаксиса, характерные для германских языков в целом, оказались устойчивыми. К ним относятся <u>номинативность</u> и <u>глагольность</u> предложения.

Номинативный строй предполагает, что в ДА подлежащее в предложении выделяется именительным падежом, независимо от характера сказуемого. Глагольность означает, что предложение не может существовать без глагола, даже в форме глагола-связки в составе составного именного сказуемого.

### Члены предложения

### Подлежащее

Определенно-личное подлежащее передается формой именительного падежа существительного, местоимения, субстантивированного прилагательного, причастия.

*þonne naman ānne wē lufodon (То имя одно мы любили. – wē – им. п., подлежащее)*

*Sē cyninȝ hēt lanȝ scipu timbran.* (*Король приказал строить длинные корабли. Sē cyninȝ –* им.п., подлежащее)

Неопределенное подлежащее выражается с помощью неопределенного местоимения: *ǣniȝ, āwit, sum, ǣlc, āhwǣðer: Mæȝ ǣniȝ þinȝ ȝōdes bēon of Nasareþ? (Может ли быть что-нибудь хорошее из Назарета?), Sum man hæfde twēȝen suna (Некий человек имел двух сыновей), āht cwicce wæs þær (Что-то живое было там).*

Для передачи неопределенно-личного подлежащего существовало местоимение *man:*

*Hæstenes wīf ond his suna twēȝen mon brōhte tō þǣm cyninȝe. – Жену Хестена и его двух сыновей привели к королю.*

В ДА существовали и безличные предложения, например: *him þuhte – ему казалось*

### Сказуемое

Простое сказуемое выражалось личной формой глагола.

*Ond hīe ðā swā <u>dydon</u>: <u>worhton</u> ðā tū Ȝeweorc on twā healfe þære ēas. – И они тогда так сделали: соорудили тогда два укрепления по обеим сторонам реки.*

Составное сказуемое имело разновидности:

   1. Глагольное (причастное и инфинитивное)

*Hiora cyninȝ <u>wæs Ȝewundod</u>. – Их король был ранен.*

*Hī hine <u>ne mehton ferian</u>. – Они его не могли перевезти.*

   2. Именное

*þæt Estland <u>is swȳðe mycel</u>. – Земля эстов очень велика.*

*þæt land <u>wæs on stēorbond</u>. – та земля была с правого борта.*

В ДА существовало несколько словосочетаний, которые представляли собой сочетания служебных глаголов с инфинитивами и причастиями – складывающиеся аналитические формы:

1) *bēon / wesan* и *weorðan* + причастия 2 – будущий страдательный залог;

2) *habban* + причастие 2 – будущий перфект;

3) *willan / sculan* + инфинитив – складывающееся будущее время;

4) *bēon / wesan* + причастие 1 – будущий длительный вид.

### Дополнение, обстоятельство

Дополнения были предложные и беспредложные, последние встречались чаще, т.к. ДА морфологическая система была очень развитой:

*Hē bād westanwindes. – Он ждал западного ветра.* (дополнение в родительном падеже)

Обстоятельства, как и в современном английском языке, выражались предложными сочетаниями и наречиями с предлогами *in, on, ofer.* Также в функции обстоятельства выступали падежные формы существительных без предлогов: *ealne weȝ (всю дорогу, постоянно), þȳ ilcan Ȝēare (в том же году).*

### Определение

Определение (выражалось прилагательным, местоимением, числительным, причастием) согласовывалось с определяемым словом в роде, числе, падеже (по сильному или слабому

склонению). Определения также могли выражаться предложными сочетаниями: *mānn mid ānum ēaʒe – человек с одним глазом.*

Как видно, связь между определением и определяемым осуществлялась посредством согласования. Оно постепенно исчезало (сначала в роде, затем в падеже, числе), и заменилось примыканием.

В ДА прилагательное в атрибутивной функции характеризовало существительное с точки зрения его определенности и неопределенности. Эта категория позже исчезла в прилагательных, и соответствующая функция перешла к артиклю.

В связи с тем, что древнеанглийский язык был синтетическим, его основной особенностью в области синтаксиса был свободный порядок слов в предложении.

Тем не менее, уже в этот период существовали определенные типы порядка слов: прямой, обратный и синтетический, при котором второстепенные члены предложения помещались между главными. Синтетический порядок слов существовал в основном в придаточных предложениях, где сказуемое находилось на последнем месте. Например:

*Ōhthēre sǣde his hlāforde Ælfrēde cyninʒe þæt hē ealra Norþmonna norþmest būde. (Охтхере сказал своему господину королю Альфреду, что он жил севернее всех скандинавов.)*

Синтетический порядок слов встречается и в простых предложениях, например:

*Beornas ʒearwe on stefn stiʒon. – Воины в доспехах на нос корабля взошли.* Здесь между подлежащим *beornas* и сказуемым *stiʒon* стоит обстоятельство места *on stefn*.

Что касается прямого и обратного порядка слов, он определяется часто зависимостью от места второстепенного члена предложения. Если в начале нет второстепенного члена предложения, то подлежащее обычно предшествует сказуемому, например:

*Hē wæs mid þǣm fyrstum mannum on þǣm lande. -  Он был с первыми людьми на той земле.*

Если в начале предложения стоит второстепенный член, то подлежащее стоит обычно после сказуемого, например:

*þā fōr hē norþryhte be þǣm lande – тогда поплыл он вдоль той земли*

Обратный порядок слов всегда вызывается постановкой на первое место в предложении обстоятельства времени *þā, nū, þonne (тогда, теперь, затем)*, обстоятельства места *þær, her* (там, здесь), а также отрицанием *ne*.

В вопросительных предложениях сказуемое всегда помещалось перед подлежащим, например:

*Hwæt sceal ic sinʒan? – Что должен я спеть?*

*Hwanon fertiʒeað ʒē fætte scyldas? – Откуда везете вы крепкие щиты?*

Отрицание выражалось при помощи отрицательной частицы *ne*, которая ставилась перед глаголом. Частица *ne* часто сопровождалась другими отрицаниями, что являлось особенностью отрицательных предложений в ДА, например:

*Ne con ic noht sinʒan. – Я не могу ничего спеть.*

Большая роль в соединении предложений и их отдельных частей между собой принадлежала союзам. Наиболее распространенные: *and (и), ac (но), oðð (или), þæt, oð (до), swā (так).*

Большое значение имели коррелирующие союзы *oðþe…, oðþe (или… или), ne…, ne (ни… ни,) þā…, þā (когда… тогда), þonne…, þone (тогда… когда), swā…, swā (так… как, так… что):*

*þā sē cynʒ þæt hiērde, þa wende hē hine west – когда король услышал это, тогда он пошел на запад.*

Для ДА характерно смешение косвенной речи и прямой. В связи с этим не строго соблюдается последовательность в согласовании времен; частое смешение прямой и косвенной речи объясняется отсутствием прочно установившейся письменной традиции. В косвенной речи часто употреблялось сослагательное наклонение, подчеркивающее сомнительность чужих суждений.

## Лекция 6. Лексический строй древнеанглийского языка
### Лексический состав

1. Общеиндоевропейские слова отражают важнейшие понятия и явления реальной действительности:

существительные, обозначающие:

- членов семьи: *fæder (отец), mōdor (мать), dohtor (дочь), sweostar (сестра), sunu (сын)*;
- части тела: *heorte (сердце), nosu (нос), tōþ (зуб), fōt (нога)*;

прилагательные, обозначающие цвета: *rēad (красный)*; размеры: *mycel (большой)*; качества: *nīwe (новый)*;

числительные от 1 до 100;

местоимения: *ic (я), þū (ты), wē (мы), sē (тот), hwā (кто)*;

глаголы: *bēon (быть), standan (стоять), sittan (сидеть), etan (есть), licʒan (лежать)*.

2. Общегерманские слова также отражали основные понятия. К ним относятся:

существительные, обозначающие:

- части тела: *hēafod (голова), hand (рука), finʒer (палец)*;
- животных: *focs (лиса), cealf (теленок)*;
- растения, время, явления природы: *ʒēar (год), wicu (неделя), tîma (время), dæʒ (день), sumor (лето), winter (зима)*;
- жилище: *hūs (дом), rum (комната)*;

прилагательные, обозначающие:

- цвета: *ʒrēn (зеленый), bleo (голубой)*;
- размеры: *lŷtel (маленький), hēah (высокий)*;

глаголы:

- восприятия: *hîēran (слышать), sēon (видеть)*;
- речи: *sprecan (говорить), andswarian (отвечать)*.

3. Специфически английские слова, не обнаруженные в других германских языках:

*wimman – женщина (wīf 'жена' + man 'человек')*;

*hlāford – господин (hlāf 'хлеб' + weard 'хранитель')*;

*ealne weʒ – всегда (eal 'весь' + weʒ 'путь')*.

