

МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение
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«СЕВЕРО-КАВКАЗСКИЙ ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

**МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ УКАЗАНИЯ ПО ВЫПОЛНЕНИЮ ЛАБОРАТОРНЫХ РАБОТ
ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ
ОСНОВЫ ТЕОРИИ ВТОРОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА**

Направление подготовки	<u>45.03.02 Лингвистика</u>
Направленность (профиль)	<u>Теория и методика преподавания иностранных языков и культур</u>
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Реализуется в семестре	<u>7</u>

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Содержание

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Введение

Целью освоения дисциплины «Основы теории второго иностранного языка» являются обеспечение лингвистическими знаниями об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических и словообразовательных явлениях иностранного языка, изучаемого в качестве второго иностранного.

Учебно-методическое пособие имеет следующую структуру: введение, разработки лабораторных занятий. Во введении определяется цель курса, его место в структуре ОП бакалавриата, указаны компетенции обучающегося, формируемые в результате освоения дисциплины.

Разработки лабораторных занятий включают вопросы, выносимые на обсуждение, методические рекомендации по подготовке студентов, рекомендуемую литературу, интернет-ресурсы, а также задания для развития и контроля владения компетенциями.

Компетенции обучающегося, формируемые в результате освоения дисциплины:

Код, формулировка компетенции	Код, формулировка индикатора	Планируемые результаты обучения по дисциплине (модулю), характеризующие этапы формирования компетенций, индикаторов
УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач	ИД-1 УК-1. выделяет проблемную ситуацию, осуществляет ее многофакторный анализ и диагностику на основе системного подхода ИД-2 УК-1. осуществляет поиск, отбор и систематизацию информации для определения альтернативных вариантов стратегических решений в проблемной ситуации ИД-3 УК-1. определяет и оценивает риски возможных вариантов решений проблемной ситуации, выбирает оптимальный вариант её решения	Осуществляет поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применяя системный подход для решения профессиональных задач
ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого	ИД-1 ОПК-1. идентифицирует основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии ИД-2 ОПК-1. демонстрирует умения использовать иностранный язык на фонетическом, лексическом, грамматическом, синтаксическом и стилистическом уровне	Применяет систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях и закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка

иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях		
ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач	ИД-1 ОПК-5. корректно использует профильные информационные ресурсы информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», рациональные приемы поиска и применения программных продуктов лингвистического профиля ИД-2 ОПК-5. понимает принципы поиска и обработки необходимой информации, содержащейся в специальной литературе, энциклопедических, толковых, исторических, этимологических словарях, словарях сочетаемости, включая профильные электронные ресурсы	Эффективно применяет компьютер как средство получения, обработки и управления информацией для достижения задач в области лингвистики и межкультурной коммуникации

Английский язык

Лабораторная работа1

Тема 1. Фонетика и фонология английского языка. Сегментная фонетика английского языка. Модификация звуков.

Цель занятия: сформировать знание о сегментной английской фонетике.

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях.

ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Обучающийся должен

знать:

возможные варианты решения задачи, оценивая их достоинства и недостатки; основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии; особенности передачи семантической информации, стилистическую и культурную коннотацию языковых единиц, используемых в устной и письменной коммуникации.

уметь:

находить и критически анализировать информацию, необходимую для решения поставленной задачи; аргументировано формировать собственные суждения и оценки;

интерпретировать основные проявления взаимосвязи языковых уровней и взаимоотношения подсистем языка; интерпретировать коммуникативные цели высказывания, выявлять релевантную информацию, адекватно идентифицировать принадлежность высказывания к официальному, нейтральному и неофициальному регистрам общения

владеть:

навыками критического анализа информации;

навыками применения понятийного аппарата изучаемой дисциплины с учетом основных особенностей научного стиля в устной и письменной речи;

навыками использования лексико-грамматических и фонетических средств организации целого текста с соблюдением семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями устного и /или письменного высказывания.

Актуальность темы: важность формирования у студентов знаний сегментной английской фонетике.

Организационная форма занятия: собеседование.

