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ОСНОВЫ ТЕОРИИ ИЗУЧАЕМОГО ЯЗЫКА (УЧЕБНОЕ ПОСОБИЕ НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ)

Кокшетау 2017

Учебное пособие рекомендовано к изданию решением УМС Кокшетауского государственного университета имени Ш.Уалиханова (протокол № 4 от 25 мая 2017 г.) для бакалавриата специальностей 5В020700 «переводческое дело» и 5В011900 «иностранный язык: два иностранных языка»

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Данное пособие представляет собой курс лекций на английском языке по дисциплине «основы теории изучаемого (английского) языка», который охватывает основные аспекты, изучаемые в рамках данного курса: историю возникновения и развития языка, варианты и диалекты английского языка, современный фонетический строй и пр. Некоторые темы также сопровождаются практическими заданиями, которые вынесены в отдельный раздел.

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Part 1
THEORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE: A PREVIEW

UNIT 1. LANGUAGE, LINGUISTICS AND THEORY OF THE LANGUAGE

The content of the course "theory of the language" comprises all main branches and methods of modern linguistics.

Interest in linguistics – the study of human language – has existed throughout history. For thousands of years people tried to give an answer to such questions as: What is language? Is language unique to the human species? What is the origin of language? How and why do languages change? How do children learn language? What is the biological basis for human language?

In addition to the philosophical interest, practical considerations have also motivated linguists, psychologists, philosophers, educators, sociologists, neurologists, computer scientists, logicians and others to address these questions and study the language using different approaches. Hence there exist numerous definitions of the term 'language'. One of them is given by Webster's New World Dictionary:

language < L [*lingua,* tongue] 1. human speech or the written symbols for speech; 2. a) any means of communicating; b) a special set of symbols used in a computer; 3. the speech of a particular nation; 4. the particular style of verbal expression characteristic of a person, group, profession, etc.

As we see from the given definition the word 'language' can be understood differently, so it is no wonder that there are so many arguments concerning the problem of defining it.

Linguistics also endeavors to answer the question – what is language and how is it represented in the mind? Linguists focus on describing and explaining language and are not concerned with the prescriptive rules of the language. Linguists are not required to know many languages and linguists are not interpreters. The main goal of the linguist is to try to discover the universals concerning language. That is, what elements are common for all languages. The linguist then tries to place these elements in a theoretical framework that will describe all languages and also predict what can not occur in a language.

Linguistics is a social science that shares common ground with other social sciences such as psychology, anthropology, sociology and archaeology. It also may influence other disciplines such as communication studies and computer science. Linguistics for the most part though can be considered a cognitive science.

Linguistics includes a number of branches and sub-branches. The fields of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and language acquisition are considered the core fields of study. Below there are described several linguistic branches.

Phonetics. Phonetics is the study of the production and perception of speech sounds. It is concerned with the sounds of language, how these sounds are articulated and how the hearer perceives them. There are three sub-disciplines of phonetics:

1) Articulatory Phonetics: studies the production of speech sounds.
2) Acoustic Phonetics: the study of the physical production and transmission of speech sounds.
3) Auditory Phonetics: the study of the perception of speech sounds.

Phonology. Phonology is the study of the sound patterns of language. It is concerned with how sounds are organized in a language. Phonology examines what occurs to speech sounds when they are combined to form a word and how these speech sounds interact with each other.

Morphology. Morphology is the study of word formation and structure. It studies how words are put together from their smaller parts and the rules governing this process.

Syntax. Syntax is the study of sentence structure. The underlying structure of English for example would have a subject-verb-object sentence order (*John hit the ball*).

Semantics. Semantics is the study of meaning. It is concerned with describing how we represent the meaning of a word in our mind and how we use this representation in constructing sentences. Semantics is based largely on the study of logic in philosophy.

Language Acquisition. Language acquisition examines how children learn to speak and how adults learn a second language. Language acquisition is very important because it gives us insight in the underlying processes of language. There are two components which contribute to language acquisition. The innate knowledge of the learner (called Universal Grammar or UG) and the environment. The notion of UG has broad implications. It suggests that all languages operate within the same framework and the understanding of this framework would contribute greatly to the understanding of what language is.

Sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics is the study of interrelationships of language and social structure, linguistic variation, and attitudes toward language.

Neurolinguistics. Neurolinguistics is the study of the brain and how it functions in the production, perception and acquisition of language.

Historical Linguistics. Historical linguistics is the study of language change and the relationships of languages to each other.

Anthropological Linguistics. Anthropological linguistics is the study of language and culture and how they interact.

Pragmatics. Pragmatics studies meaning in context.

In the given course we'll focus only on several of these branches which will cover history of (the English) language, theoretical phonetics (comprising phonetics and phonology), lexical aspects of the language study (comprising semantics, etymology, lexicography, etc.) and theoretical grammar (comprising morphology and syntax) and some others.

UNIT 2. GERMANIC LANGUAGES

§ 1. Generalities about Germanic languages

Genetically, English belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of languages, which is one of the twelve groups of the IE linguistic family. Most of the area of Europe and large parts of other continents are occupied today by the IE languages, Germanic being one of the major groups.

In ancient times the territory of Germanic languages was much more limited. Thus, in the 1st c. A.D. Germanic languages were only spoken in Germany and in territories adjacent to it, and also in Scandinavia.

Germanic languages are classified into three groups: (1) East Germanic, (2) North Germanic, (3) West Germanic.

The East Germanic languages have been dead for many centuries. Of the old East Germanic languages only one is well-known – *Gothic*: a vast written document has come down to us in this language, namely, a translation of the Bible made in the 4th c. A.D. by the Gothic bishop Ulfilas from the Greek.

Almost all North Germanic and West Germanic languages have survived until our own times.

There is one living Germanic language – *Hunsrik* that is uncategorized, not belonging to either the North or West branch of the family. Hunsrik is a wide-spread language spoken in Brazil. Originally it derived from a speech variety of Germany that was later noticeably influenced by Portuguese.

The North Germanic languages or Scandinavian languages are sometimes referred to as the Nordic languages, a direct translation of the most common term used among Danish, Swedish and Norwegian scholars and laypeople. Languages belonging to the North Germanic language tree are also (to some extent) spoken on Greenland and by immigrant groups mainly in North America and Australia.

Among North Germanic languages we find the following ones:

Icelandic – the national language of Iceland;

Faroese – a language spoken in the Faroe Islands and Denmark (the total number of speakers is less than 70,000 people);

Norwegian – de facto national language of Norway;

Danish – de facto national language of Denmark; it has several dialects and sub-dialects;

Swedish – the statutory national language of Sweden. Swedish is also spoken in some parts of Finland. The language has several dialects and sub-dialects;

The West Germanic languages constitute the largest branch of the Germanic family of languages.

Modern West Germanic languages include:

English – native to Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic, and many other former British colonies. It has several territorial varieties, many dialects and sub-dialects;

Scots – a language spoken in some parts of Scotland and Northern Ireland. Scots is reportedly most similar to English and Frisian;

German – a wide-spread language native to Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, part of Switzerland. It has a lot of dialects and sub-dialects;

Dutch – de facto national language of the Netherlands. It is also spoken in Belgium, Suriname, Aruba, Curacao, Sint Maarten and Caribbean Netherlands. Dialectal variations of Dutch are insignificant;

Afrikaans – the national language of the South African Republic. It is also spoken in Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, Swaziland and Zambia;

Frisian – a language spoken primarily in the Netherlands as well as in some parts of Germany and Denmark;

Yiddish – a language spoken in Israel as well as other countries such as Poland, Romania, Ukraine, Hungary, Lithuania, Belarus and others. Yiddish uses Hebrew script unlike all other Germanic languages that use the Latin alphabet

The total number of native speakers of Germanic languages is more than 550 million people.

§ 2. English as a global language

Modern English, sometimes described as the first global lingua franca, is the dominant international language in communication, science, business, commerce, aviation, entertainment, radio and diplomacy. Its spread beyond the British Isles began with the growth of the British Empire, and by the late nineteenth century its reach was truly global. Following British colonization in North America, it is the dominant language in the United States, whose growing economic and cultural influence and status as a global superpower since World War II have significantly accelerated the language's adoption across the planet. World War II served as a stimulus to the use of English as American and British troops were stationed in all parts of the world, in many places for the first time, and since the war they have continued to remain in various places. Besides, Britain and America play an increasingly important role in world affairs, therefore their language also becomes increasingly important.

A working knowledge of English has become a requirement in a number of fields, occupations and professions such as medicine and computing; as a consequence over a billion people speak English to at least a basic level. English is the official language in 53 countries. It is also one of six official languages of the United Nations.

Linguists such as David Crystal recognize that one impact of this massive growth of English, in common with other global languages, reduced native linguistic diversity in many parts of the world, most particularly in Australasia and North America, and its huge influence continues to play an important role in language attrition. Similarly, historical linguists, aware of the complex and fluid dynamics of language change, are always aware of the potential English contains through the vast size and spread of the communities that use it and its natural internal variety, such as in its creoles and pidgins, to produce a new family of distinct languages over time.

Part 2
HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

UNIT 1. THE ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

§ 1. The very beginning of British history

The first evidence in Britain of human life (Homo sapiens) dates from about 15,000 BC. By 3500 BC farming had largely superseded hunting, people began to build huts of stone and wood. Bronze, made by mixing copper with tin, was in use in Britain from about 2100 BC – weapons, tools and utensils were made of it.

Stonehenge (in Wiltshire) – the most famous prehistoric temple in Britain – *was* built in about 1800 BC. It was probably used as a giant calculating machine to calculate the position of sunrise and sunset at different times of the year; it may also have been used to calculate the position of the stars.

However, we do not have any evidence concerning the linguistic situation in the British Isles of that time.

It is generally considered that the development of the English language began in the 5th century A.D. when groups of West Germanic tribes settled in the British Isles. But long before the Germanic invasions the British Isles were inhabited by the *Iberians*, who had come from the Iberian Peninsula, which is located in the extreme southwest of Europe and includes modern-day Spain, Portugal, Andorra and Gibraltar and a very small area of France. Unfortunately no linguistic evidence is preserved about the Iberians either. The first people about whose language we have some knowledge are the *Celts*. Many Celtic tribes settled in Britain at about 500 BC, and even earlier. Some of the tribes, called 'Britons', held most of the territory, and the southern half of the island was named Britain after them (in ancient geography, after the time of Caesar, the name was 'Britannia'; now it is the poetic name for Great Britain and for a female personification of Great Britain).

The Celtic tribes spoke various Celtic languages that can be divided into 2 main groups: the **Gallo-Breton** and the **Gaelic**.

The Gallo-Breton group includes:

Gallic, which was spoken in Gaul;

British, represented by Welsh in Wales, Breton in Brittany, and Cornish in Cornwall (passed out of use in the 18th c.).

The Gaelic group includes:

Irish;

Scots;

Manx (spoken on the Isle-of-Man, between Scotland and Ireland

§ 2. The Roman Conquest

The Romans conquered a huge empire in Europe, the Middle East and Africa. In 55 B.C. the Romans under Julius Caesar first landed in Britain but after a brief stay they went back to Gaul. The following summer (54 BC) Caesar again invaded the

island. This time he succeeded in establishing himself in the South-East. But after a few meetings with the natives he again returned to Gaul. After that Britain was not troubled by the Romans for nearly 100 years.

The Romans returned, led by Emperor Claudius in 43 AD. They occupied a vast area now known as England.

Scotland remained hostile and unconquered. The Romans never tried to conquer Ireland.

The conquest of Britain was followed by its Romanization: it became a Roman province. The Romans brought writing and a sophisticated legal system into Britain. They introduced the Alphabet the British use today, and almost half the words in modern English derive from Latin. They created new towns, and introduced drainage systems, houses with glass windows, and a form of central heating. One of the oldest buildings in Britain is the Roman lighthouse, or Pharos, at Dover. Also, long straight roads were built to move the troops rapidly through forest and swamp; trade and communications were improved. Roman influence is always evident in names of towns ending with *–caster, -chister*, because 'castrum' in Latin denoted a fort, and 'castra' – a camp.

Though the Romans spoke Latin, the Latin language did not replace the Celtic language. Its use was confined to members of the upper classes and the inhabitants of the towns.

The Romans removed their last legion from Britain in 410 A.D. as the army was needed to prevent barbarian invasions in mainland Europe. But the independence of the country was very short.

§ 3. The Germanic Conquest
Undoubtedly, the Teutons (Germanic tribes) had made piratical raids on the British shores long before the withdrawal of the Romans in 410 AD, but the crisis came with the departure of the last Roman legions. The 5th century was the age of increased Germanic expansion.

Reliable evidence of the period is very scarce. The story of the invasion is told by Bede (673-735), a monastic scholar who wrote the first history of England, Historia Ecclesistica Gentis Anglorum.

According to Bede the invaders came to Britain in 449 AD under the leadership of two Germanic kings, Hengist and Horsa. The invaders of Britain came from the western subdivision of the Germanic tribes. They were: the Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles. The Britons fought against the conquerors for about a century and a half – till about the year 600.

The Jutes settled in Kent, the Isle-of-Wight and the neighboring part of Hampshire. The Saxons occupied the banks of the Thames and the remaining part of England southward. The Angles occupied most of the territory north of the Thames up to the Firth-of-Forth.

Since the settlement of these tribes in Britain the ties of their language with the continent were broken and its further development went in its own way. It is at this time that the History of the English language begins.

§ 4. Periods in the history of the English language

There is a tendency to divide any lengthy history into parts or periods. For the English language the conventional major divisions are three: Old English, for the period from beginnings to about 1100, Middle English, for about 1100 to 1450/1500 and New, or Modern English, for the language from the sixteenth century to the present. The principal basis for these divisions lies in the changes in the systems of grammatical inflections: the times of most rapid change in the inflectional system are represented by approximate dates.

The English scholar Henry Sweet (1845 - 1912), author of a number of works on the English language and on its history, proposed the following division of the history of the language

1ˢᵗ period, Old English – the period of *full endings*. This means that any vowel may be found in an unstressed ending. E.g. the word *sinӡan* has the vowel *a* in its unstressed ending, while the word *sunu* has the vowel *u* in a similar position;

2ⁿᵈ period, Middle English – the period of *levelled endings*. This means that vowels of unstressed endings have been levelled under a neutral vowel (something like [ə]), represented by the letter *e*. Thus OE *sinӡan* became ME *singen*, OE *sunu* became ME *sune*, etc.

3ʳᵈ period, New English – the period of *lost endings*. This means that the endings are lost altogether. E.g. *singen – sing, sune – sun.*

UNIT 2. GERMANIC AND OLD ENGLISH WRITING

Writing is such a specialized form of behavior, in fact, that it evolved late in human culture. Speech is prehistoric; history itself comes into being the moment we have written records.

The alphabet that the English use today was borrowed from the Greeks by the Romans and exported to most of Europe, including Ireland, from which the Roman alphabet came into England (the earliest survivng writings in Old English in the Roman alphabet date from about 700 A.D.).

For hundreds of years before that time, however, the pre-Christian Angles and Saxons had an angular script called 'runes', meaning 'secret'. Judging from the inscriptions that have survived, runes were used primarily for memorials and charms.Historian Tacitus wrote that ancient Germans attached great importance to fortune-telling by means of casting lots: putting on a piece of cloth sticks with carved marks and reading prayers, a priest chose at random 3 sticks and told fortunes reading the marks. Those magic words were letters of runic writing.

The term 'runes' was formed from the stem meaning 'secret' (cf. Gothic 'rūna' – secret and German verb 'raunen' – to whisper secretly, stealthily). Runes were an early adaptation of the Greek alphabet that came into England through Scandinavia instead of Ireland. The Greeks in their turn had adapted the alphabet from the pre-

Semitic peoples of Sumer (the Sumerian writing system was invented around 1000 B.C.).

Runic alphabet consisted of 24 marks (not always). These marks represented combinations of vertical and slanting lines.

The knowledge of runes was the professional secret of priests and was passed on from generation to generation. The main 'function' of runes was to protect the owner of the thing from evil and enemies, to protect the dead and keep them in grave. Runes were carved on wood, bone, tomb-stones, some time later on metal, especially on gold. Unfortunately it was very difficult to preserve wooden things, so very few of them are left.

Altogether there were discovered about 150 things with runes that date from the 3rd to the 8th c. These things are parts of armour (spears, handles of swords, shields), adornments and amulets (ring, bracelet), tomb-stones, etc.

Most of the inscriptions represent separate words (mainly proper names). It is possible that for ancient Germans each rune, even when used separately, had a magic meaning. Then it is clear why very often they wrote down the whole alphabet or the part of it: they thought it would bring them luck and protect them from misfortunes.

The two best known runic inscriptions in England are the earliest Old English records: 1) the inscription on a box called the 'Franks Casket' and 2) a short text on the cross known as the 'Ruthwell Cross'. The total number of the runic inscriptions in Old English is about 40.

A specific use of runes found its reflection in the vocabulary of Germanic languages. E.g. German *Buchstabe* (Buche + Stab), 'letter', at first meant 'beechwood stick' (Old English *bochstæf)*, the English verb *(to) read* at first meant 'to guess', the verb *(to) write* before had the meaning 'to scratch'.

During the process of Christianization (4-12th c.) the Germans got acquainted with Latin writing (Goths with Greek). Gradually Latin writing supplanted runes. In Scandinavia, where runes turned out to be stabler, runic writing didn't disappear completely but was carried to parchment and was used not only for religious rites but (as, for example, in Denmark in the 13th c.) also for writing laws and was used for this purpose up to the 16th c.

As for the Old English language, our knowledge of it comes not from the runic inscriptions but from the manuscripts written in Latin characters.

Latin script (or Roman alphabet) appeared in England due to the Christian missionaries. The first attempt to introduce the Christian religion to Anglo-Saxon Britain was made in the 6th c. In less than a century practically all England was Christianized.

Christianization of the country gave a strong impetus to the development of culture and learning. All over the country monasteries and monastic schools were founded.

In the period from the 5th till the 11th c (OE period) the relative weight of OE kingdoms and their influence on each other was variable. At different times four of the OE kingdoms secured supremacy in the country. Those kingdoms were Kent,

Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex, and accordingly there existed in the OE language 4 principal dialects: Kentish, Northumbrian, Mercian and Wessex.

All OE written records can be divided into prosaic and poetic.

OE prosaic works have been preserved in all dialects but mainly in Wessex. One of the most famous written records in Wessex dialect is "The Anglo-Saxon Chronicles". It represents a number of brief annals of the year's happenings made at various monasteries. It dates from the 7th c.

Among the poetic works the most famous is "Beowulf", it was written by an unknown author and the dialect of the work cannot be defined definitely either.

Though the OE scribes took the Latin alphabet as the basis for their writing system, they found it insufficient for their needs. Thus they borrowed 2 letters from the runic alphabet: letter 'thorn' and letter 'wynn'.

The OE writing was mainly a phonetical writing, i.e. every symbol stood for a certain sound, while nowadays, the English writing and phonetical systems have many disparities. So it is clear, that in the course of history the English writing underwent considerable changes which resulted in the present-day writing.

UNIT 3. THE OLD ENGLISH PHONETIC SYSTEM

§ 1. Vowels

The system of OE vowels consisted of 7 short single phonemes and 4 diphthongs.

Short vowels: *i, e, æ* (called a ligature), *a, o, u, y* (pronounced [ü]).

Long vowels: *ā, ǣ, ē, ī, ō, ū, ỹ*.

Short diphthongs: *ea, eo, ie, io*.

Long diphthongs: *ēa, ēo, īe, īo* (that is in most cases a variant of *ēo*). The Old English diphthongs are generally falling, that means that the stress decreases to the end and falls mostly on the first element of the diphthong.

In the course of the language evolution in OE period the vowel system underwent numerous changes; as the result, there appeared new phonemes and their variants.

The most important processes that influenced the vocalic system are given below.

1) OE Fracture or Breaking (преломление гласных). Old English fracture is diphthongization of Early OE short vowels *a(æ)* and *e* before certain consonant clusters.

Thus *a* before the cluster «*r* + consonant», «*l* + consonant», «*h* + consonant», and before *h-final* turns into the diphthong *ea*: e.g. Gothic *kalds* > OE *ceald* (cold); O.Icel. *armr* > OE *earm* (arm); OHG *nah* > OE *neah* (near); etc.

The short *e* turns into *eo* before the clusters «*r* + consonant», «*lc, lh, h* + consonant» and *h-final*: e.g. OHG *erda* > OE *eorþe* (earth); *selh .> seolh* (seal).

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The phonetic essence of fracture is that the front vowel is partially assimilated to the following hard consonant by forming a glide, which combines with the vowel to form a diphthong.

Fracture is most consistently carried out in the West Saxon dialect. In other dialects, such as Mercian, fracture in many cases does not occur; then the vowel æ becomes a, and the resulting forms are *arm, kald,* etc.

2) Palatalization.

In Old English a glide was developed between initial palatal ȝ [j], *c* [k'] and the cluster *sc* [sk'] and the following palatal vowel. This glide, combined with the vowel, formed a rising diphthong, which later became a falling diphthong through the shifting of stress from the second to the first element of the diphthong. *C* and ȝ influenced only the front vowels, while *sc* influenced both front and back vowels.

e > ie   ȝ*eldan >* ȝ*ieldan* (pay)
æ > ea scæl > sceal   (shall)
a > ea scacan > sceacan (shake)
o > eo scort > sceort (short)

œ > ēa   ȝ*æfon >* ȝ*ēafon* (gave (pl.))

3) Mutation (Umlaut)

Mutation or umlaut is a change of vowel caused by partial assimilation to the following vowel.

The most important type of mutation is that caused by an i (or j) of the following syllable. Mutation brings about a complete change in vowel quality: one phoneme is replaced by another.

In OE i-mutation affects practically all vowels. The simple vowels and diphthongs, which underwent *i -umlaut* in OE, are: *a, æ, ā, o, ō, u, ū; ea, ēa, eo, ēo*.

The mechanism of mutation is clear enough. If we take, for example, the change *fullian > fyllan* 'to fill', the essence of the process is this. The vowel u is articulated by raising the back of the tongue and simultaneously rounding the lips; the sound i (j) requires raising the front of the tongue. When the speaker begins to articulate the u, he/she at the same time anticipates the articulation needed for i, and raises the front of the tongue instead of its back. The lip-rounding , meanwhile, is preserved. The result is the vowel y. Similar explanations can be given of the other cases of mutation.

E.g. *a > e   sandian > sendan* (to send)
            æ > e   tælian > tellan (to tell)
            ô > ê wôpian > wêpan (to weep)
            ea > ie earmiþu > iermþu (poverty)

Besides i-mutation there were also other types of mutation: back, or velar mutation (caused by a back vowel 'u', 'a', 'o' of the following syllable) and mutation before 'h'

4) Contraction. It is the fusion of two vowels into one in cases when the consonant between them had disappeared.

ah + vowel *> eah +* vowel *> ēa:*
            slahan > sleahan > slēan (slay);

eh + vowel, *ih* + vowel > *ēo:*

        sehan > seohan > sēon (see);

h + vowel > *ō:*

        fohan > fōn (catch).

§ 2. Consonants

The OE consonant system consisted of the following sounds: labial – *p, b, m, f, v;* dental – *t, d, þ, ð, n, s, r, l;* velar – *c, ȝ, h.* The letter *x* was used instead of the group *cs.* Some consonant letters denoted different sounds in different positions (*ȝ* = [g] or [γ] or [j]). Instead of doubled *ȝ, cȝ* was written as in *secȝan.*

Unlike vowels, English consonants were more stable in the course of the language development. However, there were certain changes affecting consonants.

Metathesis, or interchange of position between two sounds in a word. When one of the sounds undergoing metathesis is a vowel, the consonant is usually *r : rinnan > irnan* (run), *gærs > græs* (grass).

Another consonant change was voicing of the fricatives *f, s, þ* to *v, z, ð* between voiced sounds: *wefan – weave*, *cēosan – choose*, *oþer – other*.

All single consonants except *r* were doubled after a short vowel before a following [j]:

  Gt. *habjan* > OE *hebban* (heave);

  Gt. *taljan* > OE *tellan* (tell);

The consonant *c* before a front vowel was usually palatalized and approached the affricate [tʃ] – *cild* (child). The group *sc* before a front vowel was also palatalized and approached [ʃ] – *scip* (ship).

n disappeared before the fricatives *h, f, s, þ* with the lengthening of the preceding vowel:

        G. *fünf* > OE *fīf.*

f) the cluster *fn* often becomes *mn* : *stefn > stemn* (voice);

g) any velar consonant + *t* > *ht* : *sōcte > sōhte* (sought);

h) any labial consonant + *t* > *ft* : *ȝesceapt > ȝesceaft* (creature);

i) any dental consonant + *t* > *ss* : *witte > wisse* (knew).

UNIT 4. THE OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY

§ 1. Native words

The full extent of the OE vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars. A large part of the Old English vocabulary may not have been recorded at all or have been lost. It is supposed that Old English had about 30.000 words, but this figure does not represent the total number of words in the Old English language.

The OE vocabulary is mainly homogeneous, that is, it consists mostly of native words, loan-words being an insignificant part of the vocabulary.

Native OE words can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers coming from different historical periods. The three main layers in the native OE words are: 1) common Indo-European words, 2) common Germanic words, 3) specifically OE words.

1) Common Indo-European Words. This is the oldest and biggest part of the Old English vocabulary. The words of this layer refer to different semantic spheres and denote the most important notions and things of every day life.

E.g. *brōþor* (brother), sweostor (sister), *heorte* (heart), *sittan* (sit), *twā* (two), etan (eat), etc.

2) Common Germanic words. This is a large layer as well. The words of this group go back to the Common Germanic Period when the ancient Germanic tribes had broken away from other Indo-European tribes and formed an independent linguistic group. They also denote the most important objects and notions referring to the sea, nature, everyday life, colours, measures, parts of human body, etc.

E.g. *hand*, *dēop (*deep), *sinʒan* (sing), *hūs* (house), *andswarian* (answer), *finʒer* (finger), etc.

3) Specifically OE words. They do not occur in any other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. This group is very small and for the most part includes compounds.

E.g. wimman 'woman' (wīf 'жена' + man 'человек')

    brid 'bird'

    scīr-ʒe-rēfa 'sheriff' ('chief of the shire')

§ 2. Borrowings

Borrowings made a very small portion of the Old English word-stock. They came from 2 sources – from the Latin and Celtic languages. Some words taken over from Latin had been borrowed by Latin from Greek.

The majority of loans were adopted into the Old English language through personal intercourse, due to the close contacts of the peoples speaking different languages. Some of them entered the language through writing. Most loan-words became widely used shortly after their adoption since they denoted things of everyday life or other important notions: therefore they were relatively quickly assimilated by the language.

a) Latin borrowings in the Old English period can be traditionally classified into 2 layers (though some scholars distinguish 3 layers):

First layer. Here belong, names of objects of material culture, names of articles connected with trade and agriculture, measures.

E.g. OE wīn (L. vinum) > MnE wine

    L. millia passum 'тысяча шагов' > Mn.E. mile

    OE plante (L. planta) > MnE plant

    OE pipor (L. piper) > MnE pepper

    OE cuppe (L. cuppa) > MnE cup

During their stay in Britain Romans built good paved roads whose name 'strāta via' ('paved road') was later borrowed by the Anglo-Saxons from the Celts. Initially, the OE word 'strǣt' meant 'road'. Since along the roads in the course of time there

appeared settlements this word later acquired its modern meaning 'street'. There are also several other words borrowed from Latin which deal with the names of Roman settlement and defensive works left by the Romans during their occupation of Britain.

E.g. L. vallum >OE weall > MnE wall

L. castra (a military camp) > OE ceaster > MnE –caster, -chester (Lancaster, Manchester)

L. portus 'port' has been preserved in such place names as Bridport, Portsmouth

Second layer. The second layer consists of words which directly or indirectly belong to the sphere of religion or church.

When Christianity was introduced in England (in the 6th and 7th c. AD), the Latin language came to be used as language of the church. It was natural that numerous Latin words (about 500) connected with religion and learning were adopted into OE (many of these words were of Greek origin). E.g. L. *antíphōna* – OE *antefn* (anthem), L. *episcopus* – OE *biscop* (bishop), L. *clēricus* – OE *cleric* (clerk), L. *schola* – OE *scōl* (school), L. *magister* – OE *maʒister* (master), L. *diabolus* – OE *deofol* (devil), L. *candela* – OE *candel* (candle).

Under Latin influence some native English words acquired new meanings: thus, the substantive *ēastron*, which originally denoted a heathen spring holiday, acquired the meaning 'Easter'. Some new terms were created on the pattern of Latin words, e.g. *ʒōdspell* 'gospel' (literally 'good news'). Latin influence is also seen in the so-called "translation loan-words", i.e. new words made of the material of the native language on the pattern of the source words. E.g. the names of the days of the week: L. *Lunae dies* (the day of the Moon) – OE *Mōnandæʒ* (Monday), L. *Mercuri dies* (the day of Mercurius) – OE *Wōdnesdæʒ* (Wednesday) – *Wōden* was a Teutonic god corresponding to Mercurius, L. *Solīs dies* – *OE Sunnandæʒ* (Sunday), etc.

b) There are very few Celtic loan-words in the OE vocabulary, for there must have been little intermixture between the Germanic settlers and the Celts in Britain. Though in some parts of the island the Celtic population was not exterminated during the West Germanic invasion, linguistic evidence of Celtic influence is scarce. Obviously there was little that the newcomers could learn from the subjugated Celts. Abundant borrowing from Celtic is to be found only in place-names. The names *Kent, York, Downs* (Celtic *dūn* meant 'hill') and even *London* have been traced to Celtic sources. Many English names of rivers and mountains are also of the Celtic origin: *Avon, Thames, Dover*, etc.