### Словопроизводство

1. Суффиксация

Существительные:

*-ere (м.р.), -estre (ж.р.)* – для обозначения людей по роду деятельности: *fiscere 'рыбак', bacere 'пекарь', bæcestre 'женщина-пекарь' (bacan - печь)*

*-dom 'рок', -scipe 'власть', -hād 'звание, способ', -man 'человек'* – для существительных с отвлеченным значением использовались полнозначные слова *dom* (рок), *scipe* (власть), *hād* (звание, способ). Для образования сложных существительных в качестве суффикса также использовалось слово *man* (человек): *wīsdōm 'мудрость', frēondscipe 'дружба', aldorman 'старейшина' (старший), Norþman 'скандинав'*.

*-inʒ, -unʒ, -nis, -nes: ʒrētinʒ 'приветствие' (ʒrētan - приветствовать), leornunʒ 'учение' (leornian - учить), īdelnis 'праздность' (īdel - праздный), swētnes 'сладость (swēte - сладкий)'*.

Прилагательные:

Широкое распространение в ДА имел общегерманский суффикс *–iʒ (mihtiʒ – могущественный, miht - мощь)*,

Для образования качественных прилагательных использовался суффикс *–līc*, образованный от слова *–līc (*тело, образ): *ǣrlic* (ранний, от *ǣr* - раньше), *frēondic* (дружественный, от frēond – друг).

От полнозначных слов *full 'полный', lēas 'лишенный'* образованы суффиксы суффиксы – *full, - lēas:þoncful 'благодарный' (þonc - благодарность), ārlēas 'бесчестный' (ār - честь)*.

Глаголы:

Самый распространенный суффикс –*i*, вызывавший переднеязычную перегласовку: *fyllan 'наполнять' (ful 'полный' + -ian), lǣran 'учить' (lār 'учение' + -ian)*.

2. Префиксация

Наиболее распространенным в ДА период и сохранившими продуктивность до наших дней были префиксы *mis-, un-*. Суффикс *mis-* придавал словам значение неправильного или дурного действия, поступка. Суффикс *un-* придавал отрицательное значение: *misdǣd ' дурной поступок' (dǣd - действие), unfriþ 'война' (friþ - мир)*.

<h2 align="center">Словосложение</h2>

Многие существительные, прилагательные и глаголы были образованы путем соединения двух или нескольких слов в одно.

Существительные

*hwæl 'кит' + hunta 'охотник' > hwælhunta 'китобой'*

*stēōr 'руль' + bord 'борт' > stēōrbord 'правый борт'*

Прилагательные

*îs 'лед' + ceald 'холодный' > îsceald 'холодный как лед'*

*mōd 'сильный' + wlonc 'характер' > mōdwlonc 'горделивый'*

<h2 align="center">Заимствования</h2>

Одним из способов пополнения словарного состава является заимствование слов из других языков. ДА язык имел в своем составе заимствования из двух языков: латинского и кельтского, результат связи ДА племен с римлянами и кельтами.

1/ Заимствования из латинского языка

Первый слой заимствований составляли слова, относящиеся к сфере торговли, сельского хозяйства, а также названия предметов материальной культуры: *wîn 'вино' (лат. vinum) > wine, pund 'фунт' (лат. pondō) > pound, pere 'груша' (лат. pirum) > pear, plante 'растение' (лат. planta) > plant*.

Древние германцы занимались животноводством и хорошо знали молоко. Однако с приготовлением масла и сыра их познакомили римляне: *ciese 'сыр' (лат. caseus) > cheese, butere 'масло' (лат. butyrum) >butter*.

Были заимствованы слова, связанные с приготовлением пищи: *cycene 'кухня' (лат. coquina) > kitchen, myln 'мельница' (лат. molina) > mill, cuppe 'чашка' (лат. cuppa) > cup, disc 'блюдо' (лат. discus) > dish*.

В древнейший период латинские слова воспринимались устным путем и оформлялись по правилам фонетики ДА языка. Они полностью ассимилировались.

Второй слой заимствований отражает многочисленные новые понятия в области религии. Латынь, которая была языком церкви и науки, получила большое распространение в Британии. В 7 в. появились монастырские школы. Распространение грамотности на латинском языке отразилось на словарном составе ДА, в котором появилось много новых слов: *biscop 'епископ' (лат. biscop) > bishop, prēōst 'священник' (лат. presbyter) > priest, munuc 'монах' (лат. monachus) > monk, candel 'свеча' (лат. candela) > candle*.

2. Заимствования из кельтского языка

В ДА вошло небольшое количество кельтских слов:

*dun 'бурый', binn 'лагерь', cradle 'колыбель', bannock 'каравай домашней выпечки', dūn 'крепость, холм'*.

Многие названия рек, гор, городов – кельтского происхождения. Сохранилось в виде имени собственного *avon – река*. Название рек *Exe, Esk, Usk* происходит от кельтского *uisge – вода*.

Лондон также имеет следы кельтского происхождения. Кельты назвали город *Llyn-dūn 'крепость у реки'*. Римляне переделали его в *Londinium*.

В шотландских диалектах сохранилось кельтское слово *loch 'озеро',* которое вошло в состав названий многих озер Шотландии. Кельтского происхождения название западной части Британии,

в которой поселились остатки кельтских племен – *Weals 'Уэльс'.* В Уэльсе с древних времен добывали железо, и название этого металла – *iren -* тоже кельтского происхождения.

**Раздел 4 Среднеанглийский период**

Лекция 7. Язык и письменность среднеанглийского языка

В течение 11 - 15 вв. произошла перегруппировка местных диалектов. На основе нортумбрийского сложился северный диалект. В центральной части Англии на основе мерсийского появляется центральный диалект, который обычно подразделяется на восточноцентральный и западноцентральный. К югу от Темзы на основе уэссекского диалекта образуется южный диалект.

В Лондоне в 13 в. сложился особый лондонский диалект, объединивший черты восточноцентрального и южного диалектов. После нормандского завоевания Лондон стал столицей Англии. Рост торговли и промышленности привел к ликвидации феодальной раздробленности и к образованию более тесных связей между всеми частями страны. Все это потребовало понятного всюду национального языка.

Географическое положение Лондона, его значение как политического и экономического центра страны привели к развитию особого лондонского диалекта, явившегося основой для создания национального английского языка.

1. Лондонский диалект

Первым памятником на лондонском диалекте является «Прокламация Генриха III» (1258 г.). На лондонском диалекте написаны произведения Д. Чосера (1340-1400), основателя литературного английского языка. Вершиной его творчества являются «Кентерберийские рассказы», написанные в 1384-1400 г.

2. Северный диалект

«Бегун по свету» - рифмованное изложение библейских легенд, «Угрызения совести» – религиозная поэма Ричарда Ролле де Хампол

3. Шотландский диалект

«Брус» Барбура, «Королевская книга» - сборник стихотворений короля Якова I, короля Шотландии

4. Центральный диалект

«Сэр Гавэн и Зеленый рыцарь», «Ормулум» - религиозная поэма монаха Орма, «Хавелок Датчанин», «Король Хорн» - стихотворные рыцарские романы, «Брут» Лайамона, «Устав инокинь», «Петербороская хроника» - продолжение «Англосаксонской хроники» (1132-1154), поэма «Видение Петра Пахаря» У. Лэнгледа.

5. Южный диалект

«Стихотворная хроника» Роберта Глостерского, «Полихроникон» Джона Тревизы

6. Кентский диалект

«Угрызение совести» Дана Мичела Нортгейского, стихотворения У. Шорхэма

Лекция 8. Фонетический строй и письменность среднеанглийского языка

Гласные

1. Ослабление гласных в неударных словах (период редуцированных окончаний*): hopa > hope.*

2. Количественные изменения гласных: исчезло графическое изображение долготы, появилось понятие открытого слога: *nama > name*; долгота обозначалась на письме путем удвоения буквы: *fēt > feet [fe:t], tōþ > tooþ > tooth [to:θ]*.

3. Качественные изменения:

*ǣ>[e:] ee, ea      sǣ > see, sea [se:]*
*ā>[ɔ:] o, oa       ʒān > go [gɔ:]*
*æ> [a]           þæt > that [θat]*

Т.о., гласный *æ* исчез как буква и как звук.

Все ДА дифтонги превратились в монофтонги: *earm > arm, dēōp > deep [de:p], hīē > he [he:]*.