На занятии используется развернутая беседа по каждому вопросу плана с единым для всех перечнем рекомендуемой обязательной и дополнительной литературы; отдельные выступления студентов (по их желанию или по вызову преподавателя).

Теоретическая часть:

1. British and American pronunciation models

In traditional phonetic description, it has been usual to describe the characteristics of one particular type of speech. Where possible, analysts have looked for a ‘standard’ or ‘model’ accent. In Spain, for example, Castilian Spanish has for centuries been treated as the ‘purest’ form of Spanish, and the one which foreigners should attempt to copy. In Britain, a similar standard traditionally is known as Received Pronunciation (RP).

In the nineteenth century Received Pronunciation (RP) was a social marker, a prestige accent of an Englishman. “Received” was understood in the sense of “accepted in the best society”. The speech of aristocracy and the court phonetically was that of the London area. Then it lost its local characteristics and was finally fixed as a ruling-class accent, often referred to as “King’s English”. It was also the accent taught at public schools. With the spread of education cultured people not belonging to upper classes were eager to modify their accent in the direction of social standards.

We know that teaching practice as well as a pronouncing dictionary must base their recommendations on one or more models. A pronunciation model is a carefully chosen and defined accent of a language. An increasing number of writers now prefer to refer to the standard English pronunciation as a BBC accent. This model accent for British English is represented in the 15th (1997) and the 16th (2003) editions of EPD. This is the pronunciation of professional speakers employed by the BBC as newsreaders and announcers. The model of British English pronunciation recorded in LPD is a modernized version of RP.

For American English, EPD also follows what is frequently heard from professional voices on national network news and information programmes. It is similar to what has been termed General American, which refers to a geographically (largely non-coastal) and socially based set of pronunciation features. It is important to note that no single dialect – regional or social – has been singled out as an American standard. Even national media with professionally trained voices have speakers with regionally mixed features. However, ‘Network English’, in its most colourless form, can be described as a relatively homogeneous dialect that reflects the ongoing development of progressive American dialects. This ‘dialect’ itself contains some variant forms. J.C. Wells prefers the term General American. According to him, this is what is spoken by the majority of Americans, namely those who do not have a noticeable eastern or southern accent.

1.1. Most distinctive features of American English pronunciation

Vowels. American English is commonly described as having lax vowels, tense vowels, and wide diphthongs. Vowel length in American English is generally considered to be conditional by phonological environment, so the long/short distinction in BBC English is not usually present, though we use the length mark on the tense vowels [i: a: ɔ: ɜ: u:] in order to mark their relationship to the English long vowels. Since the diphthongal movement in [eɪ] and [oʊ] is small in American pronunciation, these are treated as tense vowels.

Vowels preceding /r/ are notably influenced by rhotic colouring. Word spellings such as *bird*, *word*, *earth*, *jerk*, which now rhyme with [ɜ:] in American English, at one time in history had differing vowels. The retroflexed vowels [ɜ:] and [ə], stressed and unstressed, are among those features that noticeably distinguish American English from BBC English. All vowels occurring before [r] within a syllable are likely to become “r-coloured” to some extent. So there are 18 vowels in AmE:

- lax vowels: ɪ e æ ʌ ʊ ə
- tense vowels: i: a: ɔ: ɜ: u: eɪ oʊ

- wide diphthongs: aʊ aɪ ɔɪ
- retroflexed vowels ("r-coloured") ɝ ɞ

There is an issue of the diphthong in the words like *home*. This has for many years been represented as [əʊ]. [oʊ] is the preferred transcription for the American English diphthong.

The American [æ] vowel is somewhat closer than BBC [æ], and seems to be evolving into an even closer vowel in many speakers. It is used in the same words as BBC [æ] and also in most of the words which in BBC have [ɑ:] when there is no letter "r" in the spelling, e.g. *pass*, *ask*. The quality of American [ɑ:] is similar to the BBC [ɑ:] vowel; it is used in some of the words which have [ɑ:] in BBC when there is no letter "r" in the spelling (e.g. *father*, *calm*). It also replaces the BBC short [ɒ] vowel in many words (e.g. *hot*, *top*, *bother*): *bother* rhymes with *father*.