In the Scottish dialects there was preserved the Celtic word *loch* 'lake', which became an element of many lake-names in Scotland.

Some elements occurring often in Celtic place-names can help to identify them: *-comb* 'deep valley' in *Batcombe, Duncombe; -torr* 'high rock' in *Torcross*, etc.

Outside of place-names Celtic borrowings in OE were few: no more than a dozen. Among such loan-words we may mention OE *cradol* (MnE *cradle*), *bratt* (MnE *cloak*), *dūn* (MnE *hill*).

On the whole, the percentage of loan-words in OE was very insignificant, as compared with later periods.

UNIT 5. THE OLD ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

§ 1. The verb

The OE verb was characterized by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a very complicated structure: verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form-building means

In Old English the agreement of the verb predicate with the subject was expressed by two grammatical categories: Number and Person. Besides, the finite forms of the verb had the specifically verbal categories of Mood and Tense.

Let's consider the finite forms of the Old English verb *macian* (make):

Tense	Number	Person	Mood		
			Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
Present	Singular	1st 2nd 3rd	*macie* *macast* *macað*	}*macie*	}*maca*
	Plural		*maciað*	*macian*	*maciað*
Past	Singular	1st 2nd 3rd	*macode* *macodes (t)* *macode*	}*macode*	
	Plural		*macodon*	*macoden*	

As it is seen from the table, the category of number was represented by two forms: singular and plural.

The category of Person was made up by the opposition of three forms: 1st, 2nd and 3rd Person; but they were consistently distinguished only in the Singular, Present Tense, Indicative Mood.

The category of Tense consisted of two forms: Present and Past; these forms are distinctly contrasted in two Moods. Both in the Indicative and in the Subjunctive Moods the Past Tense referred the action to the past without differentiating between prior and non-prior actions.

The Present Tense referred the action to any period of time except past: that is, to the present or future.

The category of Mood consisted of the Imperative, the Indicative and the Subjunctive Moods. The Old English Subjunctive must have expressed a very general meaning of presenting events as unreal or probable. Besides, it was often used in indirect speech to describe events of which the speaker was not absolutely certain.

E.g. *Hē sǣde ..., þæt þæt land sīe swīþe lanʒ ...* (Present Tense, Subj. Mood)

"He said… that that land is (literally, be) very long".

The existence in OE of two specifically verbal categories Aspect and Voice is debatable. Until recently it was believed that Old English verbs with the prefix ӡe - had a perfective meaning (i.e. denoted completed actions) while the same verbs without the prefix had an imperfective meaning. These forms were supposed to make up the grammatical category of Aspect. This idea is rejected now as the contrast doesn't appear to be regular enough. Frequently, the verb with the prefix ӡe- had a different lexical meaning: compare OE *beran* (to bear) and *ӡeberan* (to give birth to). On the other hand, a verb with ӡe - could sometimes denote a non-completed action, while the verb without the prefix could have a perfective meaning (e.g. *syððan Wiðerӡyld læӡ* 'since Withergild fell' – completed action, no prefix; *moniӡ oft ӡecwæð* 'many (people) often said' – non-completed action, prefix).So it is hardly possible to regard such forms as making up the grammatical category of Aspect.

In Old English new analytical forms with a passive meaning began to develop from free combinations. Combinations of the OE *bēon* (be) and *weorðan* (become) with participle II of transitive verbs were used to denote a state resulting from a completed action. During the Old English period these combinations acquired the features of analytical forms but only in Middle English they began to be contrasted to active forms as forms of the passive voice.

In the OE language, like in many other Old Germanic languages, verbs were divided into three morphological groups: strong, weak and preterite-present verbs. The division into strong and weak verbs was based on the way the verbs built their principal forms. Let's compare the principal forms of the Old English strong verb *helpan* (help) and the weak verb *macian* (make):

Present Tense /Infinitive		Past Tense	Participle II
Strong	*helpan*	*healp, hulpon*	*(ӡe) holpen*
Weak	*macian*	*macode*	*(ӡe) macod*

It is seen from the table that the strong verb *helpan* has a different root vowel in each of its 4 stems; besides, every form is characterized by a specific ending.

The weak verb *macian* does not change the root vowel; it adds the dental suffix -d- and endings.

Thus it follows that strong verbs in OE formed their principal forms by means of vowel gradation in the root. Etymologically, strong verbs are older than weak ones.

All strong verbs in their turn were divided into 7 classes according to the character of the root vowel gradation.

Class	Infinitive	Past tense, singular	Past tense, plural	Past Participle
1	wrītan 'писать'	wrāt	writon	written

2	cēōsan 'выбирать'	cēās	curon	coren
3	sinʒan 'петь'	sanʒ	sunʒon	sunʒen
4	niman 'брать'	nam	nōmon	numen
5	cweðan 'сказать'	cwæð	cwǣdon	cweden
6	faran 'ехать'	fōr	fōron	faren
7	hātan 'называть(ся)'	heht, hēt	hehton, hēton	hāten

The number of weak verbs in Old English was greater than that of strong verbs and was obviously growing.

Weak verbs built their principal forms by adding the dental suffix, *-d* or *-t*, to the Present Tense stem. All weak verbs were divided into 3 classes; the variant of the dental suffix and the ending added to build the principal forms of the weak verb depended on the class to which the verb belonged.

A peculiar place within the OE morphological system was taken by preterite-present verbs. Their present tense corresponds to the past of strong verbs, while their past is derived according to the past of weak verbs. Thus, in OE the present tense of the verb *witan* 'know' is *wāt* for the Singular and *witon* for the Plural, while its past is *wisse* or *wisste*.

In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Six of them survived in MnE: OE *āʒ; cunnan, cann; dear(r); sculan, sceal; maʒan, mæʒ; mōt* (MnE *owe, ought; can; dare; shall; may; must*). Most of the preterite-presents did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive which followed the preterite-present. In other words, they were used like modal verbs, and eventually developed into modern modal verbs. (In OE some of them could also be used as notional verbs).

In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. In many respects they were closer to the nouns and adjectives than to the finite verb; their nominal features were far more obvious than their verbal features, especially at the morphological level.

The Infinitive had no verbal grammatical categories. Being a verbal noun by origin, it had a sort of reduced case-system: two forms which roughly corresponded to the Nominative and Dative cases of nouns.

The Participle was a kind of verbal adjective which was characterized not only by nominal but also by certain verbal features.

Participle I was formed from the Present tense stem (the Infinitive without the endings *–an, -ian*) with the help of the suffix *–ende*. Participle II had a stem of its own – in strong verbs it was marked by a certain grade of the root-vowel interchange and by the suffix *–en;* with weak verbs it ended in *–d/-t*. Participle II was commonly

marked by the prefix ӡe-, though it also could occur without it, especially if the verb had other word-building prefixes, e.g.:

Infinitive	Participle I	Participle II	
bindan	bindende	ӡe-bunden	NE bind
ā-drencan	ā-drencende	ā-drenced	NE drown

§ 2. The Noun

The noun in Old English had the categories of Number, Case and Gender.

The category of number consisted of two members, singular and plural.

The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative.

The category of gender was represented by three distinct groups of nouns: Masculine, Feminine and Neuter. The difference between them was grammatical rather than semantic: nouns indicating males were generally Masculine, and those indicating females – Feminine. E.g.:

Masculine	Feminine
OE *widuwa* (widower)	OE *widowe* (widow)
OE *fæder* (father)	OE *mōdor* (mother)
OE *brōþor* (brother)	OE *swēostor* (sister)

But the Gender of Old English nouns did not always depend upon sex: *mæӡden* (maiden), *wīf* (wife), *cild* (child), instead of being Feminine, or Masculine, were Neuter.

Nouns indicating inanimate things were not always necessarily Neuter: *stæn* (stone), *fōt* (foot), *mōna* (moon) are Masculine, but *hand* (hand), *dæd* (deed), *sunne* (sun) are Feminine.

Compound nouns followed the gender of their second element: *wīfman* (woman), formed from *wīf* (Neuter) + *mann* (Masculine) was also Masculine. In later OE one can see some attempts to adjust the Gender of nouns to their semantics: *wimman* began to be treated as Feminine instead of Masculine.

The most peculiar feature of Old English nouns was their division into several types of declension, known as "stems".

The names *a-stems, o-stems*, etc, have purely historical significance and merely point to the origin of the different paradigms, as the stem-suffixes cannot be distinguished in the nouns of written Old English.

The division of nouns into declensions was as follows: a) *strong declension* - the declension of nouns with vocalic stems comprising *a-stems, ō-stems, u-stems* and *i-stems*, with some variants within the two former groups (*ja-* and *wa-stems, jō-* and *wō-stems*); b) *weak declension* – the nouns whose stems originally ended in consonants and including such stems as: *n-stems,r-stems, nd-stems*; c) *root-stems* – the declension of nouns which never had any stem-suffix and whose root was, thus, equal to the stem.

The division into stems did not coincide with the division into genders: some stems were confined to one or two genders only: thus *a-stems* were only Masculine and Neuter, *ō-stems* were always Feminine, others included nouns of any gender.

Every declension was characterized by a specific set of case-endings. Within the declension there was further differentiation between the endings of different genders, so that the system of noun declensions in Old English comprised all over twenty paradigms. However, the relative importance of the declensions in the language was not the same, as some of the declensions were represented by large numbers of nouns, whereas others were confined to several words.

The majority of Old English nouns belonged to the *a-stems*, *ō-stems* and *n-stems*. Nouns of other stems were far less frequent. Of special significance are the paradigms of *a-stems*, *n-stems* and *root-stems* whose traces are found in Modern English.

We may conclude that the system of declensions in Old English in many respects lacked consistency and precision. Numerous homonymous forms occurred systematically or sporadically in all the paradigms.

§ 3. The adjective

Forms of OE adjective express the categories of gender (masculine, feminine, and neuter), number (singular and plural), and case (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, and, partly, instrumental.

Every adjective can be declined according to the strong and to the weak declension.

The strong declension of adjectives differs to some extent from that of the nouns: some case forms of adjectives correspond to those of the pronouns. So, on the whole, the strong declension of adjectives is a combination of nominal and pronominal forms. E.g.:

Singular

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Nom.	ʒōd 'good'	ʒōd	ʒōd
Gen.	ʒōdes	ʒōdes	ʒōdre
Dat.	ʒōdum	ʒōdum	ʒōdre
Acc.	ʒōdne	ʒōd	ʒōd
Instr.	ʒōde	ʒōde	---

Plural

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Nom.	ʒōde	ʒōd	ʒōda
Gen.	ʒōdra	ʒōdra	ʒōdra
Dat.	ʒōde	ʒōd	ʒōda
Acc.	ʒōde	ʒōd	ʒōda

The weak declension of adjectives does not differ from that of nouns, except in the genitive plural of all genders, which often takes the ending '-ra', taken over from the strong declension.

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	
Nom.	blaca 'black'	blace	blace	blacan
Gen.	blacan	blacan	blacan	blæcra (blacena)
Dat.	blacan	blacan	blacan	blacum
Acc.	blacan	blacan	blacan	blacan

Like adjectives in other languages, most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The regular means used to form the comparative and the superlative from the positive were the suffixes *–ra* and *–est/ost.* Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel.

The comparatives were declined as strong adjectives; the superlatives rarely took the forms of the strong declension and mostly followed the weak declension.

blæc 'black'	blæcra	blæcost
earm 'poor'	earmra	earmost
stronȝ 'strong'	strenȝra	strenȝest

Several adjectives had suppletive forms of comparative and superlative:

ȝōd 'good'	betera	betst
yfel 'bad'	wiersa	wierest
micel 'large'	māra	mæst
lȳtel 'little'	læssa	læst

UNIT 6. THE SCANDINAVIAN CONQUEST AND ITS INFLUENCE ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

§ 1. The historical background

The Scandinavian conquest of England was a great military and political event, which also influenced the English language. Though the Scandinavian invasions of England are dated in the OE period, their effect on the language is particularly apparent in ME.

Scandinavian inroads into England had begun as early as the 8th century. At first Scandinavians appeared at about 787, but then they only visited England for short periods merely to plunder and return to their homeland. Their homes were in the lowlands of Denmark, in Sweden, and along the coast of Norway. All were of the same stock – Danes (also known as North, or Norse men; Vikings, or men of the creeks).

But before 855 the Danes only came to England in summer, and for winter they returned home, to the North. Only in 855 they remained on the island for winter and wanted to settle for living there. The reason of their decision to make here their homes was because strong kings in the North left no room for independent chiefs.

The Danes conquered Mercia and East Anglia, and after that they attacked Wessex.

In the midst of all this, by the end of the ninth century, there uprose one of the noblest English kings, Alfred the Great. He offered the invaders a stubborn resistance. In 878 King Alfred made peace with the invaders (the so-called Wedmore peace). As a result of that England was divided by a line formed by the river Thames: the country north of this line was given over to the Danes and called the Danelaw (Danelaʒ); the territory to the south fell to Alfred, who became the recognized champion of the English against the Danes.

In the late 10th century war was resumed, and in 1016 England became part of a vast Scandinavian Empire in Northern Europe under the Danish king Knut (or Canute). Scandinvian power in England lasted until 1042, when it was overthrown, and the power of the English nobility was restored under king Edward the Confessor.

§ 2. Scandinavian influence on the English language

The Scandinavian Conquest had a great effect on the English language.

The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders belonged to the North Germanic languages and their phonetic and grammatical structures were similar to those of Old English. Close relationship between English and Scandinavian dialects made mutual understanding without translation quite possible.

Due to the contacts and mixture with Scandinavian, the Old English language acquired numerous Scandinavian features. The result was a blending of Scandinavian and English dialects, especially in the North and East. Scandinavian influence was felt both in vocabulary and morphology.

Scandinavian borrowings cannot be referred to any definite semantic groups though all of them denote things used in every-day life. Among Scandinavian borrowings we find such Modern English words as *fellow, husband, wrong, to call, to take* (Sc. feolaʒa, husbonda, wrang, kalla, taka), etc.

Even the 3rd person plural pronoun was taken over from Scandinavian into English. The Scandinavian pronoun *þeir* penetrated into English and, superseding the OE pronoun *hīe* became ME *they*. In a similar way there appeared pronouns *their* and *them*.

Scandinavian elements became part of many geographical names, e.g. *–by* 'village' in *Kirkby, Appleby, Whitby, Derby; -toft* 'grassy spot', 'hill' in *Langtoft; -thorp* 'village' in *Woodthorp.*

The similarity of Old English and the language of the invaders makes it at times difficult to define a given word as a native one or borrowing. In certain cases, however, there are reliable criteria for recognizing a borrowed word, the principal ones are as follows:

a) the development of the sound combination [*sk*];

In Old English it was palatalized to "*sh*" [ʃ] (written "*sc*"), while in the Scandinavian countries it retained its hard *sk*-sound. Consequently while native words like *ship, fish, shine, shield,* etc., have "*sh*" [ʃ] in Modern English, words borrowed from Scandinavians are generally still pronounced with [*sk*]: *sky, skin, skill, scrape, whisk.* Old English *scyrte* has become "*shirt*", while the sounding alike Old Norse form *skyrta* turned into *skirt.*

b) in the same way the retention of the hard pronunciation of "*k*" and "*g*" in such words as *kid, dike, get, give, gild, egg,* is an indication of Scandinavian origin.

In the word "*gift*" not only the initial sound is due to Scandinavian, but also the modern meaning. The Old English word "*gift*" meant "*the price of a wife*", and, hence, in the Plural it meant "*marriage*", while the Scandinavian word had the more general sense of "*present*".

In some words the old native form has survived, but has adopted the Scandinavian meaning of the corresponding word. Thus "*dream*" in Old English meant "*joy*", but in Middle English the modern meaning of dream was taken over from the Scandinavian "*draumr*".

Eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed into local population both ethnically and linguistically. They merged with the society around them, but the impact on the linguistic situation and on the further development of the English language was quite profound.

UNIT 7. THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND ITS EFFECT ON THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION

§ 1. The historical background

The *Normans,* or 'Northmen', were descended from Vikings who had settled in northern France (Normandy) during the 9th century. They were swiftly assimilated by the French and in the 11th c. came to Britain as French speakers and bearers of French culture. They spoke the Northern dialect of French, which differed in some points from Central, Parisian French.

In 1066 (this year in the history of the English language is often regarded as the opening of the Middle English period) King Edward the Confessor of England died and was succeeded by Harold, Earl of Wessex. However there were two other claimants to the throne: William, Duke of Normandy and Harold Hardrada of Norway. Both invaded Britain: Harold the north, but was defeated, and William – three days later – invaded in the south with the best cavalry in Europe. *The Battle of Hastings* was one of the most decisive battles in English history, and it brought victory to William who became the English king – William I (1066-1087), known as 'William the Conqueror'.

In the course of a few years, putting down revolts in various parts of the country, the Normans became masters of England. William also controlled most of Wales

despite uprisings by the Welsh princes, but he failed to make the Scottish king accept him as his overlord though he had made raids on Scotland too.

The Normans introduced a new social system into England which is known as feudalism. William I organized a strong central government in which Normans held most positions of power. All posts in the church, from abbots upwards, were also given to persons of French culture. Frenchmen arrived in England in great numbers. Among them were merchants, soldiers, teachers, seeking for a new field of activity. During the reign of William the Conqueror about 200 000 Frenchmen settled in England. This influx lasted for about two centuries.

The ruling class of Anglo-Saxon nobility vanished almost completely: some of them perished in battles and uprisings, others were executed, the remainder emigrated.

During several centuries the ruling language in England was French. It was the language of the court, the government, the courts of law, and the church; the English language was reduced to a lower social sphere: the main mass of peasantry and townspeople. The relation between French and English was, thus, different from that between Scandinavian and English: French was the language of the ruling class.

§ 2. The effect of the Norman Conquest on the linguistic situation
A) *Changes in the alphabet and spelling*

During several centuries after the Norman Conquest the business of writing was in the hands of French scribes. They introduced into English some peculiarities of French graphic habits. Traces of French traditions in writing have stayed on in English to the present day.

First of all, there were certain changes in the alphabet. Several letters typical of OE gradually came out of use, and some new ones were introduced. The alphabet of the 14th century is basically the same that is in use in our days.

The most significant changes affecting the English spelling system of that period are as follows:

1. The letter ȝ , which was used in OE to denote several distinct consonant phonemes, is gradually replaced by the letters *g* and *y*. Thus, OE ȝ ōd turned into ME *gōd,* and the OE ȝ ēar into ME *yēr* (MnE 'good', 'year').

2. The ligature æ also comes into disuse in ME and appears in the form of *a* and in some dialects in the form of *e*.

3. The phoneme [θ-ð], which had never existed in French, was denoted by the rare in OE digraph *th: thick, that*.

4. For denoting the hard consonant [χ] (like Russian [x] in the word "*хочу*") and the palatalized one [χ'] like in the word "*хилый*") the digraph *gh* was used (ME *thought, night*).

5. For denoting dental fricatives, which had not been of great importance in OE, the following French symbols were used:

sh and *sch* for [ʃ]: *ship, waschen*;

ch and *tch* for [tʃ]: *child, fetch;*

dg and *j* for [dʒ]: *bridge, John.*

6.   The letter *c* sounded as [k] in OE. In French it was read as [k] only before the back vowels. According to the rules introduced by the clerks the letter *c* began to be read as [k] only before the back vowels (*cat, cold*), and as [s] before the front vowels (*city, cell*). In English words containing [k] before the front vowels letter *k* was used (*king, Kent*).

7.   Such letters as *v, z, q* (always accompanied by *u*) also appeared in the English language due to the French scribes.

8.   The sound [u:] which was represented by the letter *u* in OE, came to be spelled *ou*, the way it was spelled in French. In final position, and occasionally in medial position as well, instead of *ou* the spelling *ow* was introduced. E.g. OE *hūs>* ME *hous*; OE *hū* > ME *how;* OE *dūn* > ME *down.*

9.   The vowel [u] is often represented by the letter *o*. This spelling is probably due to graphic considerations. The letter *o* denoting [u] is found mainly in the neighborhood of such letters as *u (v), n, m,* that is, letters, consisting of vertical strokes. A long series of vertical strokes might be confusing: E.g. it might be hard to distinguish between the letters in the words *cume, luve* ('come', 'love')

10.   The letter *y* which in OE was used to denote the sound [ü] came to be used to denote [i] and was later often replaced by the letter *i.*

Besides these features, due to French influence, ME spelling has some more peculiarities, which have partly been preserved down to the present day.

It became a habit in ME to replace the final *–i* by *–y.* The motive was purely graphic: *y* is more ornamental. That's why in MnE we have only a few words ending in *i.*

Similarly, the letter *u* when final was replaced by *w*, which was more ornamental.

On the whole ME spelling is far from being uniform. Purely phonetic spellings mix with French spelling habits and also with traditions inherited from OE. Besides, there are differences between dialects in this respect, too.

B) *Changes affecting the vocabulary*

Penetration of French words into English did not start immediately after the Norman Conquest. It only started in the 12th century, and reached its climax in the 13th and 14th.

The words borrowed from French at that period can be divided into several semantic groups:

a) words connected with the life of the royal court: *court, servant, guard, prince;* but the words *king* and *queen* remained English;

b) words connected with war and army: *army, regiment, battle, banner, victory, soldier*; but the word *knight* is of the English origin;

c) words connected with church: *religion, chapel, prayer, confess, saint*;

d) words connected with the organization of the state: *vassal, govern, government, serf, village;*

e) justice: *judge, verdict, sentence*;

f) city life and organization: *city, merchant, butcher, painter, tailor;*

g) art notions: *art, colour, figure, image, ornament, column.*

h) amusements*: pleasure, leisure, dinner, supper, roast*.

Many other words were also taken over, which were not connected with any specific semantic sphere, such as: *air, place, river, large, change*, etc.

The usage of the names of domestic animals and their meat depended on the place where it was pronounced. In the village they were *an ox, a cow, a sheep, a pig, a swine, a calf, etc*. But when their meat was served to the table of a Norman lord, words of French origin were used: *beef, mutton, pork, veal, etc*.

Another type of differentiation may be found in some pairs of synonyms: e.g. *to begin – to commence* (ME 'beginnen' – 'commencen'). The native word 'to begin' has stayed on as a colloquial word, while the French 'to commence' is an official term and is mainly used in documents or in literature (compare also 'work' – 'labour', 'life' – 'existence')

French words could co-exist with their English equivalents though their meaning was somewhat different. Compare: *autumn* (Fr.) and *harvest* (meant "autumn" in Old English).

Sometimes the borrowed word ousted the native one: *army* (Fr.) – *here* (OE).

Some words extinct from the literary language still remain in several dialects.

UNIT 8. MIDDLE ENGLISH DIALECTS AND WRITING

§ 1. Middle English dialects

The most immediate consequence of the Norman dominion in Britain, as it was said earlier (unit 9) was the wide use of the French language in many spheres of life. It was the language of the nobles and higher clergy. The intellectual life, literature and education were in the hands of French-speaking people; French alongside Latin became the language of writing.

But for all that, the bulk of the indigenous population never stopped speaking English. The principal OE dialects were still spoken in the ME period and their boundaries practically remained the same. As the kingdoms which had given the names for the corresponding OE dialects (Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria and Kent) existed no longer, the dialects of ME were given new names according to their geographical position. So the dialect called before Northumbrian grew into *Northern* dialect, Mercian grew into *Midland*, Wessex into *Southern* or *South-Western*. Only *Kentish* dialect preserved its name, as county Kent still existed (however, this dialect is sometimes also called *South-Eastern*). One of the most important moments, which is not noticeable in OE (perhaps because of the scantity of Mercian written records), is the division of Midland dialect into East Midland and West Midland dialects.

This dialect division evolved in early ME, but it was almost fully preserved in later periods, only in Late ME Wessex and Kentish were united under one name – the *Southern* dialect. Some scholars also distinguish the *Scottish* dialect, though, generally this dialect together with Northumbrian is called *Northern.* Late ME was

also remarkable for the rise of the London dialect as the prevailing written form of language. The dialect of London combined East Midland and Southern features.

§ 2. Middle English writing

After undergoing numerous innovations introduced by the French scribes (most of the changes were described in unit 9) ME spelling system differed greatly from that of the OE period. On the whole, ME spelling is far from being uniform. Purely phonetic spellings mix with French spelling habits and also with traditions inherited from OE. So very often ME is characterized as 'chaotic'. This attribution 'chaotic' arises also from the varieties of the dialects and the absence of a standard dialect with standardized spelling.

Despite the fact that the main language of writing in ME was French, written records have been preserved in all ME dialects. As literary works they are not of great interest, but they are of greatest linguistic consequence. Mainly they are sermons or religious poems.

One of the most well-known records in East Midland is "Ormulum". About 1200 Orm, a monk, compiled a digest of biblical and ecclesiastical lore, which he called "Ormulum". He must have invented his own system of spelling, which he considered the only right one.

"Ormulum" consists of unrhymed metrical paraphrases of the Gospels. The text is rich in Scandinavianisms and lacks French borrowings. Its most outstanding feature is the spelling system devised by the author. He doubled the consonants after short vowels in closed syllables and used special semicircular marks over short vowels in open syllables.

Among written records in the West Midland dialect we should mention such works as "William of Palerne" (romance, early 13th c) and "Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight", poems written in alliterative verse by unknown authors.

There were preserved many samples of the records written in the South-Western (Southern) and Northern dialect.

Among records written in the so-called Scottish dialect we may mention "Bruce" as one of the most outstanding. "Bruce" was written by John Barbour between 1373 and 1378; it is a national epic which describes the real history of Robert Bruce, a hero and military chief who defeated the army of Edward II at Bannockburn in 1314 and secured the independence of Scotland.

Written records of ME give us an opportunity to see that writing in ME continued to be phonetical, as it had been in OE, and to have many dialectal variations. However in Late ME the rise of the London dialect somewhat standardized the ME writing.

UNIT 9. MIDDLE ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

§ 1. The noun

In ME noun morphology was considerably simplified. The OE system of declensions gradually passed out of use. It is explained mainly by weakening of inflections due to the process of leveling of unstressed endings: too many forms were homonymous which made using case endings useless. Thus, after several centuries of reduction, only 2 cases were left: Nominative and Genitive (formed by means of the suffix –es).

OE division into genders, being mainly a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared as well. Now gender was semantically associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.

The category of Number proved to be the most stable of all. In Late ME the ending *–es* was the prevalent marker of nouns in the plural. The ME plural ending *–en*, used as a variant marker (especially in the weak declension in the Southern dialects) lost its productivity, so in Standard MnE it is found only in *oxen, brethren,* and *children*.

The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number (ME *deer, hors, thing*) has been further reduced to few exceptions in MnE: *deer, sheep, swine*. The group of former root-stems has survived only as exceptions: *man, tooth*, etc.

It should be noted, however, that not all irregular forms in MnE are traces of OE declensions: some forms have come from other languages together with the borrowed words.

§ 2. The adjective

In the course of the ME period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the degrees of comparison.

In OE the adjective was declined to show gender, case and number of the noun it modified; it had a five-case paradigm and two types of declension, weak and strong.

By the end of the OE period the agreement of the adjective with the noun had become looser and in the course of Early ME it was practically lost. Though the grammatical categories of the adjective reflected those of the noun, most of them disappeared even before the noun lost the respective distinctions.

The degrees of comparison is the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all historical periods. However, the endings used to build up the forms of the degrees of comparison have considerably altered.

In OE the forms of the comparative and the superlative degrees were built by adding the suffixes *–ra* and *–est/-ost,* to the form of the positive degree. Sometimes affixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel; a few adjectives had suppletive forms.

In ME the degrees of comparison could be built in the same way, only the suffixes had been weakened to *–er, -est* and the interchange of the root-vowel was less common than before.

The most important innovation in the adjective system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison.

The new system of comparisons emerged in ME, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the OE adverbs *mā, bet, betst, swīþor* – 'more', 'better', 'to a greater degree' with adjectives and participles. It is remarkable that in ME, when the phrases with ME *more* and *most* became more and more common, they were used with all kinds of adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words.

§ 3. The verb

Unlike the morphology of the noun and adjective, which has become much simpler in the course of history, the morphology of the verb displayed two distinct tendencies of development: it underwent considerable simplifying changes which affected the synthetic forms and became far more complicated owing to the growth of new, analytical forms and new grammatical categories.

All types of verbs existing in OE – strong, weak preterite-present – were preserved in ME. However, due to certain linguistic factors a number of OE strong verbs weakened in ME and vice versa: some of the weak verbs became strong. In each of these verb types we find numerous changes.

The OE prefix *ʒe-* was reduced to *y-*. This prefix is mostly found in the second participle in the Southern dialects. In most dialects, however, the prefix has disappeared by the 14th c.

Conjugation underwent considerable changes in the ME period.

As a result of leveling of unstressed vowels the difference between the endings –*an, -on, -en* was lost, which had played a prominent part in OE.