4. Образование новых дифтонгов в результате вокализации ʒ [ɣ, ɣ']: œʒ > ai: dai (day), eʒ > ei: wei (wey), aʒ > au: draʒan > drauen

## Изменения в орфографии гласных:

Буква *u [u]* заменилась буквой *o* перед *n, m, v.* Это было вызвано тем, что в готическом письме соседство букв, составленных из вертикальныхчерт, вызывало затруднения в чтении: *cuman > comen [kumɘn], sunu > sone [sunɘ], lufu > love [luvɘ].*

Долгий *ū* стал изображаться диграфами *ou, ow,* которыми пользовались во французском языке для обозначения того же звука: *ūt > out [u:t], tūn > town [tu:n].*

Диграф *ow* употреблялся обычно в конце слова, т.к. буква W заменяла букву U по принципу орнаментальности, введенному французскими писцами: *hū > how [hu:], nū > now [nu:]*

По этому же принципу буква *i* в конце слова заменялась буквой *y: mî > my [mi:], dœʒ > dai > day*

## Согласные

1) Образование аффрикат и шипящих: *c [k'] > [tʃ] ch: cîld > child, cʒ [gg'] > [dʒ] dge: brucʒ > bridge, sc [sk'] > [ʃ] sh': scip > ship*

2) Вокализация согласных: палатализованный *ʒ [ɣ']* переходит в *y, i, [i],* а твердый *ʒ [ɣ]* переходит в *u: ʒîēt > yet, dœʒ > day, draʒan > drauen.*

Многие фонетические изменения в системе согласных отразились в орфографии: для обозначения новых согласных вводились новые буквы и диграфы: *[tʃ] ch, [dʒ] dge, [ʃ] sh.*

3) Изменения в орфографии согласных

Межзубный *[ð, θ]* стал обозначаться диграфом *th: þæt = that, wiþ = with.*

Звук *[h]* перед *t* стал обозначаться диграфом g*h: niht = night [niht].*

Для звука *[g]* стала использоваться буква *g,* заимствованная из французского языка: *ʒōd = good, sinʒan = singen.*

Сократилось употребление буквы *c,* она обозначать звук *к* только перед заднеязычными гласными, а перед переднеязычными гласными и согласными стали писать новую букву *к: cind = kind, cnāwan = knowen.*

ДА сочетание *cw [kw]* замкнили французским диграфом *qu,* в состав которого входит новая буква *q: cwēn = queen.*

Буква *f,* озвончавшаяся в интервокальной позиции, заменилась буквой *v,* заимствованной из французского языка: *ofer [over] = over*

В сочетании *hw* поменяли буквы местами по принципу орнаментальности, но произношение не изменилось: *hwen = when [hwen]*

Буква *s,* озвончавшаяся в интервокальной позиции, заменялась иногда французской *z: frēōsan = freezen*

Из французского была заимствована буква *j [dʒ]: joy.*

*G* стала обозначать и звук *[dʒ]* перед переднеязычными гласными: *gender,* а перед заднеязычными – *[g]: good.*

Это правило чтения, привнесенное из фр. языка, относится к букве *c,* которая перед переднеязычными стала произноситься как *[s],* а перед заднеязычными – *[k]: certain, care.*

Из всего сказанного выше можно заключить, что уже в СА период начали закладываться те основы орфографии АЯ, которые сохранились до наших дней.

## Лекция 9. Грамматический строй среднеанглийского языка
### Морфология
### Существительное

Система склонения изменилась из-за редукции безударных окончаний. Осталось только два падежа: общий и родительный (притяжательный) с суффиксом *–es.* Окончание множественного числа стало присоединяться в зависимости от того, по какому типу склонения выровнялось существительное: по сильному – *s,* по слабому – *n:*

*sho, eye* (было слабое) приняли окончание *–(e)s,* в отличие от *ox – oxen.*

*bēc > bookes, hnyte > nutes* (было корневое), однако: *man – men, woman – women, tooth – teeth, goose – geese, foot – feet, mouse – mice, louse – lice.*

## Прилагательное

Среднеанглийское утратило категории рода и падежа, только категория числа еще сохранялась некоторое время, выраженная окончанием *–e: goode men.*

Суффиксы степеней сравнения прилагательных также подверглись ряду изменений: *–ra* изменился в *–re,* а затем в *–er.* Суффиксы превосходной степени *–ost / -est* слились в *–est: hard – harder – hardest.*

Супплетивные формы продолжали существовать в СА, хотя несколько изменили свои формы в связи с общим изменением системы звуков языков: *good – better – best, evil – werse – werst, muchel – more – most, litel – lesse – lest.*

В СА возникает новый, аналитический способ образования степеней сравнения. Прилагательное остается без изменения, но перед ним употребляется сравнительная степень *more* и превосходная *most.* Этот способ стали применять к прилагательным, имевшим три и более слогов.

## Глагол

Категория лица и числа – ослабление безударных гласных привело к уничтожению различий в системе личных окончаний глаголов.

Глагол *have* и *do* долго сохраняют старые формы в 3 л. ед.ч.: *hath, doth,* вытесненные позднее *has, does.*

Категория времени пополняется формой будущего времени: составное глагольное сказуемое переходит в аналитическую форму глагола со вспомогательным *shall, will.*

В СА происходят изменения в развитии форм сослагательного наклонения. Оно по-прежнему представлено синтетическими формами, но появляются новые, аналитические формы, возникшие в связи с утратой некоторыми модальными глаголами лексического значения в сочетании с инфинитивом: *should, might:*

*I would be loth to cast away my speech. – Мне не хотелось бы забыть свою речь.*

1. Сильные глаголы утратили четкие ряды чередований, нарушилось деление на классы. Количество сильных глаголов значительно уменьшилось. 80 сильных глаголов перешли в слабый тип.

2. Слабые глаголы в связи с фонетическими изменениями СА периода утратили деление на классы. Появился единый тип слабых глаголов. Инфинитив всех глаголов имел окончание *–en,* которое было очень неустойчивым. В прошедшем времени суффикс *–ede* совпал с суффиксом причастия 2 *–ed* и, т.о., обе формы стали одинаковыми.

Широкое распространение получил суффикс *–t,* который стал употребляться только после глухих согласных: *feel – felt(e) – felt, send – sent(e) – sent.*

У некоторых слабых глаголов выпадал серединный слог в формах прошедшего времени и причастия 2: *make – makede, made – maked, mad, have – havede, hade – haved, had.*

Слабые глаголы стали очень продуктивными.

3. Претерито-презентные глаголы получили статус модальных. Изменилось значение некоторых из них: *can* приобрел значение «мочь» вместо «знать», *must* «долженствовать» вместо «мочь», *āʒan > to owe,* который вышел из группы модальных глаголов. Из причастия *āʒen* – прилагательное *own,* из которого глагол *to own.* Форма Прош. вр. *āhte >* модальный *ought.*

Все модальные глаголы утратили формы инфинитива и настоящего времени множественного числа, сохранив формы единственного числа настоящего времени и прошедшего времени: *can – could, shall – should, may – might.*

Глагол *shall* стал употребляться не только как модальный, но и как вспомогательный для образования буд. времени. К нему присоединился глагол *will,* который не был претерито-презентным, но стал также выполнять функции вспом. и модального глаголов.

4. Супплетивные глаголы. Глагол «быть» утратил инфинитив *wesan.* В СА в настоящем времени сохранилась одна парадигма: *am, is, are.* Формы прошедшего времени сохранились, несколько видоизменившись: *was – were.*

У глагола *go* форма прошедшего времени была заменена на форму прошедшего времени глагола *wenden*, который имел значение «идти, поворачивать» - *wente*.

## Местоимение

*ich* утратило согласную и превратилось в букву *i,* которую стали писать с заглавной буквы, чтобы сделать ее более заметной в СА тексте, писавшемся без пробелов.

*hēō* в результате стяжения дифтонга перешло в *he* и совпало с местоимением мужского рода *he*. Чтобы избежать путаницы, форму женского рода стали заменять формой указательного местоимения женского рода *sēo*, которая изменилась в *she*.

*thou* сузило область своего применения и к концу СА периода было вытеснено местоимением 2 лица множественного числа *you* при обращении к одному лицу. Форма *thou* сохранилась в поэзии и религиозных текстах до наших дней.

*you* вытеснило форму общего падежа *ye* при обращении к нескольким лицам.

*hīē* превратилось в *hī* как результат монофтонгизации дифтонга *ie > i*. Форма *hi* по звуковому виду оказалась очень близко к местоимению мужского рода. Это создавало затруднения в процессе общения. Поэтому оно вышло из употребления, и на его месте было заимствовано местоимение *thei* из скандинавских языков.

СА период – становление определенного артикля. Появляется форма *þe > the*, являющаяся определителем существительного – артиклем.

## Синтаксис

1. Члены предложения

### Подлежащее

Начиная со СА подлежащее характеризуется не только определенной формой, но и местом в предложении. Исчезает неопределенно-личное местоимение *man*. В качестве подлежащего может выступать инфинитив, с 15 в. – герундий:

*To sechte hine is lihtlich thing. – Искать его – легкое дело.*

*There is no getting rid of him. – От него не отделаться.*

Широкое развитие получает оформление подлежащего с помощью местоименной притяжательной конструкции, которая состоит из существительного в общем падеже, притяжательного местоимения и другого существительного: *Edwald his mother (мать Эдвальда), Thar were Arthur his men (Там были люди Артура).*

### Сказуемое

В СА простое сказуемое получает развитие: благодаря появлению аналитических форм глагола простое сказуемое получает возможность выступать в неоднословном оформлении: *I have told hit yow (Я Вам сказал это), I shal doon diligence (Я приложу усилия).*

Развитие глагольного составного сказуемого связано с увеличением количества модальных глаголов, а также немодальных «фазисных» глаголов: *And on his lippe he gan for anger byte. – И он начал кусать губы от злости.* Появились модальные глаголы-связки *seem, appear, thinken.*

С начала СА появляется группа глаголов со значением становления: *becumen, waxen, fallen, gon, runnen, growen, turnen: ...the on his childhode bicom heremite (который еще в детстве стал отшельником).*

2. Порядок слов в предложении

В СА появляется тенденция к установлению более твердого порядка слов в предложении, чем в ДА языке. Эта тенденция связана с разрушением флексий и установлением омонимии падежных окончаний. Связь между ловами стала передаваться с помощью аналитических средств, а именно с помощью порядка слов и предлогов. При твердом порядке слов подлежащее, выраженное существительным  в общем падеже, помещалось в начале предложения перед сказуемым, а прямое дополнение, выраженное тем же общим падежом существительного, после сказуемого, т.е. определенный порядок членов предложения становился грамматическим средством выражения подлежащего и прямого дополнения. Но все же возможна некоторая свобода расположения членов предложения. Так, сохраняется обратный порядок слов после обстоятельств времени и места:

*Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimage. – Тогда желают люди идти в паломничество.*

*...and thidir com him graunted. – Она подарила ему свою любовь.*

Отношения, передаваемые в ДА языке формой родительного и дательного падежей существительного, стали передаваться сочетанием существительного в общем падеже с предлогом. Наиболее часто использовались предлоги *of, with, to, by:*

*... a compaignye of sundry folk.* - *...компания разных людей.*

*...short was his gowne, with sleves longe.* - *...коротким был его плащ, длинными рукавами.*

Большие изменения произошли в отрицательных предложениях. Исчезла частица *ne*, и в роли отрицательной частицы стал выступать *not*. В 11 веке в отрицательных предложениях появляются аналитические формы с глаголом *do: Thou dost not love her. – Ты не любишь ее.*

## Лекция 10. Словарный состав среднеанглийского языка

В СА период словарный состав английского языка претерпел значительные изменения. Ряд слов выходят из употребления с исчезновением старых обычаев, обрядов, понятий. Так, отмирают ДА слова *blōt, tiber 'жертвоприношение', blōtan 'совершать жертвоприношение'*, восходящие к языческим временам. ДА *middan-ʒeard 'мир, земля'*, отражавшее представление древних германцев об окружающем мире, вышло из употребления, а в слове *world* (ДА *woruld 'мир, земля, вселенная'*) стало основным.

### Словопроизводство

Наиболее продуктивные суффиксы: *-ere < -er: gardener; -ing: meeting; -man: gentleman, -y < -iʒ: angry, happy; -ful, -less: doubtful – doubtless; -en: happen, loosen, blacken.*

Наиболее продуктивные префиксы: *mis-, un-, be-: mistake, unbind, behave, belong, betray.*

Бессуффиксальный способ словопроизводства: *chance 'случаться' < chance (сущ.), dream 'мечтать' < dream (сущ.), call 'зов' < call (гл.).*

Сложение основ: *penknife, grandfather, afternoon, somebody, everything.*

### Заимствования

1. Заимствования из скандинавского языка – всего около 650 слов. Проникновение скандинавских слов происходило очень интенсивно, они быстро ассимилировались и становились общеупотребительными.

Местоимения: *ск. þeir 'они' > they, ск. þeirra 'их' > their, ск. þeim 'им' > them*

Глаголы: *ск. kalla > ДА cealian > CA callen > НА call, ск. take > ДА tacan > CA taken > НА take.* Они вытеснили исконные глаголы *clipian, niman.*

Существительные: *ск. lagu > ДА laʒu > CA lawe > НА law, ск. hūsbondi 'крестьянин, домохозяин' > hūsbonda 'хозяин дома, глава семьи' > CA husbonde 'землевладелец, муж' > НА husband, ск. happ > CA hap 'удача'.* От этого существительного, которое вышло из употребления, были образованы слова *happy, happiness, happen, perhaps.*

Многие слова, начинающиеся на *sk*, скандинавского происхождения: ск. *skil 'развлечение' >* НА *skill 'умение, ловкость'*, ск. *skinn 'обработанная шкура' >* НА *skin 'кожа'*, ск. *sky 'облако, туча' >* НА *sky 'небо'*, ск. *skyrte 'длинная рубашка' >* НА *skirt 'юбка'*, ск. *sceorte 'длинная рубашка' > shirt 'рубашка'.* И скандинавское, и английское слово образованы от общегерманского корня. В результате заимствования появился этимологический дублет *skirt – shirt.*

2. Заимствования из французского языка, вошедшие в английский язык в результате норманнского завоевания:

Семантические группы заимствований:

| Гос. управление | *government, power, country, people, parliament (*от фр. *parle - говорить)* |
|---|---|
| Юриспруденция | *court, judge, jury, accuse, plead, execute, crime, prison, traitor* |
| Религия | *religion, saint, pray, sermon, chapel, conscience* |
| Военная сфера | *army, soldier, sergeant, lieutenant, captain, admiral, officer* |
| Школа | *lesson), library, pen, pencil, pupil, art, colour, image, ornament, science* |
| Обиход | *table, plate, saucer, napkin, dinner, supper, feast, leisure, pleasure* |
| Городские ремесла | *tailor, painter, butcher.* |
| Пища | английское слово обозначает животное, а французское – блюдо, например: *ox – beef (бык - говядина), calf – veal (теленок - телятина)* |

<u>Лекция 11. Фонетический строй ранненовоанглийского языка</u>

## Гласные

1. Отпадение неударного *e [ə]* в конечных слогах. Г. Суит назвал РНА периодом утраченных окончаний: *sente > sent, keepen > keep*. Если корневой гласный был долгим, буква *e* на конце слова сохранялась, т.о. возникло «немое *-e*»: *make, like*. В некоторых случаях «немое *-e*» добавлялось к таким словам, в которых его никогда не было: *ston > stone, bone > bone*.

2. Великий сдвиг гласных – ряд изменений гласных в период между XV и XVIII вв. В течение этого периода все долгие гласные подверглись сужению или дифтонгизации. Сужению подверглись гласные среднего и верхнего подъема, которые т.о. продвинулись вверх, а гласные верхнего подъема дифтонгизировались. В орфографии сдвиг гласных не отразился. Примеры: *i: > ai [ti:mə] > [taim], e: > i: [ke:p] > keep, з: > e: > i: [sз:] > [se:] sea, a: > ei [nāmə] > [neim] name, ɔ: > ou [gɔ:] > [gou] go, o: > u: [mo:n] > [mu:n] moon, u: > au [u:t] > [aut] out*

3. Образование долгих гласных: *[a:]* возник из *[a]* перед *r* и глухими щелевыми: *hard, fast, path, al* перед *m, f: calm, half, [ɔ:]* является результатом развития нескольких различных гласных: *lord, brought, [ə:]* образовался в результате вокализации *r* после *i, e, u: first, her, turn*

4. Изменения кратких гласных. Появляются краткие *[æ], [ʌ]: [a] > [æ]: land, [u] > [ʌ]: glove, run, blood*. Изменение не происходило, если фонема *[u]* следовала за губным согласным: *put, full, bush,* но: *but, fun*.

5. Образование новых дифтонгов: *-are [ɛə]: care [ka:re] > [kɛə], -ere [iə]: here [he:re] > [hiə]*

## Согласные

1. Озвончение глухих щелевых в неударных слогах. Глухие щелевые *[f, s, θ]* озвончаются: *of [əf] > [əv], the [θə] > [ðə], his [his] > [hiz], foxes [foksis] > [foksiz]*. Озвончаются также сочетание *[ks] > [gz]: exam [iksæm] > [igzæm]*. Знаменательные слова, начинающиеся со звука *[θ]*, сохраняют его, т.к. они всегда находятся под ударением: *thorn, they, three, to think*.

2. Вокализация r: *part [part]>[pa:t], here [he:re] > [hiə]*.

3. Образование новых шипящих и аффрикат в заимствованных французских словах: *s+j> [ʃ]: special [spesjal]>[speʃəl], z+j> [ʒ]: vision [vizjɔn]>[viʒn], t+j> [tʃ]: nature , na'tju:r]>[neitʃə], d+j> [dʒ]: soldier [sol'djer]>[souldʒə]*

4. Упрощение групп согласных, состоящих из двух согласных, до одной, а состоящих из трех согласных, - до двух: *[mb]>[m]: lamb [lamb]>[læm], [mn]>[m]: solemn [solemn]> [solem], [kn]>[n]: knee [kne:]> [ni:], [wr]>[r]: write [wri:tə]> [rait], [hw]>[w]: when [hwen]> [wen], [hw]>[h]: who [hwɔ:]> [hu:], [stl]>[sl]: castle [kastlə]> [ka:sl], [stn]>[sn]: listen [listən]> [lisn], [ftn]>[fn]: often [ɔftn]> [ɔfn]*

<u>Лекция 12. Грамматический строй ранненовоанглийского языка</u>

## Морфология

Вследствие процесса распада флексий РНА становится языком аналитического типа, в котором флективное словоизменение сведено до минимума.

### Существительное

В РНА была полностью утрачена категория грамматического рода. Подавляющее число существительных образует форму множественного числа прибавлением *–s* (исключения: *man – men, ox - oxen*, а также поздние заимствования из греческого и латинского: *crisis – crises, nucleus – nuclei, antenna – antennae*).

Окончание *'s* образует притяжательный падеж одушевленных существительных, слов, означающих время, пространство и др.