The final *–n*, which characterized many verb forms, was lost. It proved to be stable only in some second participles, where it has been preserved down to MnE period. Furthermore, differences between the 2nd and 3rd persons singular present indicative and the other present tense forms, due to mutation, disappear in ME.

Perfect forms, which arose in OE, are widely used in ME. In Chaucer's works, for example, there are many sentences with the Present Perfect and the Past Perfect.

In ME appeared first instances of a continuous aspect, consisting of the verb *be(n)* and the first participle. They were very rare. Thus, in Chaucer's works only six examples of such forms have been found. Here is one of them: *syngynge he was, or floytinge, al the day* 'he was singing, or playing the flute, all day long'.

Perfect Continuous forms are quite rare in ME.

A special future form which started in late OE, becomes in ME a regular part of the tense system; Chaucer uses this future form in many cases. The auxiliaries *shal* and *wil* are usually deprived of their original modal meaning, but occasionally, they may still have a modal tinge (traces of this are seen in the modal meaning of MnE auxiliaries *shall, will*).

The passive voice was very widely developed in ME. As the OE verb *weorþan* disappeared the only auxiliary for the passive was the verb *bēn.*

The system of verbals (non-finite forms) of the verb also underwent considerable changes in ME. The system of verbals in OE consisted of the Infinitive and two Participles. The main trend of their evolution in ME is the loss of case distinctions in the infinitive and of forms of agreement in the Participles.

The Infinitive lost its inflected form (the so-called 'Dative case') in Early ME. OE *wrītan* and ME *tō wrītanne* appear in ME as *(to) written* and in MnE as *(to) write.* The preposition *tō,* which was placed in OE before the inflected infinitive to show direction or purpose, lost its prepositional force and changed into a formal sign of the Infinitive.

The form of Participle I in Early ME is of special interest, as it displayed considerable dialectal differences. The Southern and Midland forms were derived from the present tense stem with the help of *–ing(e),* while other dialects had forms in *–inde, -ende, -ande.* The first of these variants '-ing(e)' became the dominant form in the literary language. Participle I coincided with the verbal noun, which was formed in OE with the help of the suffixes *–ung* and *–ing, -ing,* but had preserved only one suffix, *-ing,* in ME. The fusion of the Participle with the verbal noun was an important factor of the growth of a new verbal, the Gerund, and played a certain role in the development of the Continuous forms.

§ 4. The article

In ME an indefinite article arose. As in many other languages, it had its origin in the numeral *ān* 'one'(in some dialects *ōn).* First signs of such development were already seen in OE. Then long ā in unstressed position was shortened, and there appeared an unstressed variant *an.* When *an* was followed by a word beginning with a consonant, the –n was dropped, and there arose the variant a.

As for the definite article, the traditional view was that the definite article appears in OE and continues its further development from the demonstrative pronoun in ME.

UNIT 10. MIDDLE ENGLISH PHONETICS

§ 1. Word stress

The sound system of the English language has undergone profound changes in the thousand years which have elapsed since the OE period. The changes affected the pronunciation of words, word accentuation, the systems of vowel and consonant phonemes

In OE stress usually fell on the first syllable of the word, rarely on its second syllable: the prefix or the root of the word were stressed while the suffixes and endings were unstressed.

This way of word accentuation was considerably altered in the succeeding periods. The word accent acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a

more important role in word derivation. These changes were connected with the phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan-words (namely French) adopted during the ME period. Probably, when these loans first entered the English language they retained their original stress – on the ultimate or pen-ultimate syllable. But this kind of stress could not be preserved for long and, gradually, as the loan-words were assimilated, the word stress was moved closer to the beginning of the word in line with the English system: e.g. vertu [ver´tju:] became NE virtue [ˈvə:tʃə]. This process is known as the "recessive" tendency.

In words of three or more syllables the shift of the stress could be caused by the recessive tendency and also by the "rhythmic" tendency, which required a regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. Under it, a secondary stress would arise at a distance of one syllable from the original stress. This new stress was either preserved as a secondary stress or else become the only or the principal stress of the word.

Sometimes the shifting of the word stress should be attributed not only to the phonetic tendencies but also to certain morphological factors. Thus stress was not shifted to the prefixes of many verbs borrowed or built in Late ME and in Early NE, which accords with the OE rule: to keep verb prefixes unstressed, e.g. the verb *pre'sent* . However, corresponding nouns sometimes received the stress on the first syllable: e.g. NE ´present n - pre´sent v; ´discord n - dis´cord v. The latter pairs of words show that the role of word accentuation has grown: word stress performs a phonological function as it distinguishes a verb from a noun.

§ 2. Vowels

In the ME period great changes affected the entire system of vowel phonemes.

One of the most remarkable peculiarities in OE phonetics was the fact that both short and long vowel phonemes could occur in any phonetic environment. As a result of important changes coming into the vowel system in the 10th – 12th c, the ME vowel system was basically different.

In Early ME the pronunciation of unstressed syllables became increasingly indistinct. As compared to OE, which distinguishes five short vowels in unstressed position ([e/i], [a] and [o/u]), Late ME had only two vowels in unaccented syllables: [ə] and [i], e.g. OE talu – ME tale [´ta:lə] – NE tale, OE bodiʒ – ME body [´bodi] – NE body.

The final [ə] disappeared in Late ME though it continued to be spelt as -*e*. When the ending –*e* survived only in spelling, it was understood as a means of showing the length of the vowel in the preceding syllable and was added to words which did not have this ending before, e.g. OE stān, rād – ME stone, rode [´stone], [´rode] – NE stone, rode.

Quantitative vowel changes in Early ME

In Late OE and in Early ME vowel length began to depend on phonetic conditions. The earliest of positional quantitative changes was the readjustment of quantity before some consonant clusters. Some of the changes are given below:

1) Short vowels were lengthened before two consonants – a sonorant and a plosive; consequently, all vowels occurring in this position remained or became long, e.g. OE wild [wild]– ME wild [wi:ld] – NE wild.

2) All other groups of two or more consonants produced the reverse effect: they made the preceding long vowels short, and henceforth all vowels in this position became or remained short, e.g. OE cēpte > ME kepte [ˈkeptə] – NE kept.

3) Short vowels became long in open syllables, e.g. OE nama > ME name [na:mə] – NE name.

Qualitative vowel changes

As compared with quantitative changes, qualitative vowel changes in ME were less important. They affected several monophthongs and displayed a considerable dialectal diversity. On the whole they were independent of phonetic environment.

1) The OE close labialized vowels [y] and [y:] disappeared in Early ME, merging with various sounds in different dialectal areas. In Early ME in some areas OE [y], [y:] developed into [e], [e:], in others they changed to [i], [i:]; in the South-West and in the West Midland the two vowels were for some time preserved as [y], [y:], but later were moved backward and merged with [u], [u:], e.g. OE fyllan – ME (Kentish) fellen, (West Midland and South Western) fullen, (East Midland and Northern) fillen – NE fill.

2) In Early ME the long OE [a:] was narrowed to [o:]. This was an early instance of the growing tendency of all long monophthongs to become closer, so [a:] became [o:] in all the dialects except the Northern group, e.g. OE stān – ME (Northern) stan(e), (other dialects) stoon, stone – NE stone.

3) The short OE [æ] was replaced in ME by the back vowel [a], e.g. OE þǣt > ME that [ðat] > NE that.

Development of new diphthongs

ME period is also remarkable for the appearance of new diphthongs which were five in number: [ai], [ei], [au], [ou], [eu].

Monophthongization of OE diphthongs

All OE diphthongs were monophthongized in ME.

ea > a (e.g. OE eald > ME ald > MnE old)

ēa > ē (e.g. OE ēast > ME est > MnE east)

eo > e (e.g. OE heorte > ME herte > MnE heart)

ēo > ē (e.g. OE cēosan > ME chesen > MnE choose)

§ 3. Consonants

English consonants were on the whole far more stable than vowels. A large number of consonants have probably remained unchanged through all historical periods. Thus we can assume that the sonorants [m, n, l], the plosives [p, b, t, d] and also [k, g] in most positions have not been subjected to any noticeable changes. They are found in many words descending from OE though their correlations in the system of phonemes have altered to a varying degree. The most important changes affecting the ME system of consonants are as follows:

1) OE palatal [k'] turned into the affricate [tʃ] in the beginning of words before front vowels; in medial position before 'i'; and in the final position after 'i'. E.g. OE cild > ME child > MnE child

OE cirice > ME chirche > MnE church

OE ic > ME ich > MnE I

OE [sk'] turned into [ʃ]

e.g. OE scip > ME ship > MnE ship

OE sceal > ME shal > MnE shall

2) OE [g'] turned into the affricate [dʒ]

e.g. OE brycʒ > ME bridge > MnE bridge

3) Words beginning with *hl-, hn-, hr-,* lose their initial *h*:

e.g. OE hlāford > ME lord > MnE lord

OE hnutu > ME nute > MnE nut

OE hrinʒ > ME ring > MnE ring

4) The verb *māken* (to make) in the forms of the past tense and Participle II lost its sound [k]: mākede – mākde – made, māked – mākd – mad.

UNIT 11. THE FORMATION OF THE NATIONAL LITERARY ENGLISH LANGUAGE

§ 1. England in early New English

The formation of the national literary English language covers the Early New English period (about 1475 – 1660). There were at least 2 major external factors which favoured the rise of the national language and the literary standards: the unification of the country and the progress of culture. Other historical events, such as increased foreign contacts, affected the language in a less general way, though their influence on the growth of the vocabulary is of no doubt.

The most significant event of the period was the Wars of the Roses (1455 – 1485), which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order. The political result of this prolonged struggle was the rise of absolute monarchy. This meant a high degree of political centralization and thus contributed to centralization in language as well, that is, to a predominance of the national language over local dialects.

The 15th and 16th c. saw other striking changes in the life of the country. Trade had extended beyond the local boundaries. Besides farming and cattle-breeding an important wool trade and industry was carried on in the country-side. As the demand for wool and cloth rose, Britain began to export woolen cloth produced by the 1st big enterprises, the "manufactures". The landowners evicted the peasants and enclosed their land with ditches and fences, turning it into vast pastures.

The new nobility, who traded in wool, fused with the rich townspeople to form a new class, the bourgeoisie, while the evicted farmers, the poor artisans and monastic

servants turned into farm labourers and wage workers or remained unemployed and joined the ranks of paupers, vagrants and highway robbers.

The changes in economic and social conditions were accompanied by the intermixture of people coming from different regions, the growth of towns with a mixed population, and the strengthening of social ties between the various regions. All these processes played an important role in the unification of the English language.

§ 2. Centralization of the country. Conditions for linguistic unity

Towards the end of the 15th century the period of feudal disunity in Britain came to an end. Britain became a centralized state.

After the end of the Hundred Years' War (1337 - 1453) the feudal lords and their hired armies came home from France, and life in Britain became more turbulent than ever. The baronial families at the king's court fought for power. It caused a civil war, known in history as the Wars of the Roses. It ended in 1485 with the establishment of a stronger royal power under Henry VII, the founder of the Tudor dynasty.

Henry VII reduced the power of the old nobility and created new nobles out of the bourgeoisie and middle class who ardently supported him. The royal power grew still stronger and the power of the church weaker. Then his successor, Henry VIII, broke with the Pope and declared himself head of the English Church (1534).

The Tudors encouraged the development of trade inside and outside the country. The great geographical discoveries gave a new impetus to the progress of foreign trade. English traders set forth on daring journeys in search of gold and treasures. Sea-pirates and slave-traders were patronized by Queen Elisabeth as readily as traders in wool. They made large contributions to her treasury. Under the later Tudors England became one of the biggest trade and sea powers. She ousted her rivals from many markets and became involved in the political struggle of the European countries for supremacy. Most complicated were her relations with France and Portugal. In 1588 England defeated the Spanish fleet, the Invincible Armada, and dealt a final blow to Spain, her main rival in overseas trade and colonial expansion. In the late 16th century England founded its first colonies abroad.

Thus the contacts of England with other nations – although not necessarily friendly – became closer, and new contacts were made in distant lands. These new ties could not but influence the development of the language.

All over the world the victory of capitalism over feudalism was linked up with the consolidation of people into nations and the unification of the regional dialects into a national language.

England needed a uniform standard language as well, because further linguistic disunity stood in the way of the country's progress. The making of the English nation went hand in hand with the formation of the National English Language.

§ 3. Progress of culture. Introduction of printing. Rise of the London dialect

The 15th and 16th c. in Western Europe are marked by a renewed interest in classical art, literature and science.

The universities at Oxford and Cambridge (founded in the 12th c.) became the centres of new humanistic learning. Henry VIII assembled at his court brilliant scholars and artists. Education stopped to be the privilege of the clergy; it spread to laymen and people of lower social ranks.

The main subject in schools still was Latin; the English language was labeled as 'a rude and barren tongue', fit only to serve as an instrument to teach Latin. Thus the influence of classical languages on English grew and was reflected in the enrichment of the vocabulary.

Of all the inventions of that age, the introduction of printing was the most outstanding.

Printing was invented in Germany by Johan Gutenberg in 1438. Later it spread to Strasburg, then to Italy and to the Netherlands. It was in Flanders, in the town of Bruges , that William Caxton became acquainted with the art of printing. Returning to England, he founded the 1st English printing office in London in 1476. The 1st book to be printed in England, namely, "The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers", appeared in 1477. The spread of printed books helped to make spelling more uniform. Individual spelling still appeared, but the establishment of spelling conventions was begun and the authority of printed word acted as a restraining influence.

As from the beginning London became the centre of book-publishing in England, Caxton used the current speech of Londoners in his numerous translations. The books that issued from his press and from the presses of his successors gave currency to London English. That fact assured more than anything else its rapid adoption by the population.

Towards the end of early NE, that is by the middle of the 17th c, one of the forms of the national literary language – its Written Standard - had probably been established. Its growth and recognition as the correct or 'prestige' form of the language of writing had been brought about by many factors: the economic and political unification of the country, the progress of culture and education, the flourishing of literature.

The writers of the period from 1300 to Chaucer did not use the same dialect. Each chose the one with which he was familiar with, whether Northern, or Midland, or Southern. It is only from the time of Chaucer and his successors that the language they used became the literary language of the whole England. Latin was still used, but far less commonly than in the preceding century. The result of this was that English began to displace Latin among scholars.

The elevation of London English to the position of the standard literary language did not prevent other dialects from surviving among the common people, and continuing in use to the present time. But modern English dialects are far less important from the literary standpoint.

UNIT 12. PHONETICS OF THE NEW ENGLISH PERIOD

§ 1. Vowels
 The two outstanding changes in the vowel system from Middle English to Modern English are:

the loss of many final vowels in unstressed syllables, especially the vowel *e*, and,

changes in the long vowels of stressed syllables, called the "*great vowel shift*".

a) The loss of final vowels may have begun in late Middle English, but the process was completed only in early Modern English. The various endings, all reduced to the neutral *e* in Middle English, have entirely disappeared in Middle English, though the *e* is often kept in spelling.

E.g.:

OE	ME	NE
Cēpan ['ke:pan]	*kēpe(n)* [′kə:pə]	*keep*
nama [′nama]	*nāme* [′na:mə]	*name* (e – silent)

b) The so-called "*great vowel shift*" consists in a series of changes, which affected the long vowels in Middle English and gradually transformed them into quite different sounds in Modern English. All the long vowels came to be pronounced with a greater elevation of the tongue and closing of the mouth, so that those that could be raised (*ā, ē,* open *ē, ō,* open *ō*) were raised, and those that could not, without becoming consonantal (*i, u*), became diphthongs. The effect of the shift can be seen in the following comparison of Chaucer's and Shakespeare's pronunciation:

Middle English	Chaucer	Shakespeare	Modern English
ā	[′na:me]	[ne:m]	*name*
open *ē*	[′kle:nə]	[kle:n]	*clean*
ē	[′me:de]	[mi:d]	*meed*
ī	[′fi:f]	[faiv]	*five*
open *ō*	[′go:tə]	[gɔ:t]	*goat*
ō	[′rɔ:tə]	[ru:t]	*root*
ū	[′du:n]	[′daun]	*down*

Thus:

[a:] > [ei]

[e:] > [e] > [i:]

[e:] > [i:]

[o:] > [ou]

[ɔ:] > [u:]

[u:] > [au]

The "*great vowel shift*" is the most revolutionary and far-reaching sound change during the history of the language and naturally took a long time to complete.

Another vowel change which affected a large group of words is syncope. Syncopy is the loss of a vowel within a word. This has taken place in different inflectional endings of large classes of words in English. E.g., the Possessive Singular and the Plural of nouns ended in *-es* in Middle English. The syncopation of -e in most words has since reduced this *-es* to -s, the common form of the Possessive Singular and of the Plural. Similar syncopation had taken place in the *-ed* ending of weak verbs, except those ending in *-t* or *-d*. In the *-en* participial ending of strong verbs the syncopation of *-e* has left only vocalic *-n,* and in *born, torn, thrown,* etc. *-e* has wholly disappeared from the written form.

§ 2. Consonants

Middle English *gh* [χ] at the end of a syllable became [f], but disappeared when followed by *-t* (cf. *rough, cough, laugh – brought, daughter*).

-l is no longer pronounced in normal speech before the labials *m, f, v* and before the back consonant *k*, as in *palm, calm, half, talk, folk.*

The loss of *b* after *m* is the principal survival of the tendency to eliminate final consonants once so widespread. *B* is no longer pronounced in *comb, lamb,* nor in inflected forms of these words before a vowel, such as *combing.*

The sound represented by *h* in the combination *-ht-* when preceded by original front vowels, as in *night, light,* etc., and when preceded by back vowels as in *daughter, brought,* etc., disappeared in the Southern dialect as early as the 15th century.

When *i* was preceded by a consonant and followed by a lightly stressed vowel, it became [j] at the beginning of the 17th century, and when the preceding consonant was *t* or *s,* the [j] combined with it to give [ʃ], as in *special, ambition, partial.* Similarly the group [zj] has given [ʒ] in such words as *pleasure, leisure.* The group [dj] became [dʒ], as in *soldier, verdure.*

Part 3
PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

UNIT 1. PHONETICS AS A SCIENCE

What do we mean by phonetics as a science? Phonetics is concerned with the human noises by which the thought is actualized or gives audible shape: the nature of these noises, their combinations, and their functions in relation to the meaning. Phonetics studies the sound system of the language, that is segmental phonemes, word stress, syllabic structure and intonation. To underline the importance of the sound medium of language H. Guason notes that to speak any language a person must know nearly all the 100 per cent of its phonetics, while only 50 per cent of its grammar and 1 per cent of the vocabulary may be sufficient. For example, by changing intonation structure of an utterance one changes meaning.

Human speech is the result of a highly complicated series of events. The formation of the concept takes place at a linguistic level, that is in the brain of the speaker. This stage may be called psychological. The message formed within the brain is transmitted along the nervous system to the speech organs. Therefore we may say that the human brain controls the behavior of the articulating organs which effects in producing a particular pattern of speech sounds. This second stage may be called physiological. The movements of the speech apparatus disturb the air stream thus producing sound waves. Consequently the third stage may be called physical or acoustic. Further, any communication requires a listener, as well as a speaker. So the last stages are the reception of the sound waves by the listener's hearing physiological apparatus, the transmission of the spoken message through the nervous system to the brain and the linguistic interpretation of the information conveyed.

Consequently, there are three branches of phonetics each corresponding to a different stage in the communication process mentioned above. Each of these branches uses quite special sets of methods.

The branch of phonetics that studies the way in which the air is set in motion, the movements of the speech organs and the coordination of these movements in the production of single sounds is called articulatory phonetics.

Acoustic phonetics studies the way in which the air vibrates between the speaker's mouth and the listener's ear.

The branch of phonetics investigating the hearing process is known as auditory phonetics. Its interests lie more in the sensation of hearing, which is brain activity, than in the physiological working of the ear or the nervous activity between the ear and the brain. The means by which we discriminate sounds – quality, sensations of pitch, loudness, length, are relevant here. This branch of phonetics is of great interest to anyone who teaches or studies pronunciation.

Phonetics is itself divided into two major components: segmental phonetics, which is concerned with individual sounds (segment of speech) and suprasegmental

phonetics whose domain is the larger units of connected speech: syllables, words, phrases and texts.

Phonetics is closely connected with other linguistic sciences – grammar, lexicology, stylistics, the history of the language, etc., since the phonetic system of a language, its vocabulary and grammar constitute one indivisible whole.

Phonetics is also interconnected with physiology, biology, physics, pedagody, psychology, mathematics, cybernetics, sociology.

UNIT 2.THE PHONEME: ITS DEFINITION AND MODIFICATIONS IN SPEECH

The definitions of the phoneme vary greatly. The concise form of V.A. Vassiliev's definition sounds like this: "*phoneme* is the smallest important unit of the sound structure of a given language which serves to distinguish one word from another.

According to the soviet linguist L.V. Shcherba the phoneme may be viewed as a functional, material and abstract unit.

As a functional unit phoneme serves to perform discriminatory or distinctive function: it helps to distinguish one morpheme from another, one word from another and also one utterance from another. (E.g. said – says, bath – path; He was hurt badly – He was heard badly).

As a material unit phoneme is realized in speech of all English-speaking people in the form of speech sounds, its allophones that are not identical in their articulatory content.

Phonemes taken separately are abstract units which acquire sense only in combinations with other phonemes.

Modifications of phonemes in speech.

Every phoneme displays a vast range of variations. Among different types of variations we distinguish: idiolectal, diaphonic and allophonic.

Idiolectal variation occurs because of the individual peculiarities of articulating sounds. They are caused by the shape and forms of the speaker's speech organs. For example, the speaker mumbles, stammers or lisps.

Diaphonic variation is caused by historical tendencies active in certain localities.

The less noticeable variation is *allophonic*. It's conditioned by phonetic environment, for example [æ] and [ə].

UNIT 3. THE SYSTEM OF ENGLISH CONSONANTS

In all languages speech sounds are traditionally divided into two main groups: vowels and consonants. From the auditory point of view consonants are known to have voice and noise combined, while vowels are sounds consisting of voice only. From the articulatory point of view the difference is due to the work of speech

organs. In case of vowels no obstruction is made. In case of consonants various obstructions are made. <u>Vowels are speech sounds</u> based on voice which is modified in the supralaryngeal cavities. <u>Consonants are speech sounds</u> in the articulation of which there is an obstruction, the removal of which causes noise-plosion or friction.
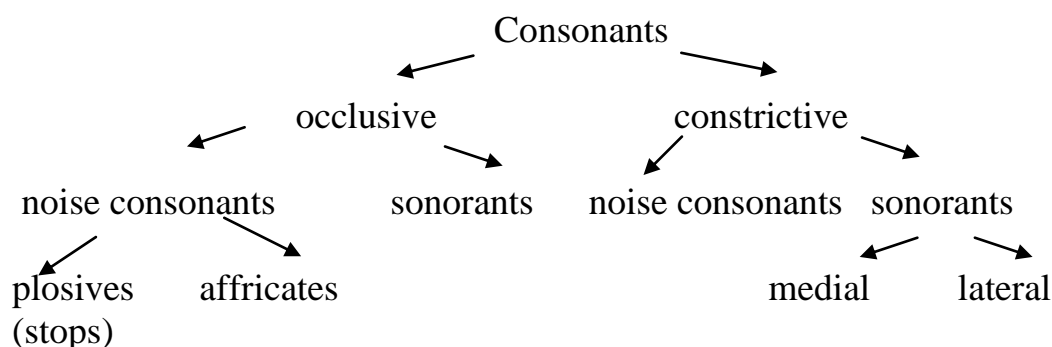
Each sound is known to have 3 aspects: acoustic, articulatory, auditory. And we'll give the phonological description of sounds in terms of articulatory level. So according to V.A. Vassilyev primary importance in classification of English consonants should be given to the <u>type of obstruction</u> and <u>the manner of production of noise.</u> On this ground he distinguishes 2 large classes of consonants:

a) *occlusive*, in the production of which a complete obstruction is formed;

b) *constrictive*, in the production of which an incomplete obstruction is formed.

The phonological relevance of this feature could be exemplified in the following oppositions:

[ti :]   – [si :]   tea – sea (ocl. – constr.)

[si : d] - [si : z]   seed – seas (ocl. – constr.)

[pul]   -   [ful]   pull – full (ocl. – constr.)

[bout] – [vout]   boat – vote (ocl. – constr.)

Each of the two classes is divided into ***noise consonants*** and ***sonorants***. The division is based on the factor of prevailing either noise or tone component in the auditory characteristic of a sound. In their turn noise consonants are divided into ***plosive consonants*** (or ***stops***) and ***affricates***.

Consonants

occlusive   constrictive

noise consonants   sonorants   noise consonants   sonorants

plosives   affricates   medial   lateral
(stops)

Another point of view is shared by a group of Soviet phoneticians. They suggest that the first and basic principle of classification should be <u>the degree of noise</u>. Such consideration leads to dividing English consonants into 2 general kinds: ***noise consonants*** and s***onorants***. Sonorants are sounds that differ greatly from all other consonants of the language and are consonants that phoneticians have traditionally a lot of argument about. This is largely due to the fact that in their production the air passage between the two organs of speech is fairly wide (wider than in the production of noise consonants). As a result, the auditory effect is tone, not noise. This peculiarity makes sonorants sound more like vowels than consonants. On this ground some of the British phoneticians refer some of these consonants to the class of ***semivowels***, [r], [j], [w], for example. Acoustically sonorants are opposed to all other consonants because they are characterized by sharply defined formant structure and the total energy of most of them is very high.

The place of articulation is another characteristic of English consonants which would be considered from the phonological point of view. The place of articulation is determined by the active organ of speech against the point of articulation. According to this principle the English consonants are classed into:

1) *labial*
2) *lingual*
3) *glottal*

The class of labial consonants is subdivided into:

a) *bilabial*; b) *labio-dental*; and among the class of lingual consonants three subclasses are distinguished; they are: a) *forelingual*; b) *mediolingual*; c) *backlingual.*

The classification of consonants according to this principle is illustrated in the following scheme:
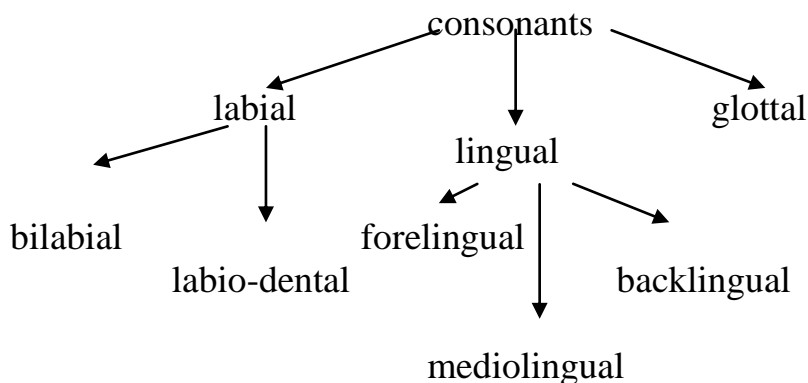
The importance of this characteristic as phonologically relevant could be proved by means of a simple example. In the system of English consonants there could be found oppositions based on the active organ of speech and the place of obstruction.

pan – tan (bilabial – forelingual)
why – lie (bilabial – forelingual)
weil – yale (bilabial – mediolingual)
pick – kick (bilabial – backlingual)
less – yes (forelingual – mediolingual)
day – gay (forelingual – backlingual)
sigh – high (forelingual – glottal)
feet – seat (labio-dental – forelingual)

Our next point should be made in connection with another sound property, that is *voiced-voiceless* characteristics which depends on the work of the vocal cords. It has long been believed that from the articulatory point of view the distinction between such pairs of consonants as [p,b], [t,d], [k,g], [s,z], [f,v], etc. is based on the absence or presence of vibrations of the vocal cords, or on the absence or presence of voice or tone component. However, the presence or absence of voice in the oppositions is not a constant distinctive feature. Thus it may be said that the

oppositions [p-b, t-d, k-g, f-v, s-z] are primarily based on energy difference, that is on fortis-lenis articulation, because all voiced consonants are weak (lenis) and all voiceless consonants are strong (fortis).

There is one more articulatory characteristics which is usually included into the set of principles on the basis of which the English consonants are classified, that is the position of the soft palate. According to this principle consonants can be oral and nasal. There are relatively few consonantal types in English which require the lowered position of the soft palate. They are the *nasal occlusive sonorants* [m, n, ŋ]. They differ from oral plosives in that the soft palate is lowered allowing the escape of air into the nasal cavity.

There is another problem of a phonological character, the problem of affricates, that is their phonological status and their number. This problem is a point of considerable controversy among phoneticians. According to Soviet linguists in English phonetics there are two affricates, they are: [tʃ] and [dʒ]. Some foreign linguists point out more of them, for example, referring to them [ts, dz, tr, dr, tθ, dð].

UNIT 4. THE SYSTEM OF ENGLISH VOWELS

Vowels in any language unlike consonants are produced with no obstruction to the stream of air. It would be interesting to know that a minimum vowel system of a language is likely to have only three basic sounds: [a, u, i]. In the matter of the English language it would be fair to mention that due to various reasons it has developed a vocalic system of a much larger number of phonemes.