### Прилагательное

Прилагательное утратило категорию числа, в результате чего перестало согласовываться с существительным. Так появился новый тип синтаксической связи: согласование сменилось примыканием. В результате грань между словосочетанием и сложным словом становится нечеткой, это обусловливает появление слов *blackboard* (но: *black table*), *redbreast* (но: *red breast*) и др. Важнейшим основанием разграничения словосочетания и сложного слова становится ударение.

## Местоимение

В РНА постепенно выходит из употребления местоимение 2 л. ед.ч. *thou*. Оно становится словом архаического стиля, выражающим торжественность. Местоимение *you* перестало быть вежливым и стало нейтральным.

В 16 в. образовалась форма притяжательного местоимения ср.р. *its*. Ранее в муж. и ср. роде употреблялась форма *his*.

## Глагол

В РНА продолжился распад системы сильных глаголов. Класс слабых глаголов пополняются за счет новых заимствований: из лат. *distribute, contribute, demonstrate, create, concentrate*, из фр. *finish, perish*.

Развиваются новые глагольные формы:

1. Герундий оформился к РНА в качестве глагольной формы, отличной от существительного и причастия и совмещающей как глагольные, так и именные черты.

*He looked at the writings on the wall* – отглагольное существительное

*Be careful writing this dictation* – причастие

*He likes writing letters* – герундий

2. Форма перфекта настоящего и прошедшего времени закрепляется в конце 17 в. Форма длительного вида сложилась только к 18 в.

3. Аналитические формы с глаголом *do*, который стал использоваться для формирования вопросительных предложений и отрицаний в 17 в. Оформляется мононегативный тип предложения. Сохранилось архаичное использование *do* в утвердительных предложениях, для эмфазы.

## Синтаксис

Не подверглись изменению характерные для германских языков номинативность и глагольность предложения.

Подлежащее выражается:

- с 16 в. неопределенно-личным местоимением *one*, развившимся из неопределенного местоимения;

- герундиальным оборотом: *Nor their lyvynge is not muche worse;*

- с конца РНА инфинитивной конструкцией: *for them to provide for their families was impossible.*

В РНА наблюдаются изменения в системе дополнительных членов предложения. В связи со смешением падежей, падежная дифференциация дополнений стала невозможной. Исчезло различие в форме подлежащего и дополнения. При этом разные типы дополнений сохранились. Различия между ними выражаются не падежом, а употребление предлогов, порядком слов. Например:

*I saw John. I looked at John. I gave John a book.*

Изменилась синтаксическая связь между определением и определяемым: примыкание.

РНА характеризуется развитой системой сложных предложений. В течение этого периода происходит упорядочение всей системы построения сложноподчиненного предложения, оно завершается к 18 в. Уточняется система подчинительных союзов и союзных слов (*if, when, while, …*), сочинительных наречий, частиц (*thus, notwithstanding, else, moreover, also, only*).

## Лекция 13. Лексический строй ранненовоанглийского языка
### Словообразование

1. Суффиксация

Суффиксы *er, ing, ness, man, ful* – самые продуктивные старые суффиксы. В этот период образованы:

1) слова, связанные с развитием торговли: *trader (*в 16 в. – торговей, купец, в 18 в. – торговый корабль*), banker, manager (*от итальянского глагола manage*)*

2) существительные, связанные с географическими открытиями и следованиями: *discoverer (*от гл. discover < ст.фр.*), explorer (*от гл. explore < ст.фр.*)*

3) существительные, связанные с развитием книгопечатания: *printer 'печатник' (*в 16 в. от гл. print < CA printen 'делать оттиск'*), publisher (*от фр. publish 'обнародовать, объявлять'*)*

4) профессии: *dressmaker, shoemaker, toymaker, hairdresser*

Суффиксы латинского и франц. происхождения *ment, al, ity, ance, able, ic.*

## Конверсия

1) глаголы от существительных: *alarm* (16в., от фр.), *camp* (16 в., от фр.<лат. campus), *hand* (17в.)

2) существительные от глаголов: *crowd* (16 в., от ДА), *paint* (17 в., от CA painten), *defeat* (16 в., от фр.)

3) существительные от прилагательных: *native 'туземец'* (от лат.), *Russian (*16 в, от лат Russoanus*)*

4) глаголы от прилагательных: *clean* (15 в., от ДА), *empty* (16 в., от ДА), *secure* (16 в., от лат securus)

5) предлог от наречия: *down* (16 в., от ДА adūne, of dūne – с горы)

Новые слова от имен собственных: *calinco (калинкор), coumbric (батист от фр. города Комбрэ), morocco – сафьян, astrakhan – каракуль.*

## Словосложение

Слова, связанные с развитием транспорта:

*light-house (*16в., маяк*), stage-coach (*17 в., дилижанс, от stage – расстояние между почтовыми станциями, перегон < от фр. + coach – карета, 16 в., от фр.*), railway (*от фр.< лат. regula прямой + way ДА, до 19 в. рельсы деревянные, по ним возят руду на лошадях, в 19 в. паровоз*)*

Слова, относящиеся к быту:

*handkerchief (*от исконно англ. слов*), staircase (*16 в., прямая лестница, в отличие от старых винтовых, от stair < ДА + case < фр.*), fireplace (*18 в. от fire, ДА + place*)*

Слова, связанные со школьной жизнью:

*schoolboy* (16 в., boy – происхождение слова неизвестно, с 7 в.), *schoolgirl* (19 в., когда девочки стали обучаться в школах*), time-table (*19 в., time < ДА, table < фр. table < лат. tabula)

Слова, возникшие в связи с развитием печати:

*newspaper (17 в.), trade-union (19 в.)*

Синтаксический способ словосложения – образование новых слов из устойчивых словосочетаний: *grandson (16 в.), granddaughter (17 в.), blackboard (19 в.), merry-go-round (18 в.).*

## Заимствования

В эпоху Возрождения в английский язык вошли многочисленные заимствования. Наиболее значительным был приток заимствований из классических языков: греческого и латинского. Возрождение светских наук, изучение классической литературы и подражание ее лучшим образцам стимулировали эти заимствования.

1. Латинские заимствования входили в английский язык, когда в нем уже были однокоренные французские . слова, восходящие к раннесредневековой «народной латыни» на территории Галлии. Они различались в своих значениях и образовывали латино-французские дублеты: *poor* < ст.фр. *povre 'бедный', pauper бедняк* < лат. *pauperum 'нищий'*.

В начале латинские заимствования носили книжный характер, позднее многие из них вошли в обиходный язык: *discuss, suggest, collect, fact, tradition.*

2. Греческие заимствования носят преимущественно книжный характер, являются терминами: *analysis, epoch, democracy, myth.*

3. Французские заимствования пришли из дворянских салонов и дипломатических кругов, сохранили графический и фонетический характер оригиналов: *attaché, etiquette, fatigue, caprice, ballet, ensemble, machine.*

4. Заимствования из других языков:

- итальянский: область искусства, архитектуры, повседневного быта: *scenario, cartoon, fresco, concerto, opera, gondola, lagoon, grotto, balcony.*

- испанский: военно-морские термины, бытовая лексика: *armada, flotilla, parade, guerilla, castanet, matador.*

- португальский: слова из языков американских индейцев: *alligator, cacao0, potato, tomato.*
- нидерландский: область изобразительных искусств: *easel, etch, sketch;* мореплавание: *cruise, buoy, bowsprit, freight, skipper.*
- русский: *steppe, czar, voivoda, ukase, verst, arshin, poud, rouble, copeck, caftan, kvass, koumiss, starlet, belouga, tundra, troika, Decembrist, zemstvo*

**Раздел 6 Становление и распространение национального английского языка**
Лекция 14. Формирование английского национального языка

16 век известен как век великих поэтов, писателей, драматургов (таких, как Шекспир, Спенсер, Джонсон, Бэкон, Тома Мур и др). Их произведения важны и формами языка. Если в СА слово могло иметь несколько написаний, то в НА фиксируется определенное написание. На правописание оказывает влияние латынь, а также введение книгопечатания в Англии в 1476 г. Основателем книгопечатания в Англии стал У. Кэкстон.

В 17 в. была предпринята попытка реформировать английскую орфографию из-за наплыва заимствований, особенно из латыни; появилось даже движение за чистоту языка (puritan movement) против "чернильных» терминов. В Англии началось пуристическое движение, разгорелась борьба вокруг лексикона. Необходим был тщательный отбор лексики. В таких условиях возник горячий интерес к лексике. В это время ученые издали словари (словарь Джоунза), грамматику. Упомянуть следует Батлера, Гилла, Уоллиса.

В 17-18 вв. капитализм продолжал быстро развиваться, и английская буржуазная революция свергла абсолютную монархию, установив новую форму правления – парламентскую. С 18 в. ведут свое начало 2 партии: лейбористы и консерваторы, которые получили название партии вигов (парики) и партия тори (мантии). В 18 в. процветание капитализма привело к образованию нового класса – пролетариата (рабочего класса).

Англия завоевала ряд стран и превратила их в колонии. Английский язык проник в Китай, Индию, Новую Зеландию, Австралию, Канаду и Америку. Английский язык распространился по всему миру.

РНА период характеризуется образованием английской нации. Английский национальный язык складывается на основе Лондонского диалекта.

**2     Методические указания по освоению дисциплины**

**2.1 РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО ПОДГОТОВКЕ К ЛЕКЦИОННЫМ ЗАНЯТИЯМ**

На каждом лекционном занятии студенту необходимо законспектировать основные положения раскрываемой темы. Правильно законспектированный лекционный материал позволит студенту создать устойчивый фундамент для самостоятельной подготовки, даст возможность получить и закрепить полезную информацию.

Студенты должны уметь соотносить понятийный аппарат изученной дисциплины с реальными фактами языка и межкультурной коммуникации, уметь творчески использовать теоретические положения для решения профессиональных задач в области перевода и преподавания английского языка.

Студенты должны овладеть системой представлений о связи языка, истории и культуры народа. Студенты должны иметь представление о языковой системе как целостном, исторически сложившемся функциональном образовании, обладать высоким уровнем развития теоретического мышления.

Студенты должны уметь использовать методы разграничения значений и выявления компонентов значения, распознавать и учитывать национально-культурную специфику смысловой структуры соотносительных слов в английском и русском языках. В компетенцию студентов должны входить знание словообразования английского языка, сочетаемости лексических единиц, исторической изменчивости смысловой структуры слова и этимологических основ лексикона,

умение анализировать макроструктуру и микроструктуру словаря, выбирать наиболее оптимальный словарь для решения профессиональных задач.

В процессе курса следует знакомить студентов с уровневым и полевым подходом к языковым фактам, вырабатывать у них способность понимать как план выражения, так и план содержания языкового элемента, а также видеть их взаимосвязь. Представляется необходимым обеспечить понимание студентами морфологических и синтаксических категорий с точки зрения их формы, семантики и функционирования. Одним из наиболее продуктивных способов формирования межкультурной и языковой компетенции является системное (т. е. по темам) обсуждение проблемного материала и сравнение языковых явлений английского языка, изучаемых в курсе теоретической грамматики, лексикологии и стилистики английского языка, с языковыми явлениями русского языка. В качестве иллюстративного материала рекомендуется использовать схемы, диаграммы, таблицы, лингвистические энциклопедические издания, словари.

Формулировку заданий к материалам курса и определение этапов их выполнения следует считать одной из главных задач преподавателя. Кроме того, необходимо постоянно учить студентов самостоятельно искать нужную информацию, выделять основное содержание в прочитанном, следить за новинками в лингвистической литературе. Лекционную форму мы считаем продуктивной в связи с большой сложностью многих затрагиваемых проблем, которые требуют разъяснения и приемлемого для начинающих лингвистов изложения. Немаловажно и то, что взгляды ученых на большинство языковых явлений и проблем отличаются многообразием, поэтому во время лекции можно представить различные интерпретации, обобщить имеющиеся точки зрения и, таким образом, дать возможность студентам сформировать собственное видение проблемы. Базой, заложенной в содержание дисциплины «Основы теории первого иностранного языка», является федеральный государственный образовательный стандарт, а также литература, представленная в программе.

Для обеспечения междисциплинарных связей между курсом «Основы теории первого иностранного языка» и программой подготовки бакалавров в области перевода рекомендуется акцентировать внимание студентов на вопросах национально-культурной специфики явлений языка и речи, детерминированности современного состояния языка как лингвистическими факторами, так и экстралингвистическими.

Преподавателю рекомендуется следующее: сформулировать и разъяснить студентам цели и задачи дисциплины; соблюдать последовательность методических действий для достижения конкретных коммуникативно-значимых результатов в процессе изучения дисциплины, а также в целях практической целесообразности подачи и отработки материала; придерживаться оптимального уровня в сообщении теоретических сведений о подаваемом материале, обращая внимание на его практическую направленность; использовать в качестве опоры иллюстративную наглядность, схемы, таблицы и т. д.; создавать на занятиях положительную мотивацию общения, располагающую к активной деятельности; служить самому примером эффективной коммуникации; нацеливать и консультировать студентов.

Формулировку заданий к материалам курса и определение этапов их выполнения следует считать главной задачей преподавателя, следует стремиться к тому, чтобы студенты самостоятельно искали нужную информацию, чтобы через самостоятельное проведение лексикологического анализа и применение различных методов исследования у студентов формировались навыки и умения лингвиста.

## 2.2 РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО ПОДГОТОВКЕ К ПРАКТИЧЕСКИМ ЗАНЯТИЯМ

Практические занятия предполагают закрепление и углубление материала, представленного на лекции. Студенты готовят небольшие сообщения теоретического характера (3–5 мин.), заостряя внимание на спорных и дискуссионных вопросах, которые обсуждаются коллективно. По возможности сообщение должно сопровождаться собственными иллюстративными материалами из словарей, художественной литературы и периодики. Предполагается также выполнение практических заданий и т. д.

Практические занятия предназначены для углубленного изучения материала, рассмотренного на лекционных занятиях, и играют важную роль в выработке у студентов умений и навыков применения полученных знаний для решения лингвистических задач.

При подготовке к практическому занятию обязательно требуется изучение основной и дополнительной литературы по теме занятия. Если обсуждаемый аспект носит дискуссионный характер, студенту следует изучить существующие точки зрения и выбрать тот подход, который кажется ему наиболее верным. При этом следует учитывать необходимость обязательной аргументации собственной позиции.

Во время практических занятий рекомендуется активно участвовать в обсуждении рассматриваемой темы, выступать с подготовленными заранее докладами и презентациями, принимать участие в обсуждении анализируемого практического материала.

*На практических занятиях* студенты:

1) выступают с докладами по заранее определенным вопросам и дискуссионно обсуждают их между собой и преподавателем.

Необходимым условием является выработка умения у студентов формулировать грамотные выводы, выявлять причины и последствия в изменении исследуемых лингвистических направлениях и течениях.

2) выполняют упражнения.

В ходе подготовки к практическим занятиям студенту необходимо изучить основную литературу, ознакомиться с дополнительной литературой, новыми публикациями в периодических изданиях: журналах, газетах и т.д. При этом учесть рекомендации преподавателя и требования учебной программы.

Подготовка доклада предусматривает поиск необходимой информации по заранее определенной теме и подготовку тезисов, составление плана-конспекта своего выступления. Кроме этого, студенту необходимо продумать примеры из художественных произведений с целью обеспечения тесной связи изучаемой теории с реальной жизнью.

3) с целью реализации текущего и промежуточного контроля знаний опрашиваются устно и письменно.

При необходимости студенты получают от преподавателя консультации по вопросам учебного материала, решения задач, выполнения домашних заданий, использования основной, дополнительной литературы и других источников информации для самостоятельного изучения отдельных вопросов, подготовки докладов.

## 2.3 РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО ОРГАНИЗАЦИИ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ

Для теоретического и практического усвоения дисциплины большое значение имеет самостоятельная работа обучающихся, которая может осуществляться студентами индивидуально и под руководством преподавателя.

Самостоятельная работа предполагает самостоятельное изучение отдельных тем, дополнительную подготовку студентов к каждому лекционному и практическому занятию.

Самостоятельная работа реализуется непосредственно в процессе аудиторных занятий, в контакте с преподавателем вне рамок расписания, а также в библиотеке, дома, при выполнении студентом учебных и творческих задач.

Цель самостоятельной работы обучающихся – научиться осмысленно и самостоятельно работать сначала с учебным материалом, затем с научной информацией; заложить основы самоорганизации и самовоспитания для привития умения в дальнейшем непрерывно повышать свою квалификацию.

Задачи самостоятельной работы:

- систематизация и закрепление полученных теоретических знаний и практических умений;

- углубление и расширение теоретических знаний;

- развитие познавательных способностей и активности обучающихся: творческой инициативы, самостоятельности, ответственности и организованности;

- формирование самостоятельности мышления, способностей к саморазвитию, самосовершенствованию и самореализации;
- развитие исследовательских умений;
- закрепление и углубление полученных знаний,  умений и навыков;
- приобретение новых знаний;
- осуществление подготовки к предстоящим занятиям и сдаче зачета.

В процессе  самостоятельной работы студент приобретает навыки самоорганизации, самоконтроля, самоуправления, и становится активным самостоятельным субъектом учебного процесса.

Для успешного осуществления самостоятельной работы необходимы:

1) комплексный подход организации самостоятельной работы по всем формам аудиторной работы;

2) сочетание всех уровней (типов) самостоятельной работы, предусмотренных рабочей программой;

3) обеспечение контроля за качеством усвоения материала.

Иностранный язык способствует формированию у студента представлений о диалоге культур, осознанию им себя как носителя культуры и духовных ценностей своего народа, национальной идентичности, гражданственности, норм морали и речевого поведения. Изучение иностранного языка требует длительного, систематического и упорного труда.

Необходимо, чтобы сам студент осознавал важность приобретения знаний по дисциплине и овладевал умениями не только на занятии, но и при самостоятельной подготовке. Только глубокое понимание основных закономерностей отражения языком явлений культуры обеспечит прочную основу для будущей профессиональной деятельности.