The quality of a vowel is known to be determined by the size, volume and shape of the mouth resonator. The resonator is modified by the most movable speech organs – the tongue and the lips. Moreover, the quality of a vowel depends on whether the speech organs are tense or lax and whether the force of articulation weakens or is stable. The positions of the speech organs in the articulation of vowels may be kept for a variable period of time. All these factors predetermine the principles according to which vowels are classified:

a) stability of articulation
b) tongue position
c) lip position
d) character of the vowel end
e) length
f) tenseness

Let's consider some of them:

Stability of articulation. Here are two possible varieties: a) the tongue position is stable; b) it changes, that is the tongue moves from one position to another. In the first case the articulated vowel is relatively pure, in the second case a vowel consists of two clearly perceptible elements. There exist in addition a third variety, an intermediate case, when the change in the tongue position is fairly weak. So

according to this principle the English vowels are subdivided into: a) monophthongs, b) diphthongs, c) diphthongoids.

The position of the tongue. The position of the tongue in the mouth cavity is characterized from two aspects, that is the horizontal and vertical movement. According to the horizontal movement Soviet phoneticians distinguish 5 classes of English vowels:

1) front [i:, e, ei, æ, ɛə]
2) front-retracted   [i, iə]
3) central [ʌ, ɜ:, ə, ɜu, ɛu]
4) back [ɒ, ɑ:, ɔ:, u:]
5) back-advanced [u, uə]

According to the vertical movement of the tongue the following 6 groups of vowels are distinguished:

1. close
a) narrow [i:, u:]
b) broad [i, u, iə, uə]
2. mid
a) narrow [e, ɜ:, ə, ei, ɜu]
b) broad [ə, ʌ]
3. open
a) narrow [ɛə, ɔ:, ɔi]
b) broad [æ, ai, au, ɑ:, ɒ]

Lip position or lip rounding. Traditionally three lip positions are distinguished, that is spread, neutral and rounded. For the purpose of classification vowels it is sufficient to distinguish between two lip positions: rounded and unrounded, or neutral.

Vowel length or quantity. Traditionally there are distinguished short and long vowels (monophthongs). It is common knowledge that a vowel like any other sound has physical duration – time which is required for its production (articulation). When sounds are used in connected speech they cannot help being influenced by one another. Duration is one of the characteristics of a vowel which is modified due to various factors.

Tenseness. It characterizes the state of the organs of speech at the moment of production of a vowel. Special instrumental analysis shows that historically long vowels are tense while historically short vowels are lax.

UNIT 5. SYLLABIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORDS

It is generally known that speech is a continuum. However, it can be broken into minimal pronounceable units into which sounds show a tendency to cluster or group themselves. These smallest phonetic groups are given the name of syllables.

It is necessary to mention that the syllable is a complicated phenomenon and like the phoneme it can be studied on four levels: acoustic, auditory, articulatory and

functional, which means that the syllable can be approached from the different points of view. Let us consider some of such points of view.

1. **Expiratory** (относящийся к выдоху), or pressure **theory** which was experimentally based by R. H. Stetson. This theory is based on the assumption that expiration in speech is a pulsating process and each syllable should correspond to a single expiration so that the number of the syllables in an utterance is determined by the number of expirations made in the production of the utterance.

2. The theory by Shcherba. It is called the **theory of muscular tension**. The point is that in most languages there is a syllabic phoneme in the centre of the syllable, which is usually a vowel phoneme, or, in some languages a sonorant. The phonemes preceding or following the syllable peak are called marginal. The energy increases within the range of prevocalic consonants and then decreases within the range of postvocalic consonants. Therefore the syllable can be defined an arc of articulatory tension.

3. The Soviet linguist and psychologist Zhinkin has suggested the so-called **loudness theory**. So according to the theory the syllable could be thought of as the arc of loudness.

Syllable formation in English is based on the phonological opposition: vowel - consonant. Vowels are usually syllabic while consonants are not, with the exception of [l], [m], [n], which become syllabic if they occur in an unstressed final position preceded by a noise consonant, for example, ['litl] little, ['blosom] blossom, ['ga:dn] garden.

The structure of the syllable is known to vary because of the number and the arrangement of consonants. In English there are distinguished four types of syllables:

1. Open - no [nou]
2. Closed - odd [od]
3. Covered - note [nout]
4. Uncovered - oh [ou], oak [ouk]

It should be pointed out here that due to its structure the English language has developed the close type of syllable as the fundamental one while in Russian it is the open type that forms the basis of syllable formation.

As to the number of syllables in the English word it can vary from 1 to 8, for example [k^m] - come, ['siti] city.

Besides syllable formation linguists are also interested in another problem, i.e. – syllable division.

In the English language the problem of syllable division exists only in case of intervocalic consonants and their clusters like in the words "city, agree, extra". In such cases the point of syllable division is not easily found.

To be able to determine the syllable boundary in such words as "to agree, abrupt", these words should be divided into syllables in the following way: [e-'gri:], [e-'brapt], because such combinations as [gr], [br] are permissible initial clusters for the English language. On the other hand, there are clusters that can never be found in the word

initial position and consequently should be broken by syllabic boundary, for example: admire [ed-'maie], abhor [eb-'ho:].

But there are cases when the distributional criteria may fail. In this case when the number of intervocalic consonants is three as in the word "extra" ['ekstra] we have to state the possible points of syllable division: 1) ['ek-stra], 2) ['eks-tra], 3) ['ekst-ra].

In such cases the natural way of division is fixed in pronunciation dictionary.

Functions of the Syllable

1. **The constitutive function**. It lies in the ability to be a part of a word or word itself. The syllable forms language units of greater magnitude, that is words, morphemes and utterances.
2. **The distinctive function.** In this respect the syllable is characterized by its ability to differentiate words and word-forms. To illustrate this a set of minimal pairs should be found so that qualitative and quantitative peculiarities of certain allophones should indicate the beginning or the end of the syllable.

The distinction between word combination can be illustrated by many examples:

An aim - a name
Mice kill - my skill
An ice house - a nice house
Peace talks - pea stalks
Plate rack - play track

UNIT 6. WORD STRESS

A word, as a meaningful language unit, has a definite phonetic structure. The phonetic structure of a word comprises not only the sounds that the word is composed of and not only the syllabic structure that these sounds form, it also has a definite stress pattern.

The auditory impression of stress is that of prominence. And if a word contains more than one syllable, the relative prominence of those syllables differs. There may be one prominent syllable in a word as compared to the rest of the syllables of the same word (as in "important"); there may be two equally prominent syllables (as in "examination") or more prominent syllables (as in "unreliability"). And this correlation of degrees of prominence of the syllables in a word forms *the stress pattern of the word,* which is often called *the accentual structure of a word.*

The stress patterns of different words may coincide. Thus the words "mother", "table", "happy", "after" have an identical stress pattern, though their sound structures have nothing in common. The stress pattern of these words differs from that of "analyze", "prominent", "syllable", "character".

Monosyllabic words have no stress pattern, because there can be established no correlation of prominence within it. Yet as lexical units monosyllables are regarded as stressed.

The stress patterns of words are generally perceived without difficulty. People easily distinguish between "*'subject*" and "*sub'ject*".

Actual speech does not consist of isolated words. And the stress pattern of a word is deduced from how the word is accented in connected speech. On the other hand, the stress pattern of a word is only its potential pattern in an utterance. Though English words generally retain their stress patterns in connected speech, there occur numerous instances when the stress pattern of a word is altered.

Cf. *'unhappy - He was 'so un'happy. - He 'remembered those 'unhappy 'days.*

Word stress should not be confused with utterance stress. Word stress belongs to the word when said in isolation, utterance stress belongs to the utterance.

The placement of utterance stress is primarily conditioned by the situational and linguistic context. It is also conditioned by subjective factors: by the speaker's intention to bring out words, which are considered by him to be semantically important in the situational context. As for the stress pattern of a word, it is conditioned only by objective factors: pronunciation tendencies and the orthoepic norm. One cannot distort the stress pattern of a word on one's own, because such a distortion will make speech unintelligible.

As stated above, the auditory impression of stress is that of prominence. So a stressed syllable on the auditory level is a syllable that has special prominence. The effect of prominence may be produced by a greater degree of loudness, greater length of the stressed syllable, some modifications in its pitch and quality.

Acoustic analysis shows that the perception of prominence may be due to definite variations of the following acoustic parameters: intensity, duration, frequency, formant structure. All these parameters generally interact to produce the effect of prominence.

In different languages stress may be achieved by various combinations of these parameters. Depending upon which parameter is the principal one in producing the effect of stress, word stress in languages may be of different types.

There are languages with dynamic word stress. Stress in such languages is achieved by a greater force of articulation, which results in greater loudness, on the auditory level, and the greater intensity on the acoustic level. The stressed syllables are louder than the unstressed ones. All the other parameters play a less important role in producing the effect of stress in such languages.

In languages with musical word stress prominence is mainly achieved by variations in pitch level, the main acoustic parameter being fundamental frequency. Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese are languages with musical word stress (or tonic word stress). The meaning of the words in those languages depends on the pitch levels of their syllables.

Swedish word stress is characterized as dynamic and musical, because both loudness and pitch variations are relevant factors in producing prominence. For instance, the Swedish word "Anden" with falls in pitch on both syllables means "soul", but when pronounced with a fall in pitch on the first syllable and low pitch on the second syllable means "duck".

In languages with quantitative word stress the effect of stress is mainly based on the quantity of the sound, i.e. its duration. In such languages vowels in the stressed syllables are always longer than vowels in unstressed syllables. Russian word stress is

considered to be mainly quantitative though it has been proved that duration is not the only parameter that produces the effect of stress in Russian.

Until recently, English word stress was considered to be dynamic, as stress was generally correlated with loudness. But numerous investigations of the acoustic nature of English word stress have made it clear that stress in English does not depend on intensity alone, and that English word stress is of a complex nature. Thus, relative prominence in the listener's mind is created by an interaction of four acoustic parameters: intensity, fundamental frequency, duration and formant structure. The peculiarity of this interaction still remains a controversial problem and a very complicated one.

Therefore stress in English manifests itself in various ways, either the intensity, or duration of the stressed syllable may increase, or the spectrum of the stressed vowel may be sharpened, or the fundamental frequency may show a distinct rise (or fall). There may also be a combination of any of these parameters.

As for Russian word stress, it is considered to be quantitative (because in Russian a stressed syllable is about 1.5 times longer than an unstressed syllable) and, secondarily, it is qualitative and dynamic.

UNIT 7. INTONATION

§1. Broad and narrow definitions of intonation

Intonation is defined differently by different scholars, but all the existing definitions of intonation fall into two large groups: broad and narrow definitions. Phoneticians V. Vasiliev, G. Torsuev define intonation as a complex unity of speech melody, sentence (utterance) stress, tempo, rhythm, voice timbre to express thoughts, emotions and attitude towards the contents of the utterance and the hearer.

Intonation, as all other units of the phonetic system of English, should be studied from the following four viewpoints: articulatory, perceptible, acoustic and linguistic or functional.

Speech melody, sentence stress, tempo, rhythm and timbre are perceptible qualities of intonation. Acoustically intonation is a complex combination of fundamental frequency, intensity and duration. On the articulatory or production level, intonation is also a complex phenomenon, but this aspect hasn't been thoroughly investigated. The linguistic function of intonation will be studied later.

This approach to the definition of intonation is considered to be broad. It reflects the actual interconnection and interaction of melody, stress, tempo, rhythm and timbre in speech. The broad definition is given by representatives of Soviet and post-Soviet linguistic school. The number and nature of the components vary in works of different scientists. For example, Professor V. Vasiliev excludes rhythm from the definition of intonation and includes it into the temporal component; professor A. Antipova treats rhythm as a separate component but doesn't refer timber to the intonation components, etc.

A great number of phoneticians abroad - D. Jones, I. Armstrong, K. Pike, O'Connor, etc. - define intonation as the variation of the pitch of the voice, reducing it only to speech melody. This is considered to be a narrow approach to the definition of intonation.

§2. Components of intonation

Speech melody is the variations in the pitch of the voice. The basic unit used to describe the pitch component is the tone. Depending on whether the pitch of the voice varies or remains unvaried tones are subdivided into kinetic and static. Static tones may have different levels - high, mid, low. Kinetic tones are HF (high falling), LF (low falling), HR (high rising), LR (low rising).

Sentence Stress (Utterance stress) is the prosodic phenomenon of speech with a linguistic function of indicating the relative importance of various elements in an utterance. Utterance stress is closely related to word stress. Whenever utterance stress occurs it will normally fall on a syllable which also has the word stress. Yet linguistically utterance stress is quite different, because the distribution of stresses in an utterance is determined primarily by the semantic factor, whereas word accentuation is determined by the accentual rules of the language. The subsystem of utterance stress in English includes 3 basic functional types: nuclear stress, non-nuclear full stress and a partial stress. The distribution of stresses in an utterance depends on several factors (Torsuev): semantic, grammatical rhythmical. The semantic factor is singled out by the nuclear stress; it has the greatest semantic importance. The grammatical structure also determines its accentual structure, for example, inverted word order for expressing interrogation, requires stress on the auxiliary verb. The rhythmical laws of the English language also affect the distribution of stress: notional words may be unstressed, word-form - stressed.

Utterance stress provides the basis for the hearer's identification of the important parts of the utterance, for his understanding of the context.

The temporal characteristics of intonation include tempo, pausation, duration (the length of the utterance).

Tempo is the rate at which utterances are pronounced. Generally 3 degrees of tempo are distinguished 1) normal (moderate) - neutral speech, 2) fast (quick) and 3) slow. It's common knowledge that by slowing down the tempo we can make an utterance or part of it more prominent, underlying the semantic importance of it. Increasing the speed we diminish prominence and as a result the actual semantic importance of what we say. Tempo frames syntactical units. The beginning and the end of a unit are characterized by a slower tempo, than the middle of the unit. It expresses the speaker's attitude or emotions: fast - excitement, anger; slow-relaxation, phlegmatic attitude.

Pausation. Phoneticians distinguish 3 main types of pauses: 1) silent (stop in phonation), 2) pauses of perception (the effect of a pause is achieved by a change of pitch direction), voiced or filled pauses (filled with non-communicative sound - *hm, er* that signal hesitation or doubt and help to produce the impression of a continuous

flow of speech). Duration of pauses is relative. It may vary depending on the general tempo of speech.

§3. Functions of Intonation

Intonation performs a number of functions. The basic functions are:

1. The constitutive, it helps to form and delimit utterances as communicative units, transforming words as vocabulary items into utterances

2. Identificatory

3. The distinctive, it manifests itself in several particular functions, depending on the meaning which is differentiated - communicative, modal (attitudinal, logical), syntactical (grammatical, semantic, stylistic)

Intonation serves to differentiate the communicative types of utterances: statements, questions, imperative and exclamatory sentences.

The modal function of Intonation manifests itself in different modal (attitudinal) meanings - certainty versus uncertainty, definiteness versus, indefiniteness - all the varieties of the speaker's attitudes to the subject matter and the situation. Usually the speaker's attitude corresponds to the contents of the words, but sometimes intonation may disagree with the contents and become the crucial factor in the determining of the meaning of the utterance.

The logical function manifests itself in differentiating the location of the semantic nuclei of the utterance and other semantically important words.

The syntactical function reveals itself in differentiating syntactical types of sentences and syntactical relations in sentences:

Her sister/ said Mary/ was a well-known actress.

Her sister said/Mary was a well-known actress.

The semantic function can be evident through the opposition of terminal tones in the same structures

He doesn't lend his books to anybody (=to nobody)

He doesn't lend his books to anybody (to some not all)

Intonation also differentiates various pronunciation styles determined by extra-linguistic factors.

The identificatory function of Intonation consists in the use of the right intonation pattern in the right place, for example, learners of English should bear in mind that in some types of general questions, or set expressions a falling tone will sound more polite and appropriate (*thank you*) and a rising tone will sound casual (*thank you*).

It is necessary to emphasize that all the functions of Intonation are fulfilled simultaneously and can't be separated one from another. Intonation is systematic in a given language and can't be used in the same way in another language.

UNIT 8. THE ORTHOEPIC NORM OF THE ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

There exist numerous varieties in any language. The varieties of the language are conditioned by language communities ranging from small groups to nations.

The varieties of language spoken by socially limited number of people and used in certain localities are called **dialects**. Therefore, there exist local dialects and social dialects. Dialects have some peculiarities in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar but all dialects have more features in common, they are varieties of the same language.

Due to mass media, the increased mobility of the population, concentration of the population in the Cities, dialectal differences are becoming less marked.

Among the most well-known dialects one should mention Cockney (spoken by the less educated part of Londoners), Geordie (heard in Newcastle), Scouse (the Liverpool dialect), Cornish (dialect in Cornwall) and others.

Dialect speakers are, as a rule, the less educated part of the population.

Besides, in present day English the number of local dialects is being reduced to a fewer, more or less general, regional types. In British English three main regional types of pronunciation are distinguished: Southern, Northern and Scottish.

It is common knowledge that the literary spoken form has its national pronunciation standard. Standard national pronunciation is also called an "orthoepic norm".

The orthoepic norm of a language is the standard pronunciation adopted by native speakers as the right and proper way of speaking. It comprises the variants of pronunciation that exist in the language. It is used by the most educated part of the population. It should be emphasized, that the orthoepic norm is not constant and fixed for all centuries and generations.

Variations of the orthoepic norm is a natural objective phenomenon, which reflects the development of language. The non-standard prosodic (intonational) patterns and regional variants of pronunciation constantly influence the orthoepic norm. It is a well-known fact that most of the phonetic changes first occur among the less educated, before they are recognized as acceptable. Therefore, the main factors that condition Variations of the orthoepic norm are: 1) social factors, 2) territorial factors, 3) stylistic factors.

It should also be mentioned that British English pronunciation is exposed to external influence. On the British television and screen there is a lot of American speech, which works against the standard of pronunciation, especially with the younger generation. On the other hand, the spread of education and mass media encourage to some extent a standard pronunciation.

It is generally considered that the orthoepic norm of British English is Received Pronunciation (RP). It was accepted about a century and a half ago. RP is mainly based on the Southern English regional type of pronunciation, but it has developed its own features. RP is spoken by a comparatively small number of English people, who have had the most privileged education. RP is not taught at the privileged schools, it

is absorbed automatically by the pupils, for they are sent to live at schools at the age of eleven, when their pronunciation is most flexible and soon they acquire the so called "public school accent", the prestige accent. Though RP is carefully preserved by the public schools and the privileged class in England, the RP of today differs in some respects from the former refined RP used half a century ago.

UNIT 9. BRITISH REGIONAL TYPES OF PRONUNCIATION

In British English phoneticians generally distinguish 3 main regional types of pronunciation : *1. The Southern regional type; 2. Northern and 3. Scottish.* This division is very approximate of course, because there are western and eastern accents but their main accent variations correspond either with southern or northern accentual characteristics.

1.   The Southern Regional Type

It is spoken primarily in the South, East Anglia, South-West.

Educated Southern speech is very much near-RP accent whereas non-standard accents are very much near Cockney.

Cockney

One of the best examples of a local dialect is Cockney. It is used by the less educated people in the West End of London. Cockney has not been fully investigated, but there are certain striking peculiarities. Some features of vowel and consonant distribution are illustrated by the examples below:

Vowels:

steady – [stɑidi]	lady – [lɑidi]
ham – [hɛm]	home – ['əum,'ʌum, 'æum]
ask – [ɒ:sk]	time – [tɔim, tæim]
fall – [fɔl]	house – [hɛəs]
pull – [pɔl]	here – [hijə]
boots – [biuts]	there – [ejə]
first – [fʌst]	poor – [pɔ:wə]

Consonants:

• p,t,k, - are heavily aspirated

• h - doesn't occur initially; it may appear only in stressed position - *happened*

• the final ŋ sounds like *n: something, evening*

• θ, ð occur very rarely; f,v,or d are used instead: *thin – [fin], father – [fa:və], this – [dis]*

• when [ð] occurs initially it is either dropped or replaced by [d]: *them – [dem]*

2.   The Northern type.

It is spoken in the North, North-West, Yorkshire, West-Midland. To the Northern type, therefore, we refer Midland accents, Newcastle accent, Yorkshire accents and some others.

The counties of northern England are not far from the Scottish border, so the influence of Scotch accent is noticeable.

The main distinctions of the Northern type of pronunciation are as follows:
- **[a]**   is used instead of [æ]   [bæg   →   bag]
- **[a:]** turns into **[æ]** [gla:s → glæs]
- **[u]**   instead of **[ʌ]** [lʌv   →   luv]
- **[ɔ:]** instead of **[ou]** [gou → gɔ:]
       – the same with most other diphthongs – they become monophthongs
- Final [i] sounds like [i:]: ['siti → 'siti:]
- Words that have 'al' in spelling – talk, call, all, are pronounced with [a:]: [ta:k, ka:l, a:l]
- Words with [ɛ:] are pronounced with [o:]: first [fo:st]
- [ai] is [ei]: right [reit]

All sounds in the Northern British Regional type are generally drawled - "the sing – song" pronunciation

3.   The Scottish type.

Today the status of Scottish English is still debated. Some linguists say that it is a national variant, others say that it is a dialect.

Nowadays educated Scottish people speak a form of Scottish Standard English which grammatically and lexically is not different from English used elsewhere, although with an obvious Scottish accent.

Non-standard dialects of Scotland resemble Scots – a Celtic language. In many respects they are radically different from most other varieties of English.

The common features are as follows:
- [ɜ:]   is never used: girl [girl],   bird [bird]
- They use sequences [ir], [er], [ar]
- Instead of [au]- [u] is used [daun →dun, taun →   tun]
- They don't differentiate between [æ] and [a:] it's pronounced as [a].
- All vowels are short.
- There exists sound [ʍ] - it is a voiceless fricative sound *which [ʍitʃ]*
- Initial **p, t, k** are usually non-aspirated
- ing is [in]
- [θr] is pronounced as [ʃr]
- They have several falls instead of one in one phrase.
- The speech is rather slow and full of ups and downs.

UNIT 10. AMERICAN-BASED PRONUNCIATION STANDARDS OF ENGLISH

Pronunciation in the USA is not homogeneous. There are certain varieties of educated American speech. In the USA three main types of cultivated speech are recognized: *the Eastern type, the Southern type* and *Western* or *General American.*

1. **The Eastern type** is spoken in New England, and in New York city. It bears a remarkable resemblance to Southern English, though there are, of course, some slight differences.

2. **The Southern Type** is used in the South and South-East of the USA. It possesses a striking distinctive feature – vowel drawl. This type tends to the diphthongization and even triphthongization of some pure vowels and monophthongization of some diphthongs at the expense of prolonging ("drawling") their nuclei and dropping the glides.

3. **General American (GA)** is spoken in the central Atlantic States: New York, New Jersey, Wisconsin and others. It is the pronunciation standard of the USA used by the radio and television and also in scientific, cultural and business correspondence.

GA pronunciation peculiarities

Vowels

1. There is no strict division of vowels into long and short in GA.

2. Sound [r] is pronounced between a vowel and a consonant or between a vowel and a silence: turn [tə:rn], star [sta:r].

3. GA front vowels are somewhat different from RP. Vowels [i:], [ɪ] are distributed differently in GA and RP. In words like *very, pity* GA has [i:] rather than [ɪ]. In word final position it is often even diphthongized.

Vowel [e] is more open in GA. It also may be diphthongized before [p], [t], [k]: let [leət]

4. RP [a:] corresponds to GA [æ] : dance [dæns], ask [æsk].

Consonants

1. Intervocalic [t] as in *pity* is most normally voiced. The result is neutralization of the distribution between [t] and [d] in this position, i.e. *latter, ladder.* The original distinction is preserved through vowel length with the vowel before [t] being shorter

In words like *twenty, little* [t] may even drop out. Thus words *winner* and *winter*, for example, may sound identical.

2. GA [r] is articulated differently from RP one. It is pronounced with the tip of the tongue curled back further than in RP.

3. The sonorant [j] is usually weakened or omitted altogether in GA between a consonant and [u:] as in the words: *news* [nu:z}], *Tuesday* [tu:zdi], *suit* [su:t], etc.

4. Many differences involve the pronunciation of individual words or groups of words. Here are some of these:

	RP	GA
Asia	eɪʃə	eɪʒə
education	edjukeiʃn	edʒukeiʃn
either	aiðə	i:ðə
leisure	leʒə	li:ʒə
lever	li:və	levər
schedule	ʃedju:l	skedjəl
tomato	təma:təu	təmeɪtou
vase	va:z	veiz

PART 4
LEXICAL ASPECTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDY

UNIT 1. LEXICOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

§ 1. Lexicology as a science

Lexicology is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of a language.

The term "lexicology" consists of two Greek words: *lexis* meaning 'word or a phrase' (hence *lexicos* 'having to do with words') and *logos* 'department of knowledge'. Thus *lexicology* is the science of the word. The basic task of Lexicology is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use.

The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as General Lexicology.

Special Lexicology describes the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. It is clear that every special lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology.

Besides general and special lexicology, we distinguish Descriptive Lexicology and Historical Lexicology. The object of *historical* lexicology is the evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements. This branch of linguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, and investigates the linguistic and extra linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. *Descriptive* lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

There are two principal approaches in linguistics to the study of language material, namely the synchronic (greek syn - "together", "with" and "chronos" – time) and diachronic (greek dia – "through") approach. With regard to special lexicology the synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time. The diachronic approach in terms of special lexicology deals with the changes and development of vocabulary in the course of time.

The distinction between the synchronic and diachronic approach is due to the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913). But we can't artificially separate for the purpose of study what in real language is inseparable, because actually every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development. So the two approaches are interdependent and we must acknowledge both of them, e.g. beggar - to beg. Synchronically the word *beggar* is a derived word from the word *to beg*, but diachronically we learn that the word *beggar* was borrowed from Old French and only presumed to have been derived from the word *to beg*.

§ 2. The connection of Lexicology with other branches of linguistics

It is but natural that all the branches of linguistics should be originally related. Thus *Phonetics* will always help us in studying the phonetic peculiarities of words

that come from other languages; then it helps us to explain the appearance of some words alike in form but different in meaning. Historical phonetics and historical phonology can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy. When sound changes loosen the ties between members of the same word-family, this is an important factor in facilitating semantic changes. The word *whole, heal, hail,* for instance, are etymologically related (etymology is the branch of linguistics dealing with the origin and history of words). The word *whole* originally meant "unharmed", "unwounded". The early verb *whole* meant "to make whole", hence *heal*. Its sense of "healthy" led to its use as a salutation, as in the word "hail". Having in the course of historical development lost their phonetical similarity, these words cannot now have any restrictive influence upon one another's semantic development. Thus *hail* occurs now in the meaning of "call", even with the purpose to stop and arrest (used by sentinels).

Stylistics, although from a different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, synonyms, differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues.

The difference and interconnection between grammar and lexicology is one of the important controversial issues in linguistics. A close connection between lexicology and grammar is conditioned by the manifold and inseverable ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexico-grammatical characteristic of the word class to which they belong. Words are arranged in certain patterns conveying the relations between the things for which they stand, that's why together with their lexical meaning they have some grammatical meaning. The grammatical form and function of the words affect its lexical meaning. For example, when the verb to go is followed by an infinitive with the particle to it expresses an intention of a future action. (*I'm going to stay here for the night*).

The ties between lexicology and grammar are particularly strong in the sphere of word-formation which before lexicology became a separate branch of linguistics had been considered a part of grammar.

There is no doubt that lexicology makes use of the information provided by the history of the language. Changes in the word-stock of the language, the disappearance and appearance of certain word-building elements in the process of language development, the productivity of different ways of vocabulary enrichment, etc. may be well followed only on the basis of a profound historical study.

UNIT 2. STRATIFICATION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

§ 1. The division of the vocabulary into layers (strata). The neutral layer

The word-stock of any language can be roughly divided into three uneven groups, differing from each other by the sphere of its possible use. The biggest

division is made up of *neutral* words, possessing no connotation and suitable for any communicative situation, two smaller ones are *literary* and *colloquial* strata.

The literary and the colloquial strata contain a number of subgroups each of which has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. This common property, which unites the different groups of words within the layer, may be called its aspect. The aspect of the literary layer is its markedly bookish character. It is this that makes this layer more or less stable. The aspect of the colloquial layer of words is its lively spoken character. It is this that makes it unstable, fleeting.

The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character: it can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity. This layer is the most stable of all.

Neutral words form the bulk of the English vocabulary and are used both in literary and colloquial language. Unlike all other groups, the neutral group of words cannot be considered as having a special stylistic coloring (stylistic reference), whereas both literary and colloquial words have a definite stylistic coloring.

Etymologically neutral words are mostly native, and if of foreign origin borrowed long enough ago and assimilated. Thus, among the lexical units of this layer we find early Latin borrowings and words of Greek origin borrowed through Latin (e.g. *cap, wall, church, street*), early French borrowings (e.g. *army, judge, mutton*), early Scandinavian borrowings (e.g. *husband, sky, call*)

Words of this layer are often synonymic dominants, that is the most general words in groups of synonyms easily replacing the other members of the group. Thus, in the group of *girl – young female – maiden – damsel – lass – skirt,* the word 'girl' is the synonymic dominant as the most general, though not the most expressive word, 'young female' is official, bookish, 'maiden' – poetical, 'damsel' – archaic, 'lass' – colloquial, 'skirt' – slang; in the group *drunk, intoxicated – inebriated – tipsy – soused – sottish* the most general word is doubtlessly 'drunk'.

Words of the neutral layer are often polysemantic: e.g. *to ask* 1. to interrogate, 2. to beg.

The vocabulary layers can, in the course of time, undergo the process of interpenetration. This means that a certain amount of the literary or colloquial vocabulary can penetrate into the neutral vocabulary. However, it is impossible for the literary layer to enter colloquial and vice versa without first entering the neutral stratum.

§ 2. The literary layer

Literary words are chiefly used in writing and in formal communication. Among them there are distinguished the following groups:

1) *common literary words* (also called learned, bookish, high-flown) – known to and used by most native speakers in generalized literary (formal) communication (e.g. *to commence, maiden, parent, to retire)*

2) *archaisms, obsolescent and obsolete words.* These words are already partly or fully out of circulation; their use is restricted to the printed page only.

Obsolescent words – are archaic words that are in the stage of gradually passing out of general use. To this category belong morphological forms belonging to the earlier stages in the development of the language. In the English language these are the pronouns *thou, thee, thy, thine;* the corresponding verbal ending *–est* and the verb-forms *art, wilt (thou makest, thou wilt);* the ending *–(e)th* instead of *–(e)s* (*he maketh*) and the pronoun *ye.*

To the category of obsolescent words belong many French borrowings which have been kept in the literary language as a means of preserving the spirit of earlier periods, e.g. *a pallet* (=a straw mattress); *a palfrey* (=a small horse), etc.

Obsolete words are those archaic words that have already gone completely out of use but are still recognized by the English-speaking community: e.g. *methinks* (=it seems to me); *nay* (=no).

Archaic proper are words which are no longer recognizable in modern English, words that were in use in Old English and which have either dropped out of the language entirely or have changed in their appearance so much that they have become unrecognizable, e.g. *troth* (=faith); a *losel* (= a lazy fellow)

3) *historical words* (or *historisms*) – historical terms referring to definite stages in the development of society.

Historisms are very numerous as names for social relations, institutions, objects of material culture of the past. The names of ancient transport means, such as types of boats, or types of carriages, ancient clothes, weapons, musical instruments can offer good examples. Here belong such transport means and boats as *brougham, gig, hansom, phaeton, caravel, galleon*, etc. Historisms also include such weapons as *crossbow, vizor*, *mace*.

Historical words are often erroneously classed as archaic. The difference between these two classes is that historical words have no synonyms, whereas archaic words have been replaced by modern synonyms. Therefore, unlike archaisms, historical words never disappear from the language.

4) *terms* – special words, limited by their scientific designation. They express with the utmost precision certain concepts of science, engineering, politics, diplomacy, philosophy, linguistics, etc. (e.g. linguistic term *affixation*, medical term *to dress* 'to bandage a wound').

5) *poetical words* – words (expressions) used primarily in poetry and high-flown prose; sometimes also called 'solemn', 'lofty', 'elevated'. Their application is very narrow though for certain stylistic purposes (humour, irony, etc.) they are sometimes used in colloquial speech. Among poetical words we find, for example, *deem* (think), *ne* (not), *oft* (often), etc. Almost all words termed 'poetical' are archaic.

6) *barbarisms and foreignisms.*

Barbarisms are words borrowed almost without any change in form. Etymologically they are often Latin, Greek and French. These words have not entirely been assimilated into the English language and are felt as something alien to the native tongue. However, these words are registered in the English dictionaries as belonging to the English stock. Among barbarisms we find: de *facto, bona fide, hors d'oevre, belles letters,* etc.

Foreignisms (foreign words proper) – are words that do not belong to the English vocabulary and, as a rule, are not registered by English dictionaries. These words may be used only for certain stylistic purposes. In printed works foreign words and phrases are generally italicized to indicate their alien nature. Barbarisms, on the contrary, are not made conspicuous in the text.

§ 3. The colloquial layer

Colloquial vocabulary is used by everybody and its sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least *of common colloquial words*. Colloquialisms include the following groups of words:

1) *common colloquial words* – informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups.

2) *slang* – newly coined words and phrases or current words employed in special meaning, e.g. school slang, sport slang, newspaper slang, etc. Slang is generally considered to be a low form of the language and is used in very informal communication. The slang items have a relatively limited semantic range that includes primarily university life, sexual relations, bodily functions, etc. (*goon, nerd, to puke, sucky*). Being highly emotive and expressive these words lose their originality very fast and are replaced by newer formations. In the course of time slang words may penetrate into the common colloquial layer (e.g. *mate, chap, it's up to you*, etc.).

There is no sure criterion to decide when an expression is slang or something else. Most of the words that are labelled 'slang' are conversational words of a highly colloquial substandard character.

3) *jargon* – words used by limited groups of people, united either professionally (in this case we deal with professional jargonisms, or *professionalisms*) or socially (here we deal with *jargonisms proper*). E.g. in oil industry, for the terminological 'driller' there exist professional jargonisms 'borer', 'digger'; for geologist 'smeller', 'pebble pup', 'rock hound'.

Jargonisms proper differ from professionalisms in function and sphere of application. They originated from the thieves' jargon and served to conceal the actual significance of the utterance from the uninitiated. Their major function was to be cryptic, secretive. This is why among them there are cases of conscious deformations of the existing words. The so-called *back jargon* (or back slang) can serve as an example: in their effort to conceal the machinations of dishonest card-playing, gamblers used numerals in their reversed form: 'ano' for 'one', 'owt' for 'two', 'erth' for 'three'.

4) *dialectal words* – words that reflect the geographical background of the speaker. E.g. 'volk' for 'folk' (Somersetshire), 'daft' for 'of unsound mind' (Scottish), 'soda' or 'pop' for a soft drink (in many parts of the USA), etc.

5) *vulgarisms* – coarse words and obscenities with strong emotive meaning, mostly derogatory, normally avoided in polite conversation. Among such words we find: *damned, bitch, bloody, whore,* etc.

UNIT 3. THE ETYMOLOGICAL BACKGROUND OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

§ 1. Native words

The English vocabulary has been enriched throughout its history by borrowings from foreign languages. The etymological structure of the English vocabulary consists of the native element (Indo-European and Germanic) and the borrowed elements.

Etymology (from Greek *etymon* "truth" + *logos* "learning") is a branch of linguistics that studies the origin and history of words tracing them to their earliest determination source.

By the native element we understand words that are not borrowed from other languages. A native word is a word that belongs to the Old English word-stock. The Native Element is the basic element, though it constitutes only up to 20-30% of the English vocabulary.

Old English, or Anglo-Saxon, is the earliest recorded form of the English language. It was spoken from about 600 A.D. until about 1100 A.D., and most of its words had been a part of a still earlier form of the language. Many of the common words of modern English, like *home, stone, meat* are native, or Old English, words. Most of the irregular verbs in English derive from Old English (*speak, swim, drive, ride, sing*), as do most of the English shorter numerals (*two, three, six, ten*) and most of pronouns (*I, you, we, who*).

Many Old English words can be traced back to Indo-European, a prehistoric language that was the common ancestor of Greek and Latin as well. Others came into Old English as it was becoming a separate language.

(a)   Indo-European Element: the oldest words in English are of the Indo-European origin. They form part of the basic word-stock of all Indo-European languages. There are several semantic groups:

- words expressing family relations: *brother, daughter, father, mother, son*;
- names of parts of the human body: *foot, eye, ear, nose, tongue*;
- names of trees, birds, animals: *tree, birch, cow, wolf, cat*;
- names expressing basic actions: *to come, to know, to sit, to work*;
- words expressing qualities: *red, quick, right, glad, sad*;
- numerals: *one, two, three, ten, hundred*, etc.

(b)   Common Germanic words are not to be found in other Indo-European languages but the Germanic. They constitute a very large layer of the vocabulary, e.g.:

- nouns: *hand, life, sea, ship, meal, winter, ground, coal, goat*;
- adjectives: *heavy, deep, free, broad, sharp, grey*;
- verbs: *to buy, to drink, to find, to forget, to go, to have, to live, to make*;
- pronouns: *all, each, he, self, such*;
- adverbs: *again, forward, near*;
- prepositions: *after, at, by, over, under, from, for*.

§ 2. Borrowings

The foreign or borrowed element in the English vocabulary is represented by words originating from different languages. Many of them are given below.

§ 2.1 The Celtic element

The first known language in Britain, the land where English began, was Celtic. Once used throughout Western Europe, it is now spoken by small groups of people mainly in Ireland, Wales, and the Scottish Highlands. But aside from some place and river names (among them *Kent, Thames, Avon*) and the first syllables of other (*Win*chester, *Salis*bury, *Ex*eter and *Glou*ster) and less than 20 words (among them *crag* "rock", *down* "hill", *dun* "colour", *bin* "a chest for corn"), Celtic left no lasting impression on the English language. Why did it have so little influence? Language scholars believe the English refused to adopt the Celtic language because they considered it the language of an inferior people. The Celts, on the other hand, were forced to speak English to communicate with their rulers. After a time, the Celts in Britain found their language no longer useful.

It is necessary to note that the words *bard, brogue, plaid, whisky* are all of the Celtic origin, but none of them existed in the English of the Anglo-Saxon period.

W.Skeat registers 165 words borrowed directly or indirectly from the Celts, including in this number words of uncertain origin supposed to be derived from the Celtic. Here are a few words Celtic in origin which became international: *budget, career, clan*, *flannel, mackintosh*, etc. Some of the early Latin borrowings (*street, wall, mill, kitchen*) came through Celtic.

§ 2.2 The Latin element in the English vocabulary

The Latin influence on English begins very early and lasts to the present day. Though a dead language nowadays, Latin has been adopted for scientific terms. Latin terms are understood by scientists all over the world.

All in all about a quarter of the Latin vocabulary has been taken over by English. We must distinguish between those Latin words borrowed through immediate contact, that is orally, at the early stages of language development and those that came through writing. The first are mostly monosyllabic and denote things of everyday importance while the latter are mostly long bookish words.

Oral borrowings belong to ***the first Latin layer***. The Germanic tribes of which the Angles and Saxons formed part, had been in contact with Roman civilization and had adopted several Latin words long before their invasion into Britain. Among the words of early loans from Latin are such as: wine (L. vinum), colony (colonia), cup (cuppa), pepper (piper), kettle (catillus), chest (cista), street (via strata), etc.

To this period belong English geographical names ending in *chester, cester* or *caster:* Manchester, Lancaster, etc. (from Latin castrum – a fortified camp).

The ***second layer*** of Latin borrowings is due to the 7th century, when the people of England were converted to Christianity. Here belong such words as: altar, chapter, candle, creed, cross, etc. At this period English adopted also some names of many article of foreign production the use of which was brought into England by the Romans, e.g. *marble, chalk, linen*, etc. Among Latin loans of the second period we also find such words as *elephant, laurel, lily, fiddle, palm, pine*, etc.

Thus since Old English times there has been a gradual but constant adoption of Latin words. This is partly due to two great historical events: the Norman Conquest in 1066 and the Revival of Learning or Renaissance. The influence of the Norman Conquest upon the English language is often called the Latin of ***the third period***.

In addition to the great stock of Latin words that had entered English through French, or under its influence, there are a great many words taken directly from Latin without change, e.g. *animal, genius, omnibus, nucleus, series, species, senior, junior, etc.*

The fourth layer of Latin loans includes abstract and scientific words adopted through writing. To this layer belongs the main part of the international element of the English vocabulary: *affidavit, bona fide, bonus, impetus, recipe, stimulus, superior, veto, etc.*

§ 2.3 The Greek element in the English vocabulary

A great many Greek words came into English chiefly through Latin. But the influx of Greek words on a large scale did not begin until the time of the revival of Learning. These are mostly bookish borrowings, scientific and technical terms.

Greek borrowings were more or less latinized in form. They are spelt and pronounced not as in Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them.

Among numerous Greek borrowings there are terms for various fields of science, such as:

Literature and art: epos, elegy, ode, tragedy, scene, etc.

Linguistics: archaisms, etymology, homonymy, idiom, polysemy, etc.

Sports: gymnastics;

Physics: pneumatic, thermometer;

Philosophy and mathematics: basis, category, diagram;

Medicine: rheumatism, adenoids, psychiatry, etc.

Botany: balsam, cactus, parasite, organism, etc.

Quite a number of proper names are also Greek in origin, e.g.: George, Eugene, Helene, Sophie, Peter, etc.

Words of Greek are recognized by their specific spelling (**ch, ph, pn, rh** as in *character, philosophy, pneumonia, rhetoric*), by the suffixes (-**ist, -ics, -ism, ize**, **osis**, etc. *theorist, linguistics, philosophize, neurosis*).

§ 2.4 The Scandinavian element.

The Scandinavian invasion of England which influenced the English language began in 878. The Danes occupied a great part of the country and intermingled with the native population. At this period many Scandinavian words came into the English language but as there was great similarity between the languages the Scandinavian element in English remains comparatively obscure. There is a special difficulty in the question of etymology of Scandinavian words. In distinguishing them we may apply the criterion of sound. Numerous Germanic words in English with the **sk** sound are of Scandinavian origin (*skill, whisk, scowl*). It is supposed that there are about **650** Scandinavian root-words in Modern English. Among them we find such everyday words as*: anger, calf, cake, egg, gate, kid, flat, ill, loose, mean, ugly, wrong, cast,*

call, drown, die, guess, get, give, seem, etc. The pronouns *same* and *they, their* and *them* are due to Scandinavian influence.

Among other Scandinavian borrowings are: 1). geographical place-names: *Whitby, Althorp, Braithwaite*, etc. 2). law-terms, 3) words that mainly survive in dialects and have pairs in English: kirk (church), kist (chest), mum (mouth), etc.

§ 2.5 The French element

The French layer comes second after Latin and makes about 25% of the English language. It is due, firstly, to the Norman Conquest that began in 1066. This is one of the most important dates in the history of England. The conquerors remained masters of the country for several centuries. They occupied the most important places in the government, at the court and in the church. French was spoken by the upper classes of English society. Common people stuck to the English language, but it couldn't stop the flooding of the English vocabulary with Norman French words that began in the 13th century.

French loans in the English vocabulary may be subdivided into two main groups:

early loans: 12th-15th centuries;

later loans: beginning from the 16th century.

Early French loans were thoroughly assimilated in English and made to conform to the rules of English pronunciation. They were, as a rule, simple short words, e.g. **age, air, arm, boil, calm, chaise, clear, course, crime**, etc.

It is necessary to distinguish between loan words from the Norman dialect and those from the central dialect of France (that came into English later and mostly through writing). The Normans were of Scandinavian origin and that's why their French had some phonetical peculiarities. Thus:

the [**oi**] diphthong of the central dialect corresponded to [**ei**] in the Norman dialect, e.g. *voile (Centr.) – veile (Nor.)*

the Central **eu** corresponded to the Norman **u, ou**: *fleur - flour- flower (E)*

the Central **ch**, **j** corresponded to the Norman **k, g**: *jardin – gardin – garden (E)*

words of Germanic origin in the Norman dialect retain the initial **w** while in the central dialect the initial **w** developed into **gw, gu**: *guerre – werre – war.*

Among later French borrowings we find numerous Latin and Greek words which entered the English Vocabulary in the epoch of the French bourgeois revolution, e.g. *democrat, aristocrat, revolutionary, revolutionize, royalism*; **law terms**: accuse, amend, justice, plaintiff, prison, jury, etc; **military terms**: army, peace, assault, lieutenant, officer, sergeant; **religious terms:** chaplain, faith, saint, clergy, pray**, preach, sermon; terms of rank**: duke, duchess, prince, baron; **terms of art and architecture**: colour, image, design, paint, garment, tower, column, mansion.

In the 18-th century were borrowed words connected with literature: novelist, publisher, magazine, editor, etc.

Later adoptions are characterized by the following phonetical peculiarities:

a). Keeping the stress on the last syllable, e.g. *finance, supreme;*

b). **ch** pronounced as [ʃ], e.g. *chauffeur, chic, machine*;

c). **g** before **e** and **i** pronounced as [ﻙ], e.g. *regime, bourgeois, massage*;

d). ou pronounced as [u], e.g. ***rouge***;

e). **eau** – [ou], e.g. *chateau*;

f). Final constant **p, s, t** not pronounced as in *coup, debris, ragout, ballet*.

Borrowed words from many other languages attest to various types of cultural contact and serve often to fill the lexical gaps such contact inevitably brings. Over 120 languages are on record as sources of the English vocabulary.

From **Japanese** come *karate, judo, hara-kiri, kimono, tycoon*.

From **Arabic** – *algebra, algorithm, fakir, giraffe, sultan, harem, mattress*.

From **Turkish** – *yogurt, kiosk, tulip*.

From **Eskimo** – *kayak, igloo, anorak*.

From **Yiddish** – *goy, knish, latke, schmuck*.

From **Hindi** – *thug, punch, shampoo*.

§ 2.6 Italian borrowings

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14th century, it was the word *bank* (from the Italian *banko – bench*). Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called *banco rotta* from which the English word *bankrupt* originated. In the 17th century some geological terms were borrowed: *volcano, granite, bronze, lava*. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: *manifesto, bulletin*.

From Italian come words connected with music and plastic arts, such as *piano, alto, bravo, ballerina, solo, duet, opera, violin* as well as *motto, casino, mafia, artichoke*, etc.

Among the 20th-century Italian borrowings we can mention: *gazette, incognito, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, dilettante, grotesque, graffiti,* etc.

§ 2.7 Spanish borrowings

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:

a) trade terms: cargo, embargo;

b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar;

c) names of vegetables and fruit: *tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot*, etc.

§ 2.8 German borrowings

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e.g. in some geological terms, such as: *cobalt, bismuth, zinc, quarts, gneiss, wolfram*. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: *iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten,* etc.

In the period of the Second World War the following language units were borrowed: *Luftwaffe, SS-man, gestapo, gas chamber* and others.

§ 2.9 Dutch borrowings

Holland and England have had constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Dutch words were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14th century, such as: *freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak* and many others.

§ 2.10 Russian borrowings

Russian words began to penetrate into the English vocabulary as early as the Old English period. They were brought by the first travellers and the tradesmen, e.g.: *mead* (OE meodu = honey), *sable*.

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: *rouble, copeck, pood;* words relating to the nature, such as: *taiga, tundra, steppe*; animals and fish: *borzoi, beluga, sterlet, sable*; vehicles: *troika, troshki, kibitka*; clothes: *sarafan, shuba*; beverages – *vodka, kvass*, etc.

There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Russian literature of the 19th century, such as: *moujik, duma, volost*, etc. and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots: *nihilist, intelligenzia, Decembrist*, etc.

After the October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian. They were connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, e.g. *collectivization, udarnik, Komsomol* and also translation loans, e.g. *shock worker, collective farm, five-year plan*.

Among later Russian borrowings there are words connected with reforms in the Soviet Union undertaken by M. Gorbachev: *perestroika, glasnost, khozraschot, nomenklatura, apparatchik,* etc.

§ 3. Etymological doublets

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As a result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called etymological doublets. Two words at present slightly differentiating in meaning may have originally been dialectal variants of the same word. Thus, we find in doublets traces of Old English dialects. Examples are: the verbs *drag* and *draw*. They both come from OE *dragan*.

In English there are some other groups of etymological doublets:

a) **Latino-French doublets**

Latin	*English from Latin*	*English from French*
uncia	inch	ounce
camera	camera	chamber

b) **Franco-French (doublets borrowed from different dialects of French)**

Norman	*Paris*
canal	channel
castle	chateau

c) **Scandinavian-English**

Scandinavian   English
skirt   shirt
scabby   shabby
screech   shriek

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets. From the French word *genteel – любезный, благородный* developed etymological doublets: *gentle – мягкий, вежливый* and *genteel – благородный. Castle – замок* and *chateaux – шато, большой загородный дом* are also French etymological doublets.

§ 4. International words

As the process of borrowing is mostly connected with the appearance of new notions which they serve to express, it is natural that the borrowing is seldom limited to one language.

Words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source are called international words. International words play an especially important part in different terminological systems including the vicabulary of science, industry and art. The origin of this vocabulary reflects the history of world culture. E.g. the mankind's debt to Italy is reflected in the great number of words connected with archyecture, painting and music. Many Italian words belonging to these spheres became international: *allegro, andante, barcarole, opera*, etc.

The rate of change in technology, political, social and artistic life was greatly accelerated in the 20th century and so the number of international lexical units increased greatly, e.g. we can mention a number of words connected with the development of science: *antenna, antibiotics, cybernetics, gene, microelectronics*.

The international wordstock is also growing due to the influx of exotic borrowed words like: *anaconda, kraal, orang-outang, sari*, etc.

We find numerous English words in the field of sport: *football, out, match, tennis, time, ring, boots* and many others. There are English international words referring to clothing: *jersey, sweater, twed, pullover, shorts, leggins*, etc.

UNIT 4. THE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

A great many words in English have a composite nature and are made up of morphemes.

A **morpheme** is association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern. A morpheme is the smallest indivisible two-facet language unit but unlike a word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of a single morpheme.

There are two main types of morphemes: lexical and grammatical.
1) **Lexical morphemes** (also called root morphemes)

The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of the word: it has a very general and abstract lexical meaning common to a set of semantically related words constituting one word-cluster (*to build, builder, building*).

2) **Grammatical morphemes** (also called affixational morphemes). They can be subdivided into:

a) **Derivational morphemes** (or affixes) – they are used to build various types of words. Their characteristic feature is that most of them have the part-of-speech meaning. Derivational affixes are divided into ***prefixes*** (precede the root) and ***suffixes*** (follow the root): *unbearable*.

b) **Inflectional affixes** (or inflections) – they carry only grammatical meaning and are used for the formation only of word forms: *to read - reads.* In English there are such inflections: the plural inflection "-s" - *boy-boys*, the possessive inflection "'s"- *boy-boy's*, the Past Simple inflection "ed" – *walk–walked,* etc.

c) **Semi-affixes** – morphemes which stand midway between a root and an affix. A semi-affix can function as an independent full-meaning word and at the same time as an affix (a prefix or a suffix). E.g.: *ill – ill-bred, proof – waterproof, half – half-eaten, like – ladylike*.

The meaning of morphemes is always either lexical or grammatical and never both. In contrast to morphemes words usually combine both meanings. Cf.: *houses*-inflectional morpheme, plurality. In the words *house* and *speak* we see no inflectional morphemes. The grammatical form of the words is determined by the absence of a special visible inflection. The word *house* conveys the category of number by the absence of '-s'.

There are also free and bound morphemes.

Free morphemes coincide with word-forms of independently functioning words. They can be found only among roots: morpheme *dress* **-** in the word *dress* is a free morpheme. In the word *unavoidable -'avoid'* is a free morpheme.

Bound morphemes are those which do not coincide with separate word-forms, so all derivational morphemes are bound, e.g. *unthinkable*.

Root-morphemes may be both free and bound. The morpheme *horr-* in the words *horror, horrible, horrify* is a bound morpheme because there is no such word as '*horr'* in English.

Semi-affixes are always semi-bound (or semi-free); they can never be purely free or bound.

The morphemes may have different phonemic shapes. In the word-cluster *please, pleasing, pleasure, pleasant* the root-morpheme is represented by phonemic shapes **/pli:z/** (in *please* and *pleasing*), **/pleʒ/** in *pleasure*, and **/plez/** in *unpleasant*. All the forms of the given morpheme that manifest alteration are called allomorphs of that morpheme or morpheme variants.

Allomorphs occur also among suffixes: ***-ion/, -tion/, -sion/, ation*** are the positional variants of one and the same suffix. Thus, an **allomorph** is systematic variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment.

Besides allomorphs there are a number of isomorphs in English. **Isomorphism** is a kind of lexical expression in which a stem expresses a conceptual category

without undergoing any morphological or syntactic change. E.g., the past tenses of the verbs *cut, hit, shut* are the same as the non-past tenses for the most persons and numbers. Similarly, the plurals of the nouns *fish, sheep, elk, deer* are the same as the singulars.

From the structural point of view words may be monomorphic (or root-words) and polymorphic. The latter are subdivided into: a) derived words and b) compound words according to the number of root-morphemes they have.

Derived words (derivatives) are formed by adding a word element (such as prefix, suffix, or combining form) to an already existing word, e.g. *ungrateful, sharply.*

Compounds are formed by combining separate words and consist of at least two root-morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes is not important, e.g. *hard-hearted.* There are a) **compounds-proper** (*hot-house, lamp-shade*) and b) **derivational compounds** (*cold-blooded*).

UNIT 5. WORD-BUILDING AND ENRICHMENT OF THE VOCABULARY

§ 1. Morphological word-building

Word-building or word-formation in its wide sense means the process of formation of words according to certain patterns. There are distinguished morphological, syntactical and syntactico-morphological types of word-building.

Morphological word-formation is characterized by a change in the morphological structure. It includes:

1. **Affixation** – forming new words by means of adding affixes, that is suffixes and prefixes, e.g. *wonderful, enjoy, boredom.*

In modern colloquial speech there is a tendency to use another type of affixes called *infixes* to form new words. An **infix** is an affix that is inserted inside the root of words. English has very few true infixes and those it does have are marginal. The infix *iz* or *izn* is characteristic of hip-hop slang, e.g. *I knizzow* is an intensified form of *I know* (I really know). To make a word more emphatic there is a tendency in English to use vulgar and emotional words as infixes. E.g.: *fan-bloody-tastic*, *guaran-damn-tee,* etc.

2. **Word-composition,** i.e. joining two or more stems to form a new word, e.g. *hogshead, Turkoman, Russo-Japanese, speedometer.*

3. **Shortening** (sometimes referred to as *contraction* or *clipping*), i.e. making a new lexical unit by means of omitting a certain part of a longer word, e.g. *amend – mend, fantasy – fancy, trigonometry – trig,* etc.

Shortening is often referred to as **abbreviation** though the latter almost in every case implies formation of a lexical unit by means of omission of all but initial letters in a group of words, e.g. *CIS, CIA, UFO,* etc. Here also belongs a special type of abbreviations called **acronyms**, e.g. *radar* – radio detection and ranging, *NATO*, etc.

Yet, in our opinion, we should regard these types as separate means of word-formation.

4. **Sound-gradation** (sometimes is referred to as ***sound-interchange***) – forming a new word by means of changing a root sound, either consonant (e.g. *excuse – excuse*, voiced in the verb and devoiced in the noun) or vowel (e.g. *brood – breed*) or both (e.g. *breathe – breath, live – life*).

5. **Semantic stress** (also known as ***stress-interchange*** or ***distinctive change***) – creation of a new word through a change of stress, e.g. *'present – pre'sent, 'conduct – con'duct*, etc.

6. **Reduplication** – forming a new word by means of a complete or partial repetition of the same stem (e.g. *goody-goody, chin-chin, mishmash, criss-cross, chow-chow, hurdy-gurdy*).

7. Back Formation (or ***disaffixation***) **-** forming a word by means of discarding a suffix (e.g. *to baby sit* from *baby-sitter, to beg* from *beggar, to edit* from *editor, to brainstorm* from *brainstorming, to diplome* from *diplomat*, *to reminisce* from *reminiscence*. Some linguists prefer to use the term **back-derivation** related to this type of word-formation.

7. **Blending** (often referred to as ***telescopism***) – forming a new word from the beginning of one word and the end of another (e.g. *smog* from *smoke* and *fog*, *motel* from *motorist* and *hotel*, etc.). Many linguists prefer to consider blending as a subtype of shortening.

§ 2. Syntactico-morphological and other minor types of word-building

1. **Substantivization** – an incomplete transition from an adjective or a participle to a (collective) noun (e.g. *the poor, the wounded, the rich, the two-year-olds*).

2. **Lexicalization** – or change of the lexical meaning of the plural forms of the nouns (*lines =poetry, colours = banner, pains = trying hard,* etc.)

3. **Conversion** – an affixless word-making device by which we mean converting a noun into a verb (*water – to water*), an adjective into a noun (my *native* town – *a native* of the town), a verb into a noun (*to swim – a swim*), etc. without any distinct ending.

4. **Syntactical word-building** where a combination of words is semantically and structurally isolated to form a word without any changes in the syntactical and semantic relations, e.g. *free-and-easy, man-at-arms, jack-in-the-box*, etc.

5. **Onomatopoeia** – creation of new words through sound imitation, e.g. *to bang, to hiss, to mew*.

Some lingusits also talk about such type of enriching a vocabulary as **commonization** – the process of making a common noun (sometimes a verb or an adjective) out of a proper noun (name). Others prefer to consider it a type of conversion. Cf: *a shylock* (for a greedy person).

Affixation and composition are generally considered the most productive means of word-building and they seem to have been such in the course of the whole history of English. Conversion and shortening come next, and these have become more productive lately than they used to be formerly.

All the other methods of word-building are much less productive and some of them dead, (e.g. sound gradation, stress-interchange).

UNIT 6. SEMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

§ 1. Monosemy and polysemy

All the words in a vocabulary fall into two categories: monosemantic and polysemantic words.

Monosemantic words are words having only one meaning. Such words are comparatively few in number, these are mainly scientific terms, such as *hydrogen, molecule,* etc.

The bulk of English words are *polysemantic*, that is to say possess more than one meaning (*polysemy* means plurality of meanings). In fact, the commoner the word the more meanings it has.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word *blanket* has the following meanings 'a woolen covering used on beds', 'a covering for keeping a horse warm', 'a covering of any kind' (*a blanket of snow*).