 Для применения умений и навыков в процессе коммуникации необходимо развивать в себе языковую интуицию: формирование понимания принципа реализации взаимосвязанности и обусловленности явлений языка и культуры в речи. Студенты должны владеть представлением о языковой системе как целостном, исторически сложившемся функциональном образовании, обладать высоким уровнем развития теоретического мышления.

Наиболее плодотворной учебной деятельностью следует считать не запоминание готовой информации, а самостоятельные ее поиски либо в материалах, предложенных преподавателем, либо в найденных самостоятельно источниках, оценку информации самим студентом и формирование собственного суждения.

При выполнении самостоятельной работы студентам рекомендуется изучить материал, указанный преподавателем, и выполнить упражнения и задания из соответствующих разделов учебников и учебных пособий. Выполнение упражнений и заданий требуется для закрепления знаний, полученных в ходе лекции и при самостоятельном освоении материала, а также для выработки соответствующих умений и навыков, необходимых для успешного решения профессиональных задач.

Студентам рекомендуется использовать интернет-источники в целях получения дополнительного языкового материала, иллюстрирующего основные теоретические положения. Самостоятельная работа студентов способствует более эффективному овладению материала, стимулирует познавательные и профессиональные интересы, развивает творческую активность и инициативу, формирует личность. В основу такой работы положено взаимодействие преподавателя и обучающихся. Чтобы такая деятельность была более продуктивной, студенты должны следовать рекомендациям и установкам преподавателя, посещать все аудиторные и внеаудиторные занятия и рационально использовать отведенное время, а также правильно организовывать свою самостоятельную работу. Студент должен подходить к своей работе осознанно, понимать, что эффект овладения иностранным языком в первую очередь зависит от него самого. Только систематическая непрерывная работа ведет к пониманию и усвоению материала.

Для решения поставленных курсом задач студентам рекомендуется:

1. Осуществлять самостоятельный поиск информации в разнообразных источниках для подготовки к семинарским занятиям.

2. Работать с научной литературой, аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические положения, извлекать из текста основную информацию и излагать ее в соответствии с принципами определенной модели (функционального стиля, жанра) письменной и устной коммуникации (устное сообщение, доклад, презентация, реферат и т. д.).

3. Конспектировать монографии, отдельные главы из них, а также научные статьи.

4. Составлять библиографические списки по темам курса.

5. Постоянно подбирать иллюстративный аутентичный материал, классифицировать и анализировать его с целью последующего использования на семинарских занятиях, а также при подготовке к экзаменам.

6. Регулярно посещать лекционные и семинарские занятия и готовиться к ним.

## 2.4 РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО РАБОТЕ С ОСНОВНОЙ И ДОПОЛНИТЕЛЬНОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРОЙ

Овладение методическими приемами работы с литературой - одна из важнейших задач студента.

Работа с литературой включает следующие этапы:

1) предварительное знакомство с содержанием;

2) углубленное изучение текста с преследованием следующих целей: усвоить основные положения; усвоить фактический материал;

3) логическое обоснование главной мысли и выводов;

4) составление плана прочитанного текста.

5) составление тезисов.

6) написание конспекта (в случае необходимости).

**Методические рекомендации по составлению конспекта:**

1) внимательно прочитайте текст. Уточните в справочной литературе непонятные термины. При записи не забудьте вынести данные о дате рождении и смерти автора на поля конспекта;

2) выделите главное, составьте план;

3) кратко сформулируйте основные положения текста, отметьте аргументацию автора;

4) законспектируйте материал, четко следуя пунктам плана. Записи следует вести четко, ясно;

5) грамотно записывайте основные направления в литературе, поясняя при этом значение каждого ее элемента.

В тексте конспекта желательно приводить не только тезисные положения, но и их доказательства. При оформлении конспекта необходимо стремиться к емкости каждого предложения. Число дополнительных элементов конспекта должно быть логически обоснованным, записи должны распределяться в определенной последовательности, отвечающей логической структуре текста. Для уточнения и дополнения необходимо оставлять поля.

Годы издания литературы не должны превышать пяти лет от года, в котором изучается дисциплины, при этом для периодических изданий такое требования составляет не более 1-2 лет.

Перечень учебно-методического обеспечения представлен в пункте 10 рабочей программы учебной дисциплины.

При этом студент может дополнить список литературы современными источниками, не представленными в списке рекомендованной литературы, и в дальнейшем использовать собственные подготовленные учебные материалы при написании рефератов, докладов, сообщений.

## 2.5 РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО ПОДГОТОВКЕ К ТЕКУЩЕМУ КОНТРОЛЮ

Текущий контроль по дисциплине осуществляется в следующих формах:
- устный опрос на проверку теоретических знаний,
- самостоятельная работа на проверку теоретических знаний,
- самостоятельные работы, включающие тестовые задания и задачи.

Устный опрос проводится в течение 30 минут с целью закрепления теоретического материала, проверки вопросов самостоятельного изучения.

Самостоятельные работы пишутся в течение 10-15 минут. Проверка практических навыков проводится с помощью самостоятельных работ на решение задач. Теоретические и практические знания обучающихся проверяются с помощью самостоятельных работ, включающих тестовые задания и задачи. Такие самостоятельные работы проводятся с целью подготовки студентов к сдаче экзамена.

В рамках текущего контроля студент должен посещать все лекционные и практические занятия; активно работать и выполнять все необходимые задания; готовить доклады и выступать с ними; выполнять домашние задания;  выполнять тестовые задания, направленные на проверку теоретических знаний, полученных на лекционных занятиях, а также в ходе изучения основной и дополнительной литературы; самостоятельные работы, направленные на проверку практических навыков в решении задач, умении формулировать выводы.

Домашние задания предполагают выполнение ряда типовых упражнений, направленных на закрепление теоретических знаний и практических навыков; на проверку преподавателю они представляются на следующем после получения практическом занятии.

Итоговый контроль предусматривает оценку уровня подготовленности студента по дисциплине посредством сдачи экзамена.


## 2.6 РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО ПОДГОТОВКЕ К СДАЧЕ ЭКЗАМЕНА

**Промежуточный контроль** проводится в виде экзамена (модули 1, 2, 3, 4) и зачета (модуль 5). Основанием для получения положительной оценки является ответ на теоретический вопрос по одному из разделов курса и выполнение практического задания.

**Примерный список вопросов к экзамену (Модуль 1):**
1. The object of lexicology. The connection of lexicology with the other branches of linguistics.
2. Definition of the word. Internal and external structures of words.
3. Historical development of English vocabulary.
4. Etymology of English words.
5. The etymological structure of English vocabulary.
6. The process of borrowing. Types of borrowing.
7. Assimilation of borrowed words.
8. Etymological doublets. International words.
9. Lexicography as a branch of lexicology. Types of dictionaries.
10. Morphological structure of English words. Types of morphemes. Allomorphs.
11. Affixation. Types of affixes. Native and borrowed affixes. Productive and non-productive affixes. Derivational and functional affixes.
12. Conversion.
13. Word composition. Structural and semantic aspects of compounds.
14. Shortening. Curtailment. Blending.
15. Shortening. Abbreviations. Acronyms.
16. Minor types of word formation (onomatopeia, back-formation, reduplication).
17. Meaning. Semantic triangle.
18. Lexical meaning. Structure of lexical meaning.

19. Semantic structure of polysemantic words.
20. Types of semantic change. Transference based on resemblance and contiguity.
21. Types of semantic change. Broadening/Narrowing of meaning. Degeneration/Elevation of meaning.
22. Homonymy. Sources of homonyms. Classification of homonyms.
23. Synonymy. Criteria of synonymy.
24. Types of synonyms.
25. The dominant synonym. Euphemisms.
26. Antonymy. Types of antonyms.
27. Phraseological units and free phrases.
28. Various approaches to classification of phraseological units.
29. Informal style.
30. Formal style.

## Практическое задание

Comment on
- the meaning and the origin of words; the changes of meaning (if any);
- the models of word-building;
- functional and dialectal features;
- synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, etc., and explain their difference;
- international words and other types of borrowings;
- the meaning and types of phraseological units as well as their structure.

## Примерный список вопросов к экзамену (Модуль 2):

1. The object of the stylistics (problems of the stylistic research, stylistics of language and speech, types of stylistic research and branches of stylistics, stylistics and other linguistic disciplines, stylistic neutrality and stylistic colouring).
2. Lexical Stylistic Devices (metaphor, metonymy, irony, zeugma, pun, decomposition of a set phrase, semantically false chains, nonsense of non-sequence).
3. Lexical Stylistic Devices (epithet, oxymoron, antonomasia, hyperbole, understatement, oxymoron, simile, periphrasis, euphemisms, allusion).
4. Stylistic Classification of the English Vocabulary (Neutral, common literary and common colloquial vocabulary, special literary vocabulary, special colloquial vocabulary).
5. Syntactical Expressive Means and Stylistic Devices (Main Characteristics of the Sentence. Sentence Length. One-Word Sentence. Sentence structure. Punctuation. Arrangement of Sentence Members. Rhetorical Questions. Types of Repetition. Parallel Constructions. Chiasmus).
6. Syntactical Expressive Means and Stylistic Devices (Inversion. Suspense. Detachment. Completeness of Sentence Structure. Ellipsis. One-Member Sentences. Apokoinu Constructions. Break. Types of Connection. Polysyndeton. Asyndeton. Attachment).
7. Phonetic Stylistic Devices (Onomatopoeia. Alliteration. Rhyme. Rhythm) and Graphical Means.
8. The theory of functional styles.
9. Functional Styles. The Belles -Lettres style.
10. Functional Styles. Publicistic Style.
11. Functional Styles. Newspaper Style.
12. Functional styles. Scientific prose style.
13. Functional styles. The style of official documents.
14. Expressive resources of the language (Hellenistic Roman rhetoric system).
15. Stylistic theory and classification of expressive means by G.Leech.
16. I.R. Galperin's classification of expressive means and stylistic devices.
17. Classification of expressive means and stylistic devices by Y.M. Skrebnev.