The development of each new meaning is always motivated. In most cases polysemy results from transference of meaning on the basis of similarity (nearness of concepts), exaggeration, revelation of meaning, its extension or narrowing. The original meaning is generally concrete and primitive while the derived ones tend to be more abstract, and complex.

e.g. hand
1) a part of a human body
2) skill, art – e.g. He's got *a hand* for carpentry.
3) influence, power – e.g. She keeps him in hand.
4) worker – e.g. He is a factory hand.
5) ship's crew (pl.) – e.g. All hands on deck!
6) side, situation – e.g. On the one hand…on the other hand
7) a pointer in a watch/clock – e.g. The hand approached ten.

Every polysemantic word has its principal meaning and secondary ones. Apart from some context, in an isolated position, every word is always understood in its central, direct meaning, whereas its secondary meanings are realized only in the context where the meaning is fully determined.

The secondary meanings of words are always connected with the central signification.

§ 2. Synonymy

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but alike in their meaning.

English is very rich in synonyms, because it has a lot of borrowings, e.g. *hearty* (native) – *cordial* (borrowing).

Synonyms can be interchangeable in certain contexts, but for the most part, they have different shades of meaning allowing the speaker to choose which word to use in this or that situation. Therefore almost all groups of synonyms have their synonymic dominant, that is the most general word in the group, a word that has in its meaning the elements of the meaning common to all the synonyms included in the group (as *to begin* in the group of *to begin, to commence, to start, to initiate*).

There are distinguished 3 main types of synonyms (this classification was elaborated by academician V.Vinogradov):

Ideographic (relative) synonyms – words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning. E.g. *courage – bravery; fame – glory – repute; sweet – nice – lovely; interpreter – translator.* Synonyms of this kind are very numerous in English

Stylistic synonyms – words differing in stylistic characteristics. Such words differ in usage and style. E.g. *examination* (official) – *exam* (colloquial); *to commence* (mostly on an official occasion) – *to begin* (in everyday speech). They also show the attitude of the speaker towards the event, object or process described: *to die – to depart – to kick the bucket – to go off the hooks; to chat – to babble – to jabber; face – mug.*

Absolute synonyms – words coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics. E.g. *mirror – looking-glass*; *fatherland – homeland; to moan – to groan*. Absolute synonyms are very rare because in the course of language development numerous old names for one and the same object underwent the process of differentiation and the words came to have either a different shade of meaning or different usage.

It should be noted that one and the same word can belong to different groups of synonyms (*to wish* is a stylistic synonym in the group of *to want – to wish* and an ideographic synonym in the group *to wish – to desire – to long for).*

Besides these 3 major types linguists also distinguish *phraseological synonyms.*

Phraseological synonyms are those which do not necessarily differ materially in their meanings or stylistic value but differ in their combinative power.

Thus, in such groups as *few – little; many – much* we can speak not so much of any immediate difference in the meaning of words as of their difference in application (*much time, little milk, many children, few books).* Such groups as *sunny – solar, moonlit – lunar* can illustrate the difference in application quite vividly. We say *a sunny day, moonlit night,* but we should say *the solar system, a lunar eclipse.*

Though *to get up* and *to rise* are very close in meaning, we prefer to apply the first to people and the second to the sun rising. We apply both *high* and *tall* to a tree but we do not apply 'high' to a man though we do say 'a tall man'.

§ 3. Antonymy

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

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives (e.g. high – low; strong – weak; friendly – hostile).

Verbs take second place (to lose – to find; to weep – to laugh). Nouns are not rich in antonyms though we can also find here a certain amount of such words (love – hatred, joy – grief)

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into 2 groups: *absolute or root antonyms* (*late – early, old – young*) and *derivational antonyms (to please – to displease, professional – non-professional).* Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes.

Some linguists, however, do not consider words formed by means of adding negative affixes to be antonyms.

It is more or less universally recognized that among the cases that are traditionally described as antonyms there are the following groups:

1) *Contradictories* which represent the type of semantic relations that exist between the pairs like *dead* and *alive, single* and *married, perfect* and *imperfect.* To use one of the terms is to contradict the other and to use not before one of them is to make it semantically equivalent to the other, e.g. *not dead = alive, not single = married.*

Among contradictories we find a subgroup of words of the type *young – old; big – small,* etc. The difference between these and the antonymic pairs described above lies in the fact that to say 'not young' is not always to say 'old' – these words do not represent absolute values.

2) *Contraries* differ from contradictories mainly because contradictories admit no possibility between them: one is either *single* or *married, dead* or *alive*, whereas contraries admit such possibilities. This may be observed in *cold – hot*, and *cool – warm* which seem to be intermediate members. Thus we may regard as antonyms not only *cold* and *hot*, but also *cold* and *warm.*

Contraries may be opposed to each other by the absence or presence of one of the components of meaning like sex or age. This can be illustrated by such pairs as *man – woman, man- boy.*

3) *Incompatibles.* Semantic relations of incompatibility exist among the antonyms with the common component of meaning and may be described as the reverse of hyponymy, i.e. as the relations of exclusion but not of contradiction. To say *morning* is to say *not afternoon, not evening, not night.* The negation of one member of this set however does not imply semantic equivalence with the other but excludes the possibility of the other words of this set. A relation of incompatibility may be observed between color terms since the choice of *red,* e.g. entails the exclusion of *black, blue, yellow,* etc. Naturally not all color terms are incompatible. Semantic relations between *scarlet* and *red* are those of hyponymy (By *hyponymy* is meant a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, e.g. *vehicle* includes *car, bus, taxi; oak* implies *tree,* etc.)

§ 4. Homonymy

Homonyms are words which are identical in sound and spelling, or, at least, in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning. E.g.: I. *ball*, n. – a sphere; any spherical body; II. *ball,* n. – a large dancing party.

There exist various classifications of homonyms. One of the most well-known ones is the classification of Walter Skeat. Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups:

1) *perfect homonyms* – words identical both in sound and spelling, e.g. *school* – 'косяк рыбы' and 'школа';

2) *homographs* – words identical in spelling but pronounced differently, e.g. *bow* [bau] 'поклон' and *bow* [bəu] 'лук';

3) *homophones* – words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. *night* 'ночь' and *knight* 'рыцарь'.

Other linguists propose to divide homonyms into *full* and *partial*. When words are homonymous in all their forms: we observe *full homonymy* of the paradigm of two or more different words:

    bail   1. залог
         2. барьер между лошадями } bail, bails
         4. ручка (ведра)

In other cases the whole of the paradigm is not identical, only some forms are homonymous:

    bail   1. залог – bail, bails
3. вычерпывать воду – bail, bails, bailed, bailing

This is *partial homonymy*.

The bulk of full homonyms are to be found within the same parts of speech; partial homonymy, as a rule, can be observed in word-forms belonging to different parts of speech.

According to the type of meaning homonyms may be classified into: *lexical*, *lexico-grammatical*, and *grammatical*. Let's compare two homonyms: bow^1 (поклон) and bow^2 (лук) – bow, bows. As we see their paradigms coincide and they differ only in their lexical meaning. Such homonyms are called *lexical homonyms*. If we compare cow^1 *n.* (корова) – cow, cows and cow^2 *v.* (запугивать) – cow, cows, cowed, cowing, we see that they differ not only in their lexical, but also grammatical meanings as well (one is a verb, while the other a noun). Such homonyms are called *lexico-grammatical*.

Modern English has many homonymic word-forms differing only in their grammatical meaning. Thus the form of the past tense of most English verbs is homonymous with the form of participle 2, e.g. asked – asked; the possessive case and the common case of English nouns are also homonymous: sister's *sg.* and sisters *pl.* Such homonyms are called *grammatical homonyms*. It may be easily observed that grammatical homonymy is the homonymy of different word-forms of one and the same word.

§ 5. Neologisms

At the present moment English is developing very rapidly and there is so called *neology blowup*. R.Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to *NYD* says that on average 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English.

Neologisms are 1) words and expressions used for new phenomena, objects, processes, that is, new concepts that appear in the course of language development; 2) new meanings of the already existing words; 3) new names for old concepts.

Neologisms are a relative category: those words which were considered to be neologisms 100 or 50 years ago (*television, computer)* lost their novelty today thus ceasing to be neologisms.

Neologisms appear in a language due to the development of industry and technology, discovery of new lands, social and political events, etc.

There exist various classifications of neologisms: semantic classification, classification based on the ways of forming neologisms, etc.

According to the way neologisms are formed they may be subdivided into: phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms, syntactical neologisms, etc.

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, e.g. *yuck* (interjection used to express repulsion)

Among neologisms we find a lot of words built by means of abbreviation and acronymy: e.g. *SCUM* (a self-centered urban male who has no interest in marriage or children), *SARS* (severe acute respiratory syndrome)

§ 6. Hyponymy and paronymy

Hyponym (Greek "under" + "name") is a word the meaning of which may be said to be included in that of another word.

Hyponymy is a paradigmatic relation of sense between a more specific, or subordinate lexeme, and a more general, or superordinate, lexeme, for example *cow* is a hyponym of *animal*, *rose* is a hyponym of *flower, crimson* of *red*, etc.

And further, since *rose, tulip, daffodil*, etc. each is a hyponym of *flower* they are co-hyponyms of the same lexeme.

Paronyms are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged. This is the case with the verbs *to affect* ("to influence") and *to effect* ("to bring about", "to result in"); with *policy* and *politics*; *moral* and *morale*; *human* and *humane*.

UNIT 7. PHRASEOLOGY

§ 1. Free word groups versus set-phrases

The vocabulary of a language includes not only words but also free word combinations and phraseological units.

How to distinguish phraseological units from free word-groups is the most controversial problem in the field of phraseology (a branch of linguistics).

The first attempt to place the study of various word-groups on a scientific basis was made by the outstanding Russian linguist A.A. Schachmatov in his world-famous

book Syntax. Schachmatov's work was followed by Academician V.V. Vinogradov. Investigation of English phraseology was initiated by prof. A.V. Koonin.

Phraseological units are usually defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. American and British lexicographers call such units 'idioms', but this term is applied mostly to a certain type of phraseological unit. Besides the term 'phraseological unit' there exist some other terms denoting more or less the same linguistic phenomenon: 'set-expressions', 'set-phrases', 'fixed word-groups', 'collocations'.

The essential features of phraseological units are stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation whereas components of free word-groups may vary according to the needs of communication.

Thus, for example, the constituent red in the free word-group *red flower* may, if necessary, be substituted for by any other adjective denoting color ('blue', 'white', etc), without essentially changing the denotational meaning of the word-group (a flower of a certain color). In the phraseological unit *red tape* (bureaucratic methods) such substitution is impossible, as a change of the adjective would involve a complete change in the meaning of the whole group. A *blue (black, white) tape* would mean 'a tape of a certain color'.

Grammatical structure of phraseological units is to a certain extent also stable. Thus, though the structural formula of the word-groups *red flower* and *red tape* is identical *(A + N)*, the noun 'flower' may be used in the plural ('red flowers'), whereas no such change is possible in the phraseological unit 'red tape'; 'red tapes' would then denote 'tapes of red color' but not 'bureaucratic methods'.

There exist different classifications of phraseological units: according to the structure, according to the degree of motivation, according to the ways they are formed, etc. Some of the classifications are given below

§ 2. Ways of forming phraseological units

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group:

a) the majority of phraseological units are built by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups. E.g. *launching pad* – in its direct meaning in cosmic terminology 'стартовая площадка', in its transferred meaning – 'отправной пункт'

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transferring their meaning (simile, contrast, metaphor), e.g. *granny farm* – *'пансионат для престарелых', Troyan horse – 'компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера'*

c) by means of rhyming, *by hook or crook* ('by any possible means'), *high and dry* ('left without help')

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, it is especially characteristic of interjections, e.g. '*My aunt!*', '*Well, I never!*'.

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. *odds and ends* was formed from *odd ends*

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. *in brown study* where both components preserve their archaic meanings

g) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. *to have butterflies in the stomach* 'испытывать волнение'

h) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. *corridors of power* (Snow), *American dream (*Alby), *the winds of change* (Mc Millan)

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit. They are:

a) conversion, e.g. *to vote with one's feet* was converted into *vote with one's feet (expressing a protest by going away)*

b) analogy, e.g. *Curiosity killed the cat* was transferred into *Care killed the cat*

c) contrast, e.g. *thin cat* ('a poor person') was formed by contrasting it with *fat cat* ('a rich person')

d) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin), or as phonetic borrowings, e.g. *bona fide* (Latin).

§ 3. Semantic classification of phraseological units

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. According to Vinogradov's classification phraseological units can be divided into *phraseological fusions, phraseological unities* and *phraseological collocations.*

Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated word-groups, such as *red tape* (бюрократия), *kick the bucket* (умереть), *to show the white feather* (струсить, проявить малодушие). The meaning of phraseological fusions cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor on which the shift of the meaning was based has lost its clarity and is obscure.

Phraseological unities are partially non-motivated as their meaning can usually be guessed through the metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit. E.g. *to wash one's dirty linen in public, at a snail's pace, to play the first fiddle*

Phraseological collocations are motivated but they are made up of words possessing specific lexical valency. In phraseological collocations variability of member-words is strictly limited. For example, *bear a grudge* may be changed into *bear malice,* but not into *bear a liking.* We can say *take a liking (fancy)* but not *take hatred (disgust).*

§ 4. Structural classification of phraseological units

Prof. A.I.Smirnitsky worked out a detailed structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compared with affixed words because affixed words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among one-top units he points out three structural types:

a) units of the type *to give up* (verb+postposition type), e.g. *nose out* – разузнавать, разнюхивать, *to sandwich in* - втиснуться

b) units of the type *to be tired*, e.g. to *be aware of, to be interested in*

c) prepositional-nominal phraseological units, e.g. *on the doorstep* (quite near), *on the point of*

Among two-top units he points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal, such as: *first night, red tape, high road*

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, e.g. *to read between the lines, to speak BBC, to fall in love*

c) phraseological repetitions, such as: *now and never, part and parcel.* Such units can also be built on antonyms, e.g. *ups and downs.*

UNIT 8. LEXICOGRAPHY

Lexicography is a branch of applied linguistics dealing with the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

Lexicographical theory makes use of the achievements of linguistic fundamentals; each individual entry is made up in accordance with the current knowledge in the various fields of language study.

§ 1. The history of dictionary making

The beginnings of dictionary history are concerned with the international language of medieval European civilization – Latin.

The next stage of development, attained in England around 1400, was the collection of the isolated glosses into what is called a ***glossarium***, a kind of very early Latin-English dictionaries. A breakdown of Latin as an international language and the rapid development of international trade led to an immediate demand for foreign-language dictionaries. There appeared *Cooper's Thesaurus* (1565) and *Florio's Italian-English dictionary* (1599), *Cokeram's The English Dictionary* (1623), which was entitles 'An Interpreter of Hard Words'.

The first unilingual dictionary, a little book of about 120 pages, compiled by Robert Cawdrey, was published in 1604 under the title of *A Table Alphabetical.* R.Cawdrey concentrated on 'scholarly' words.

In the 17th century, with printing well established, the first real English dictionary of importance appeared. It was John Kersey who was the first to attempt a universal dictionary of the language. Kersey is credited with producing several fine dictionaries between 1702 and 1718, all stressing the common words and aiming at

the ordinary reader. His innovations were noted and borrowed by Nathaniel Bailey, who compiled a dictionary of 950 pages and about 40,00 entries. Bailey's dictionary – *An Universal Etymological English Dictionary* (1721) – was followed later by one of the most successful of all early dictionaries. This was *A Dictionary of Modern English Language* (1755) written by Dr. Samuel Johnson. Johnson had spent 8 years on the dictionary; he wrote the definitions of 41,000 words illustrating their meanings with 114,000 quotations.

The chief contribution of the 18th and 19th centuries to dictionary making were: (1) recording of literary vocabulary, (2) accurate recording of pronunciation, (3) the recording of word history through dated quotations and (4) the development of encyclopaedic word-books.

The greatest of all dictionaries, the *New English Dictionary* (*NED*) in 12 volumes, covered 450,000 words and 1,800,000 quotations. The NED's first volume appeared in 1884, the last in 1928. In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title *The Oxford English Dictionary* (*OED*) and contained 13 volumes.

The first American dictionaries were unpretentious little school-books. The most important date in American lexicography is 1828. The work that makes it important is Noah Webster's *An American Dictionary of the English language* in two volumes, the predecessor of all modern American dictionaries. His main innovations included three items: reform of spelling, influence on pronunciation, and Americanization of the vocabulary.

§ 2. Classification of dictionaries

There are many different types of English dictionaries. First of all they may be divided into two main groups: ***encyclopaedic*** (describe objects, phenomena, people, etc. and give information about them) and ***linguistic*** (describe words, their origin and usage).

A linguistic dictionary is a book of words in a language usually listed alphabetically with pronunciation, definitions, etymologies and other linguistic information or with their equivalents in another language or other languages. The main function of a dictionary is to give the meanings of words. Since a single word may have many meanings, an entry covering it must have a matching number of definitions. Some dictionaries put definitions in historical order: the earliest meaning first, the latest last. Others base order on frequency of use, the most common meaning first, and the least common last.

Linguistic dictionaries may be classified according to different criteria:

1) According to the nature of the word-list all dictionaries are divided into ***restricted*** and ***unrestricted***. To restricted dictionaries belong phraseological and terminological dictionaries (*A.V.Kunin's English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary*), dictionaries of new words (e.g.: *John Ayto. Twentieth Century Words*), dialectal dictionaries (e.g. *The English Dialect Dictionary by Joseph Wright*), etc. Unrestricted (or ***unabridged***) dictionaries contain lexical units from various spheres of life, they are unrestricted in their word-list and general in the information they

contain (e.g. *The Oxford English Dictionary, The New English-Russian Dictionary* edited by prof. I.R.Galperin, etc.).

2) The second principle according to which we classify dictionaries is the information given about each item. All linguistic dictionaries fall into two groups: *general* – presenting a wide range of data about the vocabulary items in ordinary use and ***specialized*** (or ***special***) dictionaries, those restricting themselves to one particular aspect.

To general dictionaries belong two most widely used types of dictionaries, i.e. explanatory dictionaries (e.g. *Webster's dictionaries, the Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, etc.) and parallel or translation dictionaries (e.g. the *Russian-English Dictionary* under prof. Smirnitsky's general direction).

Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries of synonyms, collocations, slang, pronunciation, etc.

3) In accordance with the language in which information is given all types of dictionaries may be ***monolingual, bilingual*** and ***polyglot***, i.e. the information may be given in the same language or in another language.

4) According to the intended user we differentiate ***learner's dictionaries*** (*The Random House College Dictionary, The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by Hornby A.S. et al*.) and those designed ***for the general public*** (e.g. *The Thorndike-Century Junior Dictionary*, *Webster's New Elementary Dictionary*, etc.).

Part 5
GRAMMATICAL ASPECTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

UNIT 1. THEORETICAL GRAMMAR: ITS AIMS AND PERIODIZATION

The aim of theoretical grammar is to analyze scientifically and define the grammatical categories of the language and study the peculiarities of grammatical formation of utterances out of words in the process of speech.

The term 'grammar' goes back through French and Latin to a Greek word which may be translated as 'art of writing'. But quite early in the history of Greek scholarship this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language.

There does not exist a generally accepted periodization of the history of English grammar but it is tentatively divided into 4 periods. The characteristic feature of each period is the rise and development of a certain type of grammatical description.

1) Descriptive grammar. Until the 17th c. the term 'grammar' in English meant the study of Latin. The first Latin grammar with explanations in English, written by William Lily, was published in the first half of the 16th c. However, it was far from being ideal, as the structure of English is in many respects different from Latin (both in morphology and syntax).

2) Prescriptive grammar. The age of it begins in the 2nd half of the 18th c. The aim of prescriptive grammar was to reduce the English language to rules and set up a standard of correct usage.

3) The rise of classical scientific grammar. By the end of the 19th c. prescriptive grammar had reached the highest level of its development. A need was felt for a grammar of a higher type, which could give a scientific explanation of the grammatical phenomena. The appearance of H.Sweet's 'New English Grammar' met this demand.

4) Structural grammars. Here all other types of grammar are criticized, and at the same time are combined. The structural approach assumes that whatever 'grammatical meanings' there are, they are definitely conveyed by signals; that these signals consist of structures, identified by contrastive patterns of functional structural 'units' and that these patterns can be described in terms of the contrastive arrangements and forms of these functioning units

UNIT 2. WORD-CLASS THEORY (PARTS OF SPEECH)

§ 1. The main principles of classification into parts of speech

The words of language, according to various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant classes. The traditional grammatical classes of words are called "parts of speech".

The term "parts of speech" is traditional and conventional. What is meant by "a part of speech" is a type of word differing from other types in a point or points. For example, the verb is a type of word different from other types in that point that it alone has the grammatical category of tense.

The classification of parts of speech is based on a general definition of the principles. They are three in number: 1) meaning (semantic criterion); 2) form (formal criterion); 3) function (functional criterion).

By meaning we do not mean the individual meaning of each separate word (its lexical meaning), but the meaning common to all the words of the given class. The meaning of the noun is "thingness". This applies to all nouns. The meaning of the verb as a type of word is that of "process"

By form we mean the morphological characteristics of a type of word. The noun is characterized by the category of number (singular and plural), the verb – by tense, mood.

Several types of words (prepositions, conjunctions and others) are characterized by invariability. The formal criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subjects of a part of speech.

By function we mean the syntactical properties of word. They are subdivided into two: its method of combining with other words and its function in the sentence. The first criterion deals with phrases; the second with sentence structure.

For example, a verb combines with a following noun (*write letters*) and also with a following adverb (*write quickly*) the syntactic function of a verb in a sentence is that of a predicate.

§ 2. Different approaches to the classification of parts of speech

The theory of parts of speech, though considered to be a part of morphology, involves some syntactical points.

L.V. Sherba's approach to the classification of parts of speech is a traditional one. He took into consideration three aspects according to which all the words should have: 1) lexical meaning; 2) morphological forms; 3) syntactical function.

A part of speech should have a natural meaning, the same paradigm and should perform the same function in the sentence.

B. Ilyish divided the whole word-stock into 2 groups: 1) notional and 2) formal parts of speech. To the **notional** parts of speech we refer nouns, verbs, pronouns, statives. To the **formal** group we refer prepositions, modal verbs, perhaps, participles.

B. Ilyish refers to the statives such words as: *asleep, awake, afraid* (stative is a part of speech expressing the state a subject is in; it is characterized by the prefix **_a-_**). Statives are invariable. They can perform the function of a predicative in the sentence – *I'm asleep*; or an attribute – *a man asleep.*

Formal words, according to the theory, perform a linking function, semantic rather than syntactic

Non-traditional approach:

Henry Sweet divided all the words into two large groups: 1) **declinable**, that is capable of inflexion and 2) **indeclinable**, i.e. incapable of inflexion.

The declinable parts of speech fall under the three main divisions: 1) nouns; 2) adjectives; 3) verbs.

Pronouns are a special class of nouns and adjectives, distinguished as noun-pronouns (*I, they*) and adjective-pronouns (*my, that*). Numerals are another special class of nouns and adjectives. He distinguishes noun-numerals (*three* in *three of us*) and adjective-numerals (in *three men*). Verbals are a class of words intermediate between verbs on the one hand, and nouns and adjectives on the other hand.

Indeclinable words comprise adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. A lot of indeclinables (particles) are used only as adjunct-words (обстоятельственное слово, определение)

O.Jespersen introduced a new theory "A Theory of Three Ranks". According to this theory each word may be primary, secondary, tertiary, quaternary and quinary. He considers that some words can be primary in a phrase and the same word can be primary in a sentence. He gives:

          III   II   I
a) a furiously barking   dog
        I   II   III
b) a dog   barks   furiously

He considers the word *dog* to have the chief idea in a phrase (or a sentence), that's why he considers this word to be primary. Besides, he has another classification which resembles the traditional classification to some extent:

1)   substantives (including proper names);
2)   adjectives;
3)   pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)
4)   verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of verbals);
5)   participles (this class comprises what is generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections)

The 5th class may be negatively characterized as made-up of all those that cannot find any place in any of the first 4 classes.

Charles Fries took into consideration a position of a word in a sentence. Thus, he took several examples to illustrate his point of view saying that all the words that can substitute the word ***concert*** in the sentence "***The concert was good there***" without making the sentence non-marked, can be referred to class "a".

Any word that can replace the word ***was*** in the sentence can be referred to class "b". Any word that can replace the word ***good*** can be referred to class "c". And any word that can take the place of the word ***there*** can be referred to class "d". Besides these 4 classes he distinguishes 15 more smaller groups.

UNIT 3. THE NOUN

§1.   The noun and its properties. Different classes of nouns

The noun as a part of speech is a word expressing substance. In the concept of substance we include names of living beings (*boy, girl, bird*), lifeless things (*table, chair, book*) and names of abstract notions: qualities, states, actions (*kindness, strength, sleep, fear, conversation, fight*)

The noun is the main nominative part of speech.

The most characteristic substantive function of the noun is that of the subject in the sentence. The function of the object in the sentence is also typical for the noun. The noun can also perform other syntactic functions (of an attribute, an adverbial modifier and even a predicate). But these functions, though performed by the noun, are not characteristic of its substantive quality as much.

The noun is characterized by some special types of combinability. Typical of the noun is the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb (e.g. an entrance to the house, to turn round the corner).

English nouns can easily combine with one another (a cannon ball, a log cabin, a sports event)

As a part of speech the noun is characterized by a set of formal features. It has its word-building distinctions, including typical suffixes, compound stem models, conversation patterns.

It has the grammatical categories of gender, number, case, determination.

The nouns are subdivided into several subclasses. The most general subclasses of nouns are grouped into 4 oppositional pairs: 1) proper and common nouns. It is based on type of nomination; 2) animate and inanimate. It is based on "form of existence"; 3) human and non-human. It is based on "personal quality"; 4) countable and uncountable. It is based on "quantitative structure"

§ 2. Grammatical categories of the noun

When characterizing English nouns some grammarians speak about the existence of 4 categories: the category of gender, the category of case, the category of number and the category of definiteness and indefiniteness which is represented by the corresponding articles. Here we'll discuss only two controversial categories: gender and number.

Most grammarians reject the existence of the category of gender. Thus, Professor B. Ilyish states that there is no category of grammatical gender in English, as there is no morphological marking of a male or a female being, while the difference between the words: husband and wife, actor and actress, tiger and tigress is a lexical one.

In F.K. Palmer's book 'Semantics. A New Outline': it is said, that there is no real grammatical gender in English at all. The pronouns *he, she, it* are the only essential markers of sex.

I.P. Ivanova thinks that "the category of gender has disappeared by the end of the Middle English period and the opposition of the words *rooster – hen, bull – cow, waiter – waitress* is based on the lexical meaning and the biological sex."

M.Blokh in his theory thinks that the category of gender exists in the English language. 'A Course in Theoretical English Grammar" says that it is expressed "by the obligatory correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person".

M.Blokh distinguishes a system of 3 genders: the neuter (non-person), the masculine (masculine person), the feminine (feminine person). The nouns capable of expressing both feminine and masculine person genders (person, parent, friend, cousin, doctor, president) are referred to as nouns of common gender.

The category of number is formed by the opposition of two categorical forms: singular and plural. The morpheme of the singular form of the noun is represented by the zero-suffix (non-marked).

Besides the productive form of the mark (-s), there are other non-productive ways of expressing the number opposition, for example, the suffix –en (*children, oxen*).

Together with the nouns, with the marked plural form, there exists a group of nouns the plural form of which is homonymous with the singular form and is non-marked: *sheep, deer, fish, swine*, etc.

The plural form of the noun 'fish' coexists with the form 'fishes'

The nouns *weather, knowledge, news, information, linguistics, measles* do not have the plural form (suffix –s is a word-forming suffix.   *New* was an adjective + -s = *news*).

The nouns which have only a plural and no singular are usually called "pluralia tantum" (plural only) and those which have only a singular and no plural are called "singularia tantum".

sg.	pl.	sing. tantum
a copper (медяк)	coppers	copper (медь)
a tin (консервная банка)	tins	tin (олово, жесть)
a hair	hairs	hair

sg.	pl.	pluralia tantum
a custom	customs	customs (таможня)
a colour	colours	colours (знамя)
a people	peoples	people (люди)

sg.	pl.	sg. tan.	pl.tan.
a glass	glasses	glass(стекло)	glasses(очки)
a work	works	work(работа)	works(механизм)

It is said that the meaning of the singular form is 'one'; the meaning of the plural form is 'more than one'. But as far as the singular form is concerned, in many cases it doesn't always denote 'oneness'.

UNIT 4. THE SENTENCE

§1. Essential features of the sentence

The basic unit of syntax is the sentence. The sentence can be defined as a communication unit made up of words in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. The sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready-made unit (as the word); it is created by the speaker in the course of communication.

Being a unit of speech, the sentence is intonationally delimited. Intonation separates one sentence from another. The role of intonation as a delimiting factor is especially important for sentences which have more that one predicative centre, in particular more than one finite verb.

a) *The class was over, the noisy children filled the corridors.*

b) *The class was over. The noisy children filled the corridors.*

Special intonation contours, including pauses, represent the given speech sequence in the first case as one compound sentence, in the second case as two different sentences (though, certainly, connected both logically and syntactically).

The sentence is characterized by its specific category (feature) of predication which establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. (The centre of predication in a sentence of verbal type is a finite verb). The act of speech is the event with which all other events mentioned in the sentence are correlated in time. This correlation is fixed in English and other languages grammatically in the category of tense and lexically in such words as now, yesterday, tomorrow.

The speaker is the person with whom other persons and things mentioned in the sentence are correlated. This correlation is fixed grammatically in the category of person of the verb and lexico-grammatically in such words as I, you, he, she, it, student, river.

Reality is either accepted as the speaker sees it, or an attempt is made to change it, or some irreality is fancied. (The door is shut. Shut the door. If the door were shut…). The attitude towards reality is fixed grammatically in the category of mood and lexically or lexico-grammatically in words like must, may, probably.

The three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker and to the reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech. Now the relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity, which distinguishes a sentence from any group of words. Within a sentence, the word or a combination of words that contains meanings of predicativity may be called predication. However, proceeding from the principles of sentence analysis worked out in the Russian school of theoretical syntax, in particular, in the works of

V.V.Vinogradov, we insist that predication is effected not only by the form of the finite verb connecting it with the subject, but also by all the other forms and elements of the sentence establishing the connection between the named objects and reality, including such means of expression as intonation, word order, different functional words. Besides the purely verbal categories in the predicative semantics are included such syntactic sentence meanings, as purposes of communication (declaration - interrogation - inducement), affirmation and negation and others.

We see quite clearly that the general semantic content of the sentence is not at all reduced to predicative meanings only. Indeed, in order to establish the connection between some substance and reality, it is first necessary to name the substance itself. This task is effected in the sentence with the help of its nominative means. Hence, the sentence performs not one, but two essential meaningful functions: nominative function and predicative function. The nominative meaning of the sentence reflects a processual situation or event that includes a certain process as its dynamic centre, the agent of the process, the objects, and also the various conditions and circumstances of the realization of the process. The functional essence of predication has hitherto been understood in linguistics as the expression of the relation of the sentence to reality (as the expression of the relation between the content of the sentence and reality). "Every sentence shows the relation of the statement to reality from the point of view of the speaker" (Ganshina).

It would be wrong to maintain that the only function of the main parts of the sentence is to contain the syntactical meanings of predicativity. The latter has been defined as the relation of the thought to the situation of speech. So there must be some thought whose relation to the situation of speech is expressed in the sentence in terms of person, tense, mood. Naturally, the main parts of the sentence contain parts of that thought and if the sentence consists of the main parts alone, they contain all the though (Birds fly). The subject - birds - as a noun names the thing. The predicate - fly - does not only show the relation to the act of speech and reality. As a verb it names an action characterizing the thing named by the subject.

§ 2. Classification of sentences

The problem of classification of sentences is a highly complicated one. There are two principles of classification according: a) to types of communication; b) to structure

a) The sentence is a communicative unit; therefore the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the "purpose of communication". According to it three sentence types are recognized in linguistics: the declarative sentence, the imperative sentence, the interrogative sentence. These communicative sentence types stand in strict opposition to one another.

The declarative sentence expresses a statement either affirmative or negative. (*We live very quietly here, indeed we do*).

The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. That is, it urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action. (*Let's go and sit down up there, Dinny.*).

The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. By virtue of this communicative purpose, the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question - answer dialogue unity.

Alongside with the three main communicative sentence-types another type of sentences is recognized in the theory of syntax, namely, the so-called exclamatory sentence. The notion of exclamatory sentences and their relation to the three established types of sentences presents some difficulty. On the other hand, every sentence, whether declarative, interrogative or imperative, may be exclamatory at the same time, i.e., it may convey the speaker's feelings and be characterized by emphatic intonation and by an exclamation mark in writing. On the other hand, a sentence may be purely exclamatory, that is, it may not belong to any of the three types classed above. (*Oh, for God's sake! Well! Well*!) Maybe such a classification is appropriate here: 1) declarative (including emotional ones): 2) interrogative; 3) imperative; 4) exclamatory.

This view would avoid the awkward contradiction of exclamatory sentences constituting a special type and belonging to the first three types at the same time.

According to structure they distinguish simple and composite sentences.

The simple sentence is a sentence which contains only one subject-predicate unit. According to their structure (simple) sentences are divided into two-member and one-member sentences.

A two-member sentence has two members – a subject and a predicate. If one of them is missing it can be easily understood from the context.

e.g. **She came** *just in time.*

A two member sentence may be complete or incomplete. It is complete when it has a subject and a predicate.

e.g. *I look forward to our next meeting.*

A two member sentence is incomplete when one of its principal parts or both of them are missing, but can be easily understood from the context. Such sentences are called elliptical; they are used mainly in colloquial speech and especially in dialogues.

e.g. *What were you doing? Drinking.*
Where were you yesterday? At the cinema.

A one-member sentence is a sentence having only one member which is neither subject nor the predicate. This does not mean, however, that the other member is missing, for the one member makes the sense complete.

One-member sentences are generally used in descriptions and in emotional speech.

e.g. *Dusk – of a summer night.*
Freedom! Bells ringing out, flowers, kisses, wine.
No! To have his friendship, his admiration, but not at this price.

Both two-member sentences and one-member sentences can be unextended and extended. A sentence consisting only of the primary or principal parts is called unextended.

e.g. *Spring!*
I am a teacher.

A sentence consisting of the subject, the predicate and one ore more secondary parts is called extended.

e.g. *And life, unfortunately, is something that you can lead but once.*

Sentences with more than one predication have a general name - composite. In a composite sentence each predication together with the words attached is called a clause. Composite sentences with coordinated clauses are compound sentences. (*She is a very faithful creature and I trust her*).

Composite sentences containing subordinate clauses are complex sentences (*If I let this chance slip, I'm a fool*).

The clauses of a composite sentence may be joined with the help of connective words (syntactically) or directly, without connectives (asyndetically).

Being a polypredicative construction, it expresses a complicated act of thought, i.e. an act of mental activity, which falls into two or more intellectual efforts closely combined with one another.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

A compound sentence is a sentence which consists of two or more clauses coordinated with each other. A clause is part of a sentence which has a subject and a predicate of its own. In a compound sentence the clauses may be connected either *syndetically* (with the help of conjunctions) or *asyndetically* (without any conjunctions).

Types of connection	
syndetical	asyndetical
a) coordinating conjunctions (*and, or, else, but,*) **b)** conjunctive adverbs (otherwise, however, nevertheless, yet, still, therefore)	without conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs
The darkness was thinning, *but* the street was still dimly lighted. He knew there were excuses for his father, *yet* he felt stick at heart.	The rain fell softly, the house was quiet. He uttered no other words of greeting; there was too strong a rush of mutual consciousness.

In a compound sentence there are distinguished 4 types of coordination:

Types of coordination		
copulative (соединительная связь)	and, nor, neither …nor, not only …but (also)	It was a nice little place and Mr. *and* Mrs. Witla were rather proud of it. Mr. Home did not lift his eyes from his breakfast-plate for about two minutes, *nor* did he speak.
disjunctive (разделительная связь)	or, else, or else, either .. or, otherwise	He knew it to be nonsense *or* it would have frightened him. Don't come near me with that look *else* I'll knock you down. *Either* our union must be concentrated and sealed by marriage *or* it cannot exist.
adversative (противительная связь)	but, while, whereas, nevertheless, still, yet	The room was dark, *but* the street was lighter because of its lamps. He had a glass eye which remained stationary, *while* the other eye looked at Reinhardt. I was not unhappy, not much afraid, *yet* I wept.
causative-consecutive (причинно-)	for, so, therefore, accordingly, consequently, hence	There was something amiss with Mr. Lightwood, *for* he was strangely grave and looked ill. After all, the two of them belonged to the same trade, *so* talk was easy and happy between them.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

A complex sentence consists of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

(*Note:* This definition is not always true. It is often difficult to differentiate which clause is principal and which is subordinate, especially when we deal with complex sentences containing a subject clause or a predicative clause.)

Clauses in a complex sentence may be linked either syndetically or asyndetically.

Types of connection	
syndetical	asyndetical
More and more, she became convinced *that* some misfortunes had overtaken Paul.	I wish you had come earlier. Circumstances try the metal a man is really made of.

According to their grammatical function subordinate clauses are divided into subject, predicative, attributive, object, and adverbial clauses. Besides all these types

of clauses, grammarians distinguish a special type of clause called the parenthetical clause.

Types of subordinate clauses		
1. subject clauses	*a) conjunctions that, if, whether*	It was unfortunate <u>that the patient was brought in during the evening</u>. <u>*Whether* she was determined to bring matters to a crisis, or *whether* she was prompted by some private sign from Mr. Buff</u>, is more than I can tell.
	b) connectives who, what, which, whoever, whatever; where, when, how, why	<u>What was done</u> could not be undone. It's a grand thing <u>*when* you see the working class in action</u>. <u>Whatever I can do for you</u> will be nothing but paying a debt.
	c) asyndetically	It is a pity <u>her brother should be quite a stranger to her</u>.
2. predicative clauses (link verb)	*a) conjunctions that, if, whether, as if*	Our attitude simply is <u>*that* facts are facts</u>. I felt <u>as if death had laid a hand on me</u>.
	b) connectives who, what, which; where, when, how, why	But this time, just about sunset, was always <u>*what* I loved best</u>. That was <u>*why* you were not one bit frightened</u>.
	c) asyndetically	Another thing was <u>they had nurse Andrews staying on with them that week</u>.
3. object clauses	*a) conjunctions that, if, whether*	Jane wondered <u>*if* Brian and Margaret were really suited for one another</u>. Time will show <u>*whether* I am right or wrong</u>.
	b) connectives who, what, which, whatever, whichever; where, when, how, why	I'll do just <u>*what* I say</u>. I don't know <u>where he developed his prose style</u>, probably in the best of schools, the open air.
	c) asyndetically	He said <u>there was nothing much the matter with me</u>.

4. attributive clauses	attributive relative clauses (qualify the antecedent)	1) restrictive (It can not be removed without destroying the meaning of the sentence. It is not separated by a comma) *a) relative pronouns (who, whose, which, that, as)* *b) relative adverbs (where, when)* *c) asyndetically*	You could not but feel sympathy for a man *who* took so much delight in simple things. They spoke no more all the way back to the lodging *where* Fanny and her uncle lived. And he is now come to that stage of life *when* a man like him should enter into public affairs. I think my father is the best man I have ever known.
		2) non-restrictive (It can be left out without destroying the meaning of the sentence, often separated by commas) *a) relative pronouns (who, which)* *b) relative adverbs (where, when)*	Mr. Prusty, *who* kept no assistant, slowly got of his stool. She uttered a wild scream, *which* in its heart-rending intensity seemed to echo for miles. He went in alone to the dining-room *where* the table was laid for one.
	attributive appositive clauses (disclose the meaning of ⟨...⟩)	The antecedent is expressed by an abstract noun, not separated by a comma *conjunctions that, whether adverbs how, why*	He stopped in the hope *that* she would speak. With his former doubt *whether* this dry hard personage were quite in earnest, Clennam again turned his eyes attentively upon his face. There was no reason *why* she should not read it. Thus to Cytherea and Owen Gray the question *how* their lives would end seemed the deepest of possible enigma.
5. adverbial	time	*conjunctions when (scarcely ... when, hardly ... when, no sooner ... than), while, whenever, as, till, until, as soon as, as long as, since, after, before, now that*	My mother died *when* I was eight years old. You can stay here *as long as* you want. This is the claim I made on you, *now that* we have found each other. Hardly had the lady appeared, *when* she sighed deeply.

	place	*conjunctions where, wherever*	I am quite comfortable *where* I am. The street singers and players were making their nightly pilgrimage, pausing, *wherever* they saw a lighted window or a dark figure on a balcony.
	cause (reason)	*conjunctions as, because, since, for fear (that), on the ground that, for the reason that*	*As* he had a liking for the spot, he seldom let a week pass without paying it a visit. *Since* you are here, we may begin our talk.
	purpose	*conjunctions that, in order that, so that, lest*	Wounds sometimes must be opened *in order that* they may be healed. I crouched against the wall of the gallery *so that* I should not be seen.
	condition	*conjunctions if, unless, suppose, in case, on condition that, provided*	*If* he is not hare by the end of the week, I shall go after him. I will do anything you wish, my brother, *provided* it lies in my power.
	concession	*conjunctions and connectives though, although, as, no matter, how, however, whoever, whatever, whichever, notwithstanding that, in spite of the fact that*	I enjoyed that day, *though* we travelled slowly, *though* I was cold. He went forward to meet his uncle prepared to suppress the agitation he must feel, *whatever* news he was to hear.
	result	*conjunction so that (so ... that, such ... that)*	Darkness had fallen and a keen blizzard was blowing, *so that* the streets were nearly deserted. He is *so* weak physically *that* he can hardly move.
	manner	*conjunction as*	She did exactly *as* he told her. Joe left the house *as* he had entered it.
	comparison	*conjunctions than, as, as ... as, not so...as, as if, as though*	Mr. Direck's broken wrist healed sooner *than* he desired. We were going up the road as fast *as* we could.

6. parenthetical clauses	You are, <u>I am afraid</u>, far more urgently in need of medical advice than your daughter.
	The last and last step in the investigation brought matter, <u>as they say</u>, to a crisis.
	Her singing is something quite exceptional, <u>I think</u>.

PART 6
TERRITORIAL VARIETIES AND DIALECTS
OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

UNIT 1. ENGLISH IN AMERICA

§ 1. Introduction

British and American English are the main variants of the English language. Besides them there are Canadian, Australian, Indian, New Zealand and other variants. They have some peculiarities in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, but they are easily used for communication between people living in these countries.

For a long time linguists argued if we should consider American English a dialect or a separate language. The theory that American English is a dialect can hardly be accepted because a dialect is usually opposed to the literary variety of the language whereas American English possesses a literary variety of its own. The hypothesis of the so-called 'American language' had several supporters, mainly in the United States, but it is also very debatable: a language is supposed to possess a vocabulary and a grammar system of its own. That is why scholars prefer to label American English 'a regional variety' or 'variant' of the English language

§ 2. Pronunciation

American English is marked by certain phonetic peculiarities. These consist in the way some words are pronounced and in the intonation patterns. The system of phonemes is the same as is British English, with the exception of the American retroflexive [r]-sound, and labialized [g] in such words as *what, why, white, wheel, etc.* See Part 3, Unit 10, of this manual for more details on American pronunciation.

§ 3. Vocabulary

The vocabulary used by American speakers has many distinctive features. More than that: there are whole groups of words which belong to American vocabulary exclusively and constitute its specific feature. These words are called Americanisms.

The first group of such words may be described as *historical Americanisms.*

At the beginning of the 17th c. the first English migrants began arriving in America in search of new and better living conditions. It was then that English was first spoken on American soil, and it is but natural that it was spoken in its 17th c. form. For example, the noun 'fall' was still used by the first migrants in its old meaning 'autumn', the verb 'to guess' in the meaning 'to think', the adjective 'sick' in the meaning 'ill, unwell'. In American usage these words still retain their old meanings whereas in British English their meanings have changed.

The second group of Americanisms includes words which one is not likely to discover in British vocabulary. They are specifically American and can be referred to as *proper Americanisms.* The oldest of these words were formed by the first migrants to the American continent and reflected, to a great extent, their attempts to cope with their new environment. From the very first, the migrants were faced wit a serious lack

of words in their vocabulary with which to describe all the new and strange things around them. Gradually such words were formed. E.g. *eggplant* (a plant with edible fruit), *sweet potato* (a plant with sweet edible roots), *catfish* (called so because of spines likened to a cat's claws), *bull-frog* (a huge frog producing sounds not unlike a bull's roar).

Later proper Americanisms are represented by names of objects which are called differently in the United States and in England. E.g. the British *chemist's* is called *drugstore* or *pharmacy* in the United States, the American word for *sweets* (Br.) is *candy, lift* (Br.) = *elevator* (Amer.), *biscuit* (Br.) = *cookie* (Amer.), *cash dispenser* (Br.) = *ATM machine* (Amer.), *company* (Br.) = *corporation* (Amer.), *dinner jacket* (Br.) = *tuxedo* (Amer.), *pavement* (Br.) = *sidewalk* (Amer.), *petrol* (Br.) = *gas* (Amer.).

American vocabulary is rich in specifically American borrowings which reflect the historical contacts of the Americans with other nations on the American continent.

There are, for instance, Spanish borrowings (e.g. *ranch, sombrero, canyon),* words taken over from the black people (e.g. *banjo*) and, especially, Indian borrowings. The latter are rather numerous and have a peculiar flavor of their own: *wigwam, squaw, canoe, moccasin, tomahawk.* There are also some translation loans of Indian origin: *pale-face* (the name of the Indians for all white people), *war path, war paint, pipe of peace, fire-water.*

Many of the names of places, rivers, lakes, even of states, are of Indian origin. E.g. *Ohio, Michigan, Tennessee, Illinois, Kentucky.*

One more group of Americanisms is represented by *American shortenings*. Shortening as the type of word-building seems to be especially characteristic for American word-building. The following shortenings were produced on American soil, yet most of them are used both in American English and British English: *movies, gym (*for *gymnasium), dorm (*for *dormitory), mo (*for *moment*, e.g. *Just a mo), circs (*for *circumstances), n.g. (*for *no good), b.f. (*for *boyfriend), okay.* (All these words represent informal stylistic strata of the vocabulary).

Today many Americanisms due to the wide use of radio and television easily penetrate into British speech, and, as a result, some of the distinctive characteristics of American English become erased.

§ 4. Grammar system

The American grammar system has fewer divergences than the vocabulary system.

The first distinctive feature is the use of the auxiliary verb *will* in all the persons, both Singular and Plural in Future Indefinite (in contrast to British 'shall' used in the first person Sg. and Pl.).

The second distinctive feature consists in the tendency to substitute the Past Indefinite Tense for the Present Perfect Tense, especially in oral communication. An American is likely to say *I saw this movie* instead of *I have seen this movie.*

Just as American usage has retained the old meaning of some English words (*fall, guess, sick*), it has also retained the old form of the Past Participle of some verbs: *e.g. to get - got – gotten.*

Words of directions ending with –*wards* oftern tend to be used differntly, e.g.: British *forwards, upwards, afterwards*, etc., American *forward, upward, afterward*. However, there is no real distinction here, as both forms are used in both varieties, except that *afterward* is rare in British English.

Collective nouns like *team* and *company* that describe multiple people are often used with the plural form of a verb in British English, and with the singular form in American. British "*the team are concerned*", American "*the team is concerned*".

The subjunctive mood is more common in American English in expressions like "*They suggested he apply for the job*". British English would have "*They suggested he should apply for the job*" or even "*They suggested he applied for the job*". These British usages are heard in the USA too, however.

There are also a few differences in preposition use including the following:

American English	**British English**
on the weekend	*at* the weekend
Monday *through* Friday	Monday *to* Friday
please write me soon	please write *to* me soon
check something *out*	check something
do something *over*	do something *again*
fill *out* a form	fill *in* a form
stay home	stay *at* home
in behalf of	*on* behalf of
aside from	*apart* from
different *than*	different (differing) *from*

§ 5. Spelling

At the time of the first settlement of America the rules of English orthography were vague; at that time, however, little special attention was paid to the matter of spelling. With the establishment of the colonies in an independent position, a new attitude was taken with respect to the English language as it was then spoken and written. In spelling it was obvious that the most logical and rational method of reform was one which called for the representation of the sounds of the language with precision and regularity.

The reform in the English spelling for American English was introduced by the famous American lexicographer Noah Webster who set forth his ideas in his 'American Spelling Book'. A great many of his innovations failed to take root and in the course of time he abandoned some of them himself. But many of his reforms were accepted by his countrymen. The following of his proposals were adopted in the English spelling:

a) the deletion of the letter 'u' in the words ending in 'our', e.g. *color, favor, humor*

b) the deletion of the second consonant in words with double consonants, e.g. *traveler, wagon*

c) the replacement of 're' by 'er' in words of French origin, e.g. *theater, center*

d) the deletion of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin, e.g. *catalog, program*

e) the replacement of 'ce' by 'se' in words of Romanic origin, e.g. *defense, offense*

Among other spelling peculiarities we should also mention the replacement of 'ise' (a verb-forming suffix) by 'ize', e.g. *crystallize, organize.*

UNIT 2. ENGLISH IN CANADA

§ 1. General consideration
Canadian English is the variety of English used in Canada. It contains elements of British English in its vocabulary, as well as its own distinctive Canadianisms. In many areas, speech is influenced by French, and there are notable local variations. However, Canada has very little dialect diversity compared to the United States. The phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon for most of Canada are similar to that of the United States. As such, Canadian English and American English are sometimes grouped together as North American English.

Canadian English is the product of four waves of immigration and settlement over a period of almost two centuries. The first large wave of permanent English-speaking settlement in Canada, and linguistically the most important, was the influx of British Loyalists fleeing the American Revolution, chiefly from the Mid-Atlantic States. The second wave from Britain and Ireland was encouraged after the War of 1812 by the governors of Canada, who were worried about anti-English sentiment among its citizens. Waves of immigration from around the globe peaking in 1910 and 1960 had a lesser influence, but they did make Canada a multicultural country, ready to accept linguistic change from around the world during the current period of globalization.

§ 2. Spelling and dictionaries
Canadian English spelling combines British and American rules.

Most notably, French-derived words that in American English end with *-or* and *-er,* such as *color* or *center*, usually retain British spellings (e.g. *colour, honour* and *centre*). While the United States uses the Anglo-French spelling *defense* (noun), Canada uses the British spelling *defence.*

Canadian and American variants differ from British in the spelling of such nouns as *tire* and *curb*, which in British English are spelled *tyre* and *kerb.*

Words such as *realize* and *paralyze* are usually spelled with *-ize* or *-yze* rather than *-ise* or *-yse.* Some nouns take *-ice* while matching verbs ending in *-ise* – for example, *practice* is a noun and *practise* is a verb.

Canadian spelling sometimes retains the British practice of doubling consonant when adding suffixes to words even when the final syllable (before the suffix) is not stressed. Compare Canadian (and British) *travelled, counselling*, and *controllable* (always doubled in British, sometimes in Canadian) to American *traveled, counseling,* and *controllable* (only doubled when stressed).

§ 3. Phonetics

The pronunciation of certain words has both American and British influence; some pronunciations are more distinctively Canadian.

The name of the letter Z is normally the Anglo-European (and French) zed; the American zee is not commonly used in Canada, and it is often stigmatized.

In the words *adult* and *composite*, the emphasis is usually on the first syllable, as in Britain.

Canadians side with the British on the pronunciation of *lieutenant* [lɛf'tɛnənt], *shone* [ʃɒn], *lever* ['livər], and others.

Schedule can sometimes be [ʃɛdʒul] as in American English.

The most common pronunciation of *vase* is [veɪz] (as typical for American).

Words of French origin, such as *niche*, and *croissant*, are pronounced more like they would be in French, so [niʃ] rather than [nɪtʃ], and [kɹə'sɒn(t)] rather than [kɹə'sænt].

Many Canadians pronounce *asphalt* as "ash-falt" ['æʃfɒlt].This pronunciation is also common in Australian English, but not in General American English or British English.

Diphthongal vowels such as [oʊ] (as in *boat*) and [eɪ] (as in *bait*) have qualities much closer to monophthongs.

§ 4. Vocabulary
§ 4.1 Pseudo Canadianisms

Among Canadian English words there are a lot of words which are Canadian only by their origin but are used today in other variants of English as well. Some linguists call such words *pseudo Canadianisms*. To this group belong:

Names of animals and plants used to denote Canadian realias, e.g. *cadborosausus* (a huge sea snake), *Arctic birch*, *Alaska pine*, etc.

Names of state, political and other realias, e.g. *Confederation* (Federation consisting of Ontario, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick), *Combines Act* (the legislative act of 1911 enabling the government to exercise control over the trade of agricultural products), etc.

Words connected with Canadian educational system which differs in certain points from that of England or the USA. E.g. *composite high school* (a secondary school of a mixed type), *separate school* (a school for children belonging to different religious minorities).

Names of household articles and other things often connected with the specific weather conditions of Canada. E.g. *floathouse* (плавучее жилище у берега),

birchsap ginger ale (напиток из березового сока), *ice-bridge* (лед, по которому можно перейти с одного берега на другой)

Historical realia of Canada (historical words):

(a) words and expressions connected with political events and reforms, e.g. Dirty Thirties (годы депрессии – 1930е годы)

(b) words and expressions that appeared in Canada in the years of Gold Rush. E.g. Back Door Route (путь к золотым россыпям Клондайка), Klondiker (человек, участвовавший в "золотой лихорадке")

(c) words and expressions denoting things dealt with in trade and commercial transactions: e.g. Anchor Money (название денег после 1822 г.), saleshop (лавка «Хадсон Бэй компани»).

§ 4.2 Canadianisms proper

Canadianisms proper – these are words which appeared in Canada and were never included in General English word-stock and today are specifically Canadian words belonging to the literary or neutral vocabulary of CnE. Canadianisms proper are words either totally different in their outer aspect from GE words (full Canadianisms) or have the same outer aspect as a GE word but one or several totally different meanings specific only for Canadian use (partial Canadianisms).

Full Canadianisms: CnE muskeg = GE bog; CnE Sault = GE falls (водопад); CnE clamper = GE ice. It should be mentioned that the most part of full Canadianisms are set expressions: e.g. cottage roll (ветчина), bear walker (ведьма), misery fiddle (пила для продольной распилки бревен).

Partial Canadianisms: CnE bank (место, где держат живых омаров); gear (коммерческое рыболовное судно); collar (перешеек), to copy (перепрыгивать с льдины на льдину)

§ 4.3 Canadian colloquialisms

Among the lexical units of Canadian English there is distinguished another large group of words and expressions specific only for Canadian use. Among them there are a lot of dialectal words, professionalisms and slang words, i.e. words that do not belong to the literary layer of the vocabulary.

Among dialectal words we find such ones: e.g. dew-worm – земляной червь (Ontario), cow chip – сухой помет, используемый в качестве топлива (the Pacific Coast), crunnick – сухие сучья (Atlantic provinces), moccasin telegraph – распространение новостей путем слухов (Northern Canada).

Canadian professionalisms are words connected with some specific spheres of Canadians' professional activities, e.g. with forestry, fur animals hunting, gold-mining industry, etc. In most cases professionalisms are used to give emotional or figurative characteristics to a certain thing or event connected with this or that profession. E.g. the word *beach* in Canada means 'берег, откуда можно сплавлять лес', *highball* 'очень быстро работающий человек; работать с предельной скоростью' (in wood industry).

Canadian English also has its set of slang words. Among them we find: beanery – 'захудалый ресторанчик', oatmeal savage – 'шотландец', etc.

§ 4.4 Borrowings
Canadian vocabulary contains a number of borrowed words which are rarely or never found in other variants of English.

CnE is rich in French borrowings, especially in those ending in é (ée), which is pronounced in Canada as diphthong [ei] e.g. guignolée (обычай, напоминающий славянские «колядки»), brulé (горелый лес), etc. Almost all French borrowings underwent the process of phonetic assimilation; some of them changed their original meaning: e.g. *fameuse* in French means 'famous, remarkable, outstanding' while in Canadian English it is a sort of apples which ripen at late autumn.

The second largest group of borrowings are words taken over from the languages of Indians and Eskimos. E.g. tamarak (Indian) – 'североамериканская сосна'; parka (Eskimo) – 'жакет с капюшоном, отделанным мехом' and others.

In Canadian English there are a number of geographical names of Indian origin. Even the word "Canada" was borrowed by the English settlers from the French language of Canada, where, in its turn, it appeared due to the language of Iroquois. The French word "Canada' originated from the Iroquois 'Canata' that means 'a community, a village'.

A certain amount of borrowings in CnE appeared in the language due to the immigrants who came to Canada in the XIX c. E.g. 'baidarka' from Russian (a kind of boat), 'hun' from Hungarian (a European or Hungarian quail), etc.

UNIT 3. ENGLISH IN AUSTRALIA

§ 1. First penetration of English into the territory of Australia
The story of Australian English starts with *kangaroo* (1770) and Captain James Cook's glossary of local words used in negotiations with the Endeavour River tribes. The language was pidgin.

The Aboriginal vocabulary, which is one of the trademarks of Australian English, included *jumbuck* (a sheep), *corroboree* (an assembly), *boomerang* (a curved throwing stick) and others.

The number of Aboriginal words in Australian English is quite small and is confined to the naming of plants (like *bindieye* and *calombo),* trees (like *boree* and *malee*), birds (like *currawong* and *kookaburra*), animals (like *wallaby* and *wombat*) and fish (like *baramindi*).

As in North America, when it comes to place-names the Aboriginal influence was much greater: about a third of all Australian place-names are Aboriginal.