**Find stylistic devices and expressive means in the following passage; say what stylistic function they fulfill:**

There is no month in the whole year, in which nature wears a more beautiful appearance than in the month of August; Spring has many beauties, and May is a fresh and blooming month, but the charms of this time of the year are enhanced by their contrast with the winter season. August has no such advantage. It comes when we remember nothing but clear skies, green fields, and sweet-smelling flowers – when the recollection of snow, and ice, and bleak winds, has faded from our minds as completely as they have disappeared from the earth – and yet what a pleasant time it is. Orchards and cornfields ring with the hum of labour; trees bend beneath the thick clusters of rich fruit which bow their branches to the ground; and the corn, piled in graceful sheaves, or waving in every light breath that sweeps above it, as if it wooed the sickle, tinges the landscape with a golden hue. A mellow softness appears to hang over the whole earth; the influence of the season seems to extend itself to the very wagon, whose slow motion across the well-reaped field is perceptible only to the eye, but strikes with no harsh sound upon the ear.  (Charles Dickens)

**Примерный список вопросов (Модуль 3):**

1) Grammar in the Systemic Conception of Language
2) Morphemic Structure of the Word
3) Categorial Structure of the Word
4) Grammatical Classes of Words
5) Noun: General. The category of Gender
6) Noun. The Category of Number
7) Noun. The Category of Case
8) Noun. The Category of Article Determination
9) Verb: General. The Category of Finitude.
10) Non-Finite Verbs: the Infinitive and the Gerund
11) Non-Finite Verbs: the Participle I and Participle II
12) Verb. The Category of Person and Number
13) Verb. The Category of Tense
14) Verb. The Category of Aspect
15) Verb. The Category of Voice
16) Verb. The Category of Mood
17) Simple Sentense: Constituent and Paradigmatic Structure
18) Composite sentence as a Polypredicative Construction
19) Complex Sentence
20) Compound Sentence
21) Text as the highest level of the language hierarchy
22) Discourse and its categories

**Образцы практических заданий:**
1. Analyze the morphological structure of the words: embodiment, unbelievably, susceptibility.
2. Characterize the grammatical forms: less important, speaks, going, have made, go-went-gone.
3. Characterize the nouns: bag, hare, Jack, desk, friendship.
4. Identify the Genitive of the following phrases: Jake's arrest, a child's toy, man's vanity, the girl's story, the hotel's parking.
5. Characterize the verbs according to the different subclasses they can enter:  to come, to grow, to have, to do.

1. История английского языка как наука. Ее цели, задачи, методы. Эволюция языка. Синхрония и диахрония. Периодизация истории английского языка.
2. Древние германские племена и их языки. Письменные памятники древних германцев.
3. История изучения германских языков. Сравнительно-исторический метод как современный подход к изучению истории развития языка.
4. Классификация современных германских языков. Их общие фонетические, грамматические, лексические черты.
5. Фонетическая система древнеанглийского языка.
6. Орфография и письменные памятники древнеанглийского периода.
7. Грамматическая система древнеанглийского языка.
8. Словарный состав древнеанглийского языка.
9. Фонетическая система среднеанглийского языка.
10. Орфография и письменные памятники, представляющие различные диалекты среднеанглийского языка.
11. Грамматическая система среднеанглийского языка.
12. Словарный состав среднеанглийского языка.
13. Фонетическая система ранненовоанглийского языка.
14. Орфография и письменные памятники ранненовоанглийского языка.
15. Грамматическая система ранненовоанглийского языка.
16. Словарный состав ранненовоанглийского языка.

**Образец практического задания**:
Прочитайте текст в соответствии с правилами чтения данного периода истории английского языка и выполните задания к тексту.

#1
Shakespear's Will (1616)
…I gyve unto my wife me second best bed with the furniture. I gyve and bequeath to my said daughter Judith my broad silver gilt hole. All the rest of my goods, chattel, leases, plate, jewels and household stuffe whatsoever, after my dettes and legacies paid, and my funeral expences discharged, I give, devise, and bequeath to my sonne in lawe, John Hall gent., and my daughter Susanna, his wife, whom I ordaine and make executours of this my last will and testament…

By me William Shakespeare.

1. Найдите в тексте слова, в которых проходил великий сдвиг гласных. Охарактеризуйте результаты сдвига.
2. Определите значение слова *dette*. Как изменилась орфография этого слова в современном языке и почему?
3. Найдите в тексте примеры исконной (индоевропейской, общегерманской, английской) и заимствованной лексики. Из каких языков и в какое время заимствованы эти слова?
4. Сравните написание имени в заголовке и подписи. О чем свидетельствуют различия в их написании?

**Основные критерии оценки на экзамене**
**Оценка «отлично»:**
- всесторонние, глубокие знания теоретического материала, предусмотренного учебной программой;
- знание дефиниций, владение терминологией;
- умение проиллюстрировать основные положения соответствующими примерами;

- безупречное выполнение в процессе изучения дисциплины всех заданий, предусмотренных формами текущего контроля;
- отсутствие терминологических ошибок.

**Оценка «хорошо»:**
- хорошие знания теоретического материала, предусмотренного учебной программой;
- знание дефиниций, владение терминологией;
- успешное выполнение всех практических заданий, предусмотренных формами текущего контроля, наличие незначительных ошибок при изложении теории и формулировке основных понятий.

**Оценка «удовлетворительно»:**
- знание основного учебного материала, предусмотренного программой, в объеме, необходимом для дальнейшей учебы и работы по специальности;
- выполнение всех заданий, предусмотренных формами текущего контроля, но наличие значительного количества ошибок как в теории, так и на практике.

**Оценка «неудовлетворительно»:**
- несоответствие содержания ответа поставленному в билете вопросу или отсутствие ответа;
- обнаружение пробелов в знании материала, предусмотренного программой;
- допущение принципиальных ошибок при ответе.

## Примерные вопросы на зачет (Модуль 5):

1. Фонетика как наука: предмет, место в языкознании, разделы фонетики. Четыре аспекта изучения звуков.
2. Понятие фонемы. Фонема — аллофон — фон. Критерии выделимости фонемы.
3. Система фонемных оппозиций.
4. Нейтрализация. Архифонема. Гиперфонема. Чередования.
5. Фонологические абстракции и их акустические и перцептивные корреляты.
6. Обязательные условия образования согласных и гласных, их дифференциальные признаки.
7. Артикуляторная и акустическая классификации согласных.
8. Артикуляторная и акустическая классификации гласных
9. Проблемы парадигматики английского консонантизма.
10. Проблемы парадигматики британского и американского вокализма.
11. Реализация системы консонантизма в его британском и американском вариантах. Общее и отличное.
12. Реализация систем вокализма британского и американского вариантов английского языка.
13. Понятие слога, его вариантов и видов. Функции слога.
14. Фонетический и фонологический слог. Идеальная модель слога. Английский слог как единица фонотактики.
15. Слог как артикуляционная, акустическая, перцептивная единица.
16. Слоговые контрасты и полезные признаки.
17. Общая характеристика словесного ударения в русском и английском языках.
18. Акцентная структура английских слов. Словесное ударение в потоке речи.
19. Просодия и интонация. Место и функции интонации в системе языковых единиц. Компоненты интонации и их взаимодействие.
20. Единицы интонации. Вариативность интонационных единиц.
21. Единицы интонации и их вариативность в английском языке.
22. Система, норма, узус. Орфоэпия и орфофония. Вариативность и вариантность в произносительной норме.
23. Территориальные варианты английского языка.
24. Межъязыковая и внутриязыковая интерференция.

25. Методы фонетического анализа

Основные критерии оценки на зачете:

**Зачтено** – ставится в ставится в том случае, если студент показывает знание существа теоретического вопроса, понимает место данного языкового явления в общей структуре языка, может проследить закономерности взаимодействия его с другими языковыми явлениями, отвечает на дополнительные вопросы, связанные со всем курсом изучаемой дисциплины. Правильно, без ошибок выполняет практическое задание, предоставляя теоретический комментарий, необходимый для анализа данного материала.

**Незачтено** – ставится в том случае, если студент допускает серьезные смысловые ошибки при раскрытии  теоретического вопроса, не дает ответ  на дополнительные вопросы, связанные со всем курсом изучаемой дисциплины.