The English language started its vast penetration into the territory of Australia at the end of the 18th century, shortly after the foundation of the Australian penal colony of New South Wales in 1788. British convicts sent there, (including Cockneys from

London), came mostly from large English cities. A large part of the convict body were Irish, with at least 25% directly from Ireland, and others indirectly via Britain. There were other populations of convicts from non-English speaking areas of Britain, such as the Welsh and Scots. All of them spoke local or social dialects. Among those who came to Australia in the first decade of colonization there were also those who spoke Standard English: administrators, military personnel, high-ranked officials, missionaries, etc. However, they were few and, consequently, at least in the oral form, at the early stage of the development of the Australian variant Standard English was rarely used. As it turned out, the dominant English input at that time was that of Cockney from South-East England. Australia of that time was often called 'jail on a large scale'. Such social conditions, absence of national literature, could not contribute to spreading of the Standard English

The transportation of convicts to Australia ended in 1868, but immigration of free settlers from Britain, Ireland and elsewhere continued.

§ 2. Peculiarities of AusE and factors influencing the language development

The first of the Australian gold rushes, in the 1850s, began a much larger wave of immigration which would significantly influence the language. During the 1850s, when the UK was under economic hardship, about two per cent of its population emigrated to the Colony of New South Wales and the Colony of Victoria. It is worth mentioning that almost up to the 30ies of the 19th c. the 'white' history of Australia left practically no written records

In the hectic years of the gold rush Australia drew prospectors from California to the hills of New South Wales, bringing with them a slew of Americanisms to add to the Australian lexicon. Therefore, among the changes brought by the gold rushers was "Americanization" of the language—the introduction of words, spellings, terms, and usages from North American English. The words imported included some later considered to be typically Australian, such as *dirt* (gold-bearing sand) and *digger* (gold hunter). *Bonzer*, which was once a common Australian slang word meaning "great", "superb" or "beautiful", is thought to have been a corruption of the American mining term *bonanza*, which means a rich vein of gold or silver and is itself a loanword from Spanish. The invasion of American vogue words marked the beginning of a tension in Australia between the use of British English and American English. Yet, it is difficult to say that there was a certain rule or tendency as to what variant (British or American) is more preferable for loaning vocabulary. So, for instance, Australians today get water from a *tap* not a *faucet*, but tend to ride in *elevators* as well as *lifts*. Their cars run on *petrol* not *gas*, but they drive on *freeways* not *motorways*.

The influx of American military personnel in World War II brought further American influence; though most words were short-lived; and only *okay*, *you guys*, and *gee* have persisted.

Since the 1950s the American influence on language in Australia has mostly come from pop culture, the mass media (books, magazines, television programs), computer software and the internet.

Australian English has lots of abbreviations: the *garbo* is the 'garbage collector', the *cozzie* and the *prezzie* are the 'swimming costume' and the 'present', and a *smoko* is a 'tea-break'; metaphors and similes: *as bald as bandicoot, as lonely as a country dunny, look like a consumptive kangaroo*, etc.

It has been estimated that there are over 10,000 lexical items of Australian English origin. Among many general words there are *footpath* (pavement), *paddock* (a field of any size) and *weekender* (holiday cottage). Well-known slang items include *beaut* (beautiful), *biggie* (big one), *dinkum* (genuine, true), *sheila* (girl) and *pommy* (an English immigrant)

Australian English is most similar to New Zealand English, due to their similar history and geographical proximity. Both use the expression *different to* (also encountered in British English, but not American) as well as *different from*.

Many words of Irish origin are widely used, some of which are also common elsewhere in the Irish diaspora, e.g.: *bum* for "backside" (Irish *bun*), *tucker* for "food", "provisions" (Irish *tacar*), etc.

Australia adopted decimal currency in 1966 and the metric system in the 1970s. This, too has affected Australian English.

UNIT 4. NEW ZEALAND ENGLISH

New Zealand is a younger country than Australia. It was settled as a colony in 1840 when the British government signed the Traty of Waitangi with the Maori chiefs. Unlike Australia it was a free colony. Many of its first settlers, if they were not Scots, came from the urban working-class English background.

From the first, the life of both of the North and the South Islands of New Zealand was agrarian.

The making of the distinctive New Zealand contribution to English followed the same course as in Australia. There was, first of all, the influence of the native Maori culture. The New Zealanders borrowed maori words for local trees, flowers and animals. The kiwi became a national symbol, like the kangarooin Australia. Maori influence is strongest in the North Islands, where they have always been more populous.

New Zealand uses all the familiar Australian abbreviations and diminutives, *beaut, arvo* (afternoon) and *smoko*. A slang phrase, common in New Zealand, is *dragging the chain* meaning "to work slowly". *Hoot* is a Maori word for "money".

The workday vocabulary of New Zealand English reflects the influence of Australi. The *bush* meaning "uncleared land, forest or scrub" is the most famous example. *Bush* gives rise to many compounds: *bushfire, bush lawyer* and *bush telegraph*. Equally, there are parts of New Zealand lexicon which are unique to the islands. An Australian *weekender* is a *bach* in New Zealand. In some country districts, roads will be called *lines*. If there is a choice between British and American

usage, the New Zealander will tend towards the British where the Australian may prefer the American.

UNIT 5. INDIAN ENGLISH

The term Indian English (IndE / IE) is widely used but is a subject of controversy; some scholars argue that it labels an established variety with an incipient or actual standard, others that the kinds of English used in India are too varied, both socially and geographically, and often too deviant or too limited, to be lumped together as one variety. However, the length of time that English has been in India, its importance, and its range make the term essential for an adequate discussion of the place of the language in Indian life and its sociolinguistic context. About 30m people (4% of the population) regularly use English, making India the third largest English-speaking country in the world. English is used in the legal system, pan-Indian and regional administration, the armed forces, national business, and the media. English and Hindi are the link languages in a complex multilingual society.

Indian English has a number of important characteristics.

a) Pronunciation

1. IndE is rhotic, [r] being pronounced in all positions.

2. It tends to be syllable-timed, weak vowels being pronounced as full vowels in such words as *photography* and *student*. Word stress is used primarily for emphasis and suffixes are stressed, as in *readiness*.

3. The alveolar consonants [t,d] are retroflex.

4. The fricatives (voiced and voiceless th) are aspired [t,d], so that *those* sounds like 'dhose' and *thumb* sounds as 't hum'; [f] is often pronounced as aspirated [p], as in 'phood' for *food*.

5. In such words as *old* and *low* the vowel is generally [o].

6. Among northern (Indo-Aryan) speakers, consonant clusters such as [sk, sl, sp] do not occur in initial position, but have an epenthetic vowel, as in 'iskool' for *school* in the Punjab region.

7. The distinction between [v] and [w] is generally neutralized to [w]: 'wine' for both *wine* and *vine*.

8. Light variety of the [l] sound is used in all positions. For example, in words like *leap* and *bill* the sound [l] is pronounced in the same manner.

b) Grammar

The following peculiarities can often be found in IndE:

1. Interrogative constructions without inversion: *What you would like to buy?*

2. *One* is used rather than the indefinite article: *He gave me one book.*

3. Reduplication is often used for emphasis and to indicate a distributive meaning: *I bought some small small things. Why you don't give them one one piece of cake?*

4. *Yes* and *no* as question tags: *He is coming, yes? She was helping you, no?*

5. *Isn't it?* is used as a generalized question tag: *They are coming tomorrow, isn't it?*

6. Present perfect can be used instead of simple past: *I have bought the book yesterday.*

c) Vocabulary

Loan words and loan translations from other languages have been common since the 17th c often moving into the language outside India.

1. Words from Portuguese: almirah (cupboard or wardrobe), caste (religious class), peon (worker) and from local languages through Portuguese: bamboo, curry, mango.

2. Words from indigenous languages, such as Hindi and Bengali: *bungalow, cheetah, chintz* (a printed calico from India), *mulligatawny* (Indian chicken soup), *pundit* (priest), rupee (Indian monetary unit), *sahib* (sir), *basmati* (a kind of rice), *masala* (spices), *Sri/Shri/Shree* (Mr), *Srmati/Shrimati/Shreemati* (Mrs).

3. Words from Arabic and Persian through north Indian languages: *mogul* – a Muslim prince (and in the general language an important person, as in movie mogul), *sepoy* – a soldier in the British Indian Army; *vakeel/vakil* – a lawyer, *zamindar* – a landlord.

4. Words taken directly from Sanskrit, usually with religious and philosophical associations, some well known, some restricted to such contexts as yoga: *ahimsa* – nonviolence, *ananda* – spiritual bliss, *chakra* – a mystical centre of energy in the body; *guru* – a spiritual teacher, *yoga* – a system of self-development, *yogi* – one who is engaged in yoga.

IndE has a lot of hybrids, that is words and expressions in which one component is taken from English and one from a local language, often Hindi/ E.g. *'kaccha road'* – a mud road, *'policewala'* – a policeman, *'swadeshi cloth'* – homemade cloth.

UNIT 6. AFRICAN AMERICAN VERNACULAR ENGLISH

African American Vernacular English (AAVE) or Black English is called today Ebonics (ebony 'black' + phonics 'the scientific study of speech sounds'). The name Ebonics has been invented in 1973 by Robert R. Williams, professor of psychology. He used Ebonics to identify the variety of English spoken by many black Americans.

African American Vernacular English is a variety (dialect, ethnolect, and sociolect) of American English, most commonly spoken today by urban working-class and largely bi-dialectal middle-class African Americans. Its usage is influenced by age, status, topic, and setting.

The origins of AAVE are still a topic of debate among linguists.

Despite the caveat against generalizing about AAVE as a variety of American English, some distinctive characteristics (pronunciation, grammatical features and rhetorical patterns) of AAVE are shared with other dialects of American English, and it is difficult to point features of AAVE only. Yet, the traits of AAVE that distinguish it from General American English include the following:

- specific pronunciation features along definable patterns, many of which are found in creoles and dialects of other populations of West African descent and that also emerge in English dialects that may be uninfluenced by West African languages, such as Newfoundland English
- distinctive vocabulary
- distinctive use of verb tenses
- the use of double negatives

Phonology

- Word-final devoicing of /b/, /d/, and /g/, whereby for example ***cub*** sounds like ***cup***.

- Reduction of certain diphthong forms to monophthongs, in particular, /aɪ/ is monophthongized to [aː] except before unvoiced consonants, /ɔɪ/ is also monophthongized especially before /l/ (***ball*** and ***boil*** sound identical).

- Word-initially, /ð/ is [d] (this [dɪs]).

- Word-medially and -finally, /θ/ is realized as either [f] or [t] (so [mʌmf] or [mʌnt] for month); /ð/ as either [v] or [d] (so [smuːv] for smooth).

- Final ng /ŋ/ is pronounced as [n]

- Consonant cluster reduction word-finally (e.g. *test* → tes, *desk* → des);

- Deletion of postvocalic liquids (*help* → *hep*).

- There are many multisyllabic words that differ from General American in their stress placement so that, for example, *police, guitar* and *Detroit* are pronounced with initial stress instead of ultimate stress.

Morphology and syntax

The morphosyntactic features of AAVE are:

- The –*s* morpheme marking the possessive, the third person singular present, and the plural may be absent (*she sing, he talk, Bob car, two cat*).

- AAVE shares with some other varieties of English the possibility for multiple negation (*He don't know nothing*).

- AAVE has a much richer aspectual system than Standard English: *She bin (been) married. I bin known him.* The stressed 'bin' denotes a state, condition, or activity begun in the remote past and continued to the present.

- In AAVE, habitual 'be' is used to mark a repeated state, condition, or frequent actions (*the coffee be cold* (=always); *they songs be havin' a cause*), and they use 'done' for completed actions (*you done missed it*) and 'be done' for future perfect or hypothetical events (*Lightning be done struck my house*).

- Copula deletion is used for a temporary action: *He in the kitchen*. They frequently delete *is* and *are* in sentences where Standard English requires it (*We_confrontational*).

- *Come* is used in AAVE to express the speaker's annoyance or indignation, for example, *She come goin' into my room without knockin'*.

Some of these features are also found in white vernacular usage. Where these features came from is still a matter of academic debate. Ebonics in one way or another has been used by writers, actors, singers, etc. Black writers (James Baldwin, Toni Morrison, Alice Walker) have been among the defenders of Black English.

Speakers of AAVE differ according to their specific geographical origin, level of education, and socioeconomic status.

Part 7

PRACTICUM ON THEORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Task 1. Define the layer of the underlined units. Be as specific as possible.

1. If manners <u>maketh</u> man, then manner and grooming <u>maketh</u> poodle.

2. "<u>Though art</u> the Man", cried Jabes, after a solemn pause, leaning over his cushion. "Seventy times <u>didst thou</u> gapingly contort <u>thy</u> visage – seventy times seven did I take council with my soul. <u>Brethren</u> – execute upon him the judgement written."

3. Riding back I saw the Greeks lined up in column of march. All armed. They were wearing their short tunics. Now they had on <u>corselets or cuirasses</u>, helmets and their round <u>shields</u> hung at their backs.

4. "You know Brooklyn?"

"No. I was never there. But I had a <u>buddy</u> at Myer was from Brooklyn."

5. "What's the <u>dif</u>," he wanted to know.

6. "Here are we now! Don't look so <u>miz</u>!"

7. "All those medical <u>bastards </u>should go through the ops they put other people through. Then they wouldn't talk so much <u>bloody</u> nonsense or be so <u>damnably</u> unutterably smug."

8. Come on, now, <u>folks</u>, <u>shake a leg</u>!

9. "<u>Goddamn sonofabitching</u> stool," Fishbelly screamed. "Lawd Gawd in heaven, I'll kill every <u>goddamn</u> white man on this <u>sonofabitching bastard</u> earth."

10.   "Don't <u>wanna</u> sleep, don't <u>wanna</u> die, just <u>wanna</u> go a-travellin' through the pastures of the sky."

Task 2. Compare the neutral and the colloquial (or literary) modes of expression:

1. "…some thief in the night boosted my clothes whilst I slept."

"Somebody boosted…?"

'Pinched. Jobbed. Swiped. Stole," he said happily

2. You want to know what I think? I think you're nuts. Pure plain crazy. Goofy as a loon. That's what I think.

3. He objected to the phrase "He died poor" and wished to substitute "He expired in indigent circumstances."

4. The tall man said "Gre't God! I never, I never in all my days seen so many folks." Mr. Munn thought that he, too, had never seen so many people, never before.

5. Mrs. Sunbury never went to bed – she retired.

6. "It will cost him a hundred bucks"

"Huh? Stick to basic English."

"Hundred dollars," I said, "iron men, fish, bucks."

Task 3 State the origin of the following words:

Chaos, sky, rouge, bishop, general, sombrero, two, budget, kvass, duke, wall, give, morphology, psycho, feudal, king, beef, rhetoric, machine, pneumonia, pepper, they, character, chandelier, troika, skill, limousine, altar, rhythm, ballet, egg, chagrin, kid, psychology, mackintosh, rhythm, sarafan, chivalry, scar, solar, queen, phoneme, chauffeur, etymology, champagne, metaphor, gift, shirt, metonymy, cow, beautiful, routine, beluga, Derby, judge, Gloucester, wine, George, rheumatic, them, synonymy, euphemism, galoshes, scrape, brother, garage, major, colonel, house, massage, verdict, synchronic, borzoi, earl, down (холм), budget, Channel, skirt, street, leisure, diaphragm, career, plaintiff, tundra, beauty, disciple, neologism, pleasure, homophone, neuralgia, fish, telephone, democrat, regime, bull, cross, whisky, clan, vodka, pork, balalaika, marriage, tragedy, steppe, Peter, flannel, taiga, skull, bourgeois, thermometer, mother, chateaux, perestroika, major, soldier, beret, physics, psychiatry, droshky, child, Manchester, Althorp, cup, glasnost, Whitby, mechanic, Winchester.

Task 4. Group these words into international and pseudointernational words:

Actual, ammunition, antenna, artist, cabin, club, cocktail, conductor, extravagant, film, football, idiom, magazine, opera, pilot, plaster, sputnik, virtuous, liver, mayor, lunatic, tennis, fabric, nation.

Task 5. Analyze morphologically the following words:

Well-known, kingdom, sharpen, usefully, (he) takes, unforgettable, playing, (at my) aunt's, half-broken, girls, sign, mini-budget, heroism, terrify, asked, snow-white, schoolboy, anti-terrorist, eventful, unemployed, visually-challenged, Afro-American, stylish, fearless, irresponsible, undo, doer, does, apple, apple-tree, postman, bookish, charitable, ultraviolet, disappointment, worked, horrible, boys, pleasant, unthinkable, faces, sunproof, theatre-goer, disgraceful, readable

Task 6. State the type of word-formation:

a) Undo, smog (smoke + fog), to father, 'permit – per'mit, to rustle, the rich, fridge, ding-dong, flu, breath – breathe, speedometer, man-at-arms, resurrect (from resurrection), camcorder (camera + recorder), hip-hop, RP, displease, bro, walkie-talkie, the offended, bath – bathe, fandamntastic, hush, Russo-Japanese, flu, H-bomb, fifty-fifty, believe – belief, to bottle, FAQ, okey-dokey, WTO, higgledy-piggledy, UNESCO, forget-me-not, beautifully, to out, abso-blooming-lutely, house – to house, 'pervert – per'vert, to trigger, 'trasport – tra'nsport, chow-chow, burgle (from burglar), kanga-bloody-ru, bus (from omnibus), edit (from editor), TESOL, to nake (from naked), long-legged, sitcom (situation + comedy), deli (from delicatessen), to taxi, dorm, the poor, boogie-woogie, the educated, spectacles (очки), CNN, pains (efforts), to coffee, full – to fill, ad, lines (poetry), relieve – relief, stranger, maid-of-all-work, blah-blah, man-of-the-world, knock, smaze (smoke + haze), speaker, positron (positive electron), medicare (medical care), swiftly, the wounded, to fish, hot - to heat, to con`flict- `conflict, weekend;

b) to giggle, zig-zag, to whistle, to buzz, to bark, electrocute (electricity + execute), BC, live – life, 'convict – con'vict, bartend (from bartender), psycho, the whispering, colours (flag), jack-of-all-trades, flop, wineglass, Liz, to anger, rockumentary, to squeak, shilly-shally, half-decided, 'insult – to in'sult, enthusiasm – to enthuse, womanizer, ash-tray, CD, to party, Spanglish, the dead, Mr, to thin, a has-been, the white, emoticon (emotion+icon), comfortable, IMF, 'comment – to com'ment, informercial, a dear, laptop, enviro, DVD, to caffeinate, cock-a-doodle-doo, cheesecake, pepper-and-salt, OPEC, fan, to strike – stroke, 'accent – to ac'cent, reminiscence – to reminisce, to nail (забить гвоздь), school-boy, customs (таможня), math, motel, to mew, well-dressed, glasses (очки), to eye, to hand, goldfish, VIP, fancy, to cuckoo, to face, ATM, to supper, tradesman, brood – to breed, beefalo (beef, buffalo), to empty, chin-chin, to key, the poor, chit-chat, wonderful, math, pains, lab, the USA, fridge, to baby-sit (from baby-sitter), brunch (breakfast and lunch), to quack, to taxi, the G20, forget-me-not, AIDS, 'export – to ex'port, goody-goody, hiccup, crocogator (crocodile, alligator).

Task 7. Look at the examples of onomatopoeia, compare these words to your native ones:

Human Sounds

Voice: hum, mutter, chatter, yuck or yak, lisp, sneer, giggle, whimper, bawl, squeal

Nose and Mouth: shush, whistle, cluck, crunch, munch, gulp, cough, sniff, hiccup, snore, belch

Hands: pat, clap, slap, smack

Animal Sounds

Dogs: woof, yap, growl, snarl, howl

Cats: meow or miaow, mew, purr

Birds: chirp, tweet, twitter, crow

Insects: buzz, hum

Vehicle Sounds

Engines: roar, hum, purr

Brakes: squeal, screech

Other Sounds

Explosions: boom, bang, pop

Collisions: crash, bang, clash, smack, whomp, whump, thump, bump

Actions: zip, tap, click, knock, rap, bang

Liquids: burble, gurgle, trickle, fizz, plop

Task 8. Compare the words from 6 languages imitating the sounds of a rooster:

Russian – ku-ka-re-ku
English – cock-a-doodle-doo
German – kickeriki
French-cocorico
Japanese – Kokekokkoo
Thai – ake-e-ake-ake.
Which one sounds most similar to the sound of a rooster?

Task 9. Find abbreviations, acronyms and telescopisms:

1. You are frightfully BBC in your language this afternoon. 2. In Nebraska barbers are breaking the law if they eat onions between the hours of 7 a.m. and 7 p.m. 3. Jenny at one time thought D.C. might be good. 4. Before embarking on any plastic surgery, discuss it carefully with your doctor and consult Medicare and your health fund. 5. The shopaholic declares she never wears one designer head-to-toe. 6. She is supposed to be electrocuted.

Task 10. Find reduplicative compounds:

1. And making a scene is a definite no-no. 2. You know Mason's book will be a mishmash of old magazine articles. 3. The car was second-hand but the paint-work is in tip-top condition. 4. He dreams of becoming rich and famous, but he lives in a never-never land. 5. To some tastes the bric-a-brac in the parlour might seem excessive.

Task 11. Find clippings:

1. I got an A minus on the exam. 2. They teach us vets all about animal's souls. 3. Talking of the lab, we must send you for a blood test. 4. Next we heard a noise by the river and advancing carefully saw a hippo cow and her calf. 5. A ref blew his whistle. 6. He wore his specs on a black string.

Task 12. State the type of homonyms: homophones, homographs, perfect homonyms. If you deal with homographs or perfect homonyms say if they are full/partial, lexical / lexico-grammatical / grammatical:

Flour – flower, hide (шкура) – hide (прятаться), knight – night, heard – herd, ore – or, site - to cite, piece – peace, scent – cent, match (спичка) – match (матч), heir – air, club (дубинка) – club (клуб), tail – tale, minute (минута) – minute (мельчайший), sow (свинья) – to sow (сеять)

Task 13. State where we deal with polysemy and where it's a case of homonymy:

Face (лицо) – face (циферблат),
bar (адвокатура) – bar (плитка шоколада),

dull (глупый) – dull (тупой о ноже),
eye (глаз) – eye (игольное ушко),
bank (банк) – bank (берег реки),
flat (плоский) – flat (квартира),
mint (мята) – mint (чеканить монету),
abuse (оскорблять) – abuse (жестокое обращение),
lay (класть) – lay (грубо овладеть женщиной).

Task 14. State the type of antonyms:
Red – black, man – woman, war – peace, single – married, dead – alive, thin – fat, to accept – to reject.

Task 15. State the type of synonyms:
Weak – fragile, pang – ache, nice – awesome, room – chamber, thankful – grateful, money – dough, fatherland – motherland, to think – to deem, to see – to behold, world – universe, ground – soil, mother – mom.

Task 16. Give homophones to the following words:
Deer, see, right, bye, meat, weak, brake, bee, hear.

Task 17. Give homographs or perfect homonyms to the following words:
Match (матч), lead (свинец), tear (слеза), game (игра), mean (подлый).

Task 18. Give as many synonyms as you can to the words:
Awful, begin, outstanding, beautiful, laugh, tease.

Task 19. Find the synonymic dominant:
*t*o make – to create – to fabricate;
to stroll – to wander – to saunter;
pain – twinge – pang;
to skip – to spring – to leap – to jump.

Task 20. Say which linguistic phenomenon are these jokes and riddles based on:
a) polysemy, b) homonymy? Give your reasons.
  1 Customer: "I would like a book, please."
     Bookseller: "Something light?"
     Customer: "That doesn't matter. I have my car with me."

  2. Diner: "Do you serve fish here"
     Waiter: "We serve anyone, sir."

  3. The new house cleaner was full of her own importance. She had worked on the Continent and felt superior to the other servants.
     One day she was sharing some of her experiences.

"How do the foreign dishes compare to English ones?" asked one of her audience.

"Oh," replied the house cleaner, airily, "they break just the same."

4. 'My grandfather lived to be ninety and never used glasses'
   'Well, lots of people prefer to drink from bottles.'

5. 'Why did they hang that picture?'
   'Perhaps because they couldn't find the artist.'

6. Pam: "Hasn't Harvey ever married?"
   Beryl: "No, and I don't think he intends to, because he's studying for a bachelor's degree."

7. Caller: "I wonder if I can see your mother, little boy. Is she engaged?"
   Willie: "Engaged! She's married!"

8. Danny: 'Mother, may I have a nickel for an old man who is crying outside?'
   Mother: 'Yes, dear. But what is the old man crying about?'
   Danny: 'He is crying, "Nuts, nuts, five cents a bag"'

9. When does a chair dislike you?
   (When it can't bear you)

10. Why is a proud man like a music book?
    (Both give sentences)

11. Teacher: "What is the meaning of the word **matrimony**?"
    Student: "Father says it isn't a word, it's a sentence."

12. An observing man claims to have discovered the color of the wind. He says he went out and found it blew.

13. – Waiter!
    - Yes, sir!
    - What's this?
    - It's bean soup, sir!
    - Never mind what it has been. I want to know what it is now!

Task 21. Define where we deal with polysemy and where with homonymy:
a) seal (печать) – seal (тюлень), customs (обычаи) – customs (таможня), face (лицо) – face (циферблат), ball (мяч) – ball (бал), bar (адвокатура) – bar (плитка шоколада), eye (глаз) – eye (игольное ушко),

b) **school** – a) place of education for children; b) a large group of one kind of fish;

bug – a) any small insect; b) an apparatus for listening secretly to other people's conversations;

spleen – a) a small organ near the upper end of the stomach that controls the quality of the blood supply and produces certain blood cells; b) violent anger, especially expressed suddenly;

tank – a) a large container for storing liquid or gas; b) an enclosed heavily armed and armoured vehicle that moves on two endless metal belts.

Task 22. Say where we deal with free-word combinations and where with phraseological units (define the type according to Vinogradov's classification):
To lose one's heart, at sixes and sevens (in confusion), the last drop, to ride the high horse (to behave in a superior way), to watch a movie, to touch to the quick, to pull one's leg, to break the ice, to marry a doctor, a good answer, to take fancy to smb, to bear malice, to sleep like a log, bosom friend, not to turn a hair, easy work, once in a blue moon, red tape, burst into fury, green tape, the leopard cannot change its spots, to rise with the lark, to rise early, chilled to the bone, to kick the bucket, at death's door, at Mr. Brown's door, at a slow pace, at a snail's pace, to spread like wildfire, double Dutch.

Task 23. Define the type of set expressions according to Vinogradov's classification:
Granny farm, by hook or by crook, to have green fingers (to be a successive gardener), to make hay while the sun shines, to take the bull by the horns, old salt (experienced sailor), on the verge, to read between the lines, look after, a small fry, out-of-the-way, when pigs fly

Task 24. Judging only by the names of the dictionaries elicit as much information about them as possible and define their types.
1. Kunin A.V. English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary.
2. Ayto J. The Longman Register of new Words.
3. The Penguin Dictionary of English Synonyms and Antonyms.
4. Zhdanova I.F. Short Russian-English Business Dictionary.
5. Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English language.
6. A Desktop of Most Frequent English Collocations: The teacher's Word-Book
7. The Oxford-Duden Pictorial English Dictionary.
8. Тихомирова Е.Е. русско-английский разговорник-путеводитель: Великобритания. США.
9. Walker's Rhyming Dictionary of the English language.
10. The new Webster's Grammar Guide.

Task 25. Define the kinds of sentences according to the purpose of the utterance:
1. "Where have you been?". 2. She was terribly nervous. 3. "Step this way, please, miss," she said. 4. "Oh, dear! I cannot believe my eyes!" 5. I don't like violets. 6. Please, tell me the truth.

Task 26. Define the type of question:
1. Is he a student? 2. Who sent you this letter? 3. Did he arrive at night? 4. Would you like a cup of tea or coffee? 5. He went there yesterday, didn't he? 6. Have they finished the interview or are they still talking?

Task 27. Define one-member sentences are two-member sentences (say whether they complete or elliptical):
1. Freedom! The clear sky! The wonderful twitter of birds! 2. I didn't see them. 3. "Where were you yesterday?" "Everywhere." 4. A sofa. A table. Two armchairs. A Persian carpet. 5. Loneliness. This everlasting anguish. This intolerable desire to pass away. 6. "Who said that?" "Nancy."

Task 28. State the type of connection and coordination.
1. The clock struck five and the first visitor arrived. 2. Hurry up, or you'll be late again. 3. It was a high climb but it was worth it. 4. Liz is blonde and Helen is dark. 5. The book contains a wealth of valuable information, the material is conveniently organized. 6. You can lead a horse to water, but you cannot make him drink. 7. Most British hospitals offer only Western methods of treatment; hospitals in China provide both Western and traditional Chinese medicine. 8. The grass was wet, so he descended to the road. 9. Go away; otherwise I'll call the police. 10. I came, I saw, I conquered. 11. Polly has a talent for acting or rather her parents think so.

Task 29. Write out subordinate clauses. Define their type of (subject, object, predicative, adverbial, attributive, parenthetical).
1. *What I want* is to be paid for *what I do*. 2. I only write down *what seems to me to be the truth*. 3. The fact is *he ignored all criticism*. 4. The invalid, *whose strength was now sufficiently restored*, threw off his coat, and rushed towards the sea. 5. The dean saw all the students *who had received poor grades*. 6. *If anything particular occurs*, you can write to me at the post-office, Ipswich. 7. *As Doris ran up the steps*, she twisted her ankle. 8. His mother died *when he was eight years old*. 9. Your story, *you know*, is of little importance.

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