American [ɔ:] is more open in quality than BBC [ɔ:]. It is used where BBC has [ɔ:] (e.g. *cause*, *walk*), and also replaces BBC short [ɒ] in many words, e.g. *long*, *dog*. American [u:] is similar to BBC [u:], but is also used where BBC has [ju:] after alveolar consonants (e.g. *new*, *duty*).

Consonants. There are numerous phonetic and phonological differences between British and American English, as there are within regional and social varieties within the two political entities. Two differences receive sufficient attention and have attained sufficient generality within the two varieties. One is phonetic: the "flapped" medial [t] (as in *butter*) is transcribed as [ɾ]. The other is phonological: the presence (in American English) of postvocalic [r] (as in *farmer* ['fɑ:r.mə]).

The difference between "clear" and "dark" [ɪ] is much less marked in American than in the BBC accent, so that even prevocalic [ɪ] in American pronunciation sounds dark to English ears.

The accent used for British English is classed as *non-rhotic* - the phoneme [r] is not usually pronounced except when a vowel follows it. The American pronunciations, on the other hand, do show a rhotic accent, and in general in the accent described, [r] is pronounced where the letter "r" is found in the spelling.

1.2. Фонетика и фонология английского языка. Сегментная фонетика английского языка. Модификация звуков.

Теоретическая часть:

1. Classification of English consonants

Russian phoneticians classify consonants according to the following principles: i) degree of noise; ii) place of articulation; iii) manner of articulation; iv) position of the soft palate; v) force of articulation.

(I) There are few ways of seeing situation concerning the classification of English consonants. According to V.A. Vassilyev primary importance should be given to the type of obstruction and the manner of production noise. On this ground he distinguishes two large classes:

- a) occlusive, in the production of which a complete obstruction is formed;
- b) constrictive, in the production of which an incomplete obstruction is formed. Each of the two classes is subdivided into noise consonants and sonorants.

Another point of view is shared by a group of Russian phoneticians. They suggest that the first and basic principle of classification should be degree of noise. Such consideration leads to dividing English consonants into two general kinds: a) noise consonants; b) sonorants.

There are no sonorants in the classifications suggested by British and American scholars. D. Jones and H. Gleason, for example, give separate groups of nasals [m, n, ŋ], lateral [l] and semi-

vowels, or glides [w, r, j (y)]. B. Bloch and G. Trager besides nasals and lateral give trilled [r]. According to Russian phoneticians sonorants are considered to be consonants from articulatory, acoustic and phonological point of view.

(II) The place of articulation. This principle of classification is rather universal. There is, however, controversy about terming the active organs of speech. Russian phoneticians divide the tongue into the following parts: (1) front with the tip, (2) middle, and (3) back. A. Gimson's terms differ from those used by Russian phoneticians: apical is equivalent to forelingual; frontal is equivalent to mediolingual; dorsum is the whole upper area of the tongue.

(III) Russian scholars consider the principle of classification according to the manner of articulation to be one of the most important. They suggest a classification from the point of view of the closure. It may be: (1) complete closure, then occlusive consonants are produced; (2) incomplete closure, then constrictive consonants are produced; (3) the combination of the two closures, then occlusive-constrictive consonants, or affricates, are produced; (4) intermittent closure, then rolled, or trilled consonants are produced.

A. Gimson, H. Gleason, D. Jones and other foreign phoneticians include in the manner of noise production groups of lateral, nasals, and semi-vowels which do not belong to a single class.

Russian phoneticians subdivide consonants into unicentral (pronounced with one focus) and bicentral (pronounced with two foci), according to the number of noise producing centers, or foci.

According to the shape of narrowing constrictive consonants and affricates are subdivided into sounds with flat narrowing and round narrowing.

(IV) According to the position of the soft palate all consonants are subdivided into oral and nasal. When the soft palate is raised oral consonants are produced; when the soft palate is lowered nasal consonants are produced.

(V) According to the force of articulation consonants may be fortis and lenis. This characteristic is connected with the work of the vocal cords: voiceless consonants are strong and voiced are weak.

3. Classification of English vowels

The first linguist who tried to describe and classify vowels for all languages was D. Jones. He devised the system of 8 Cardinal Vowels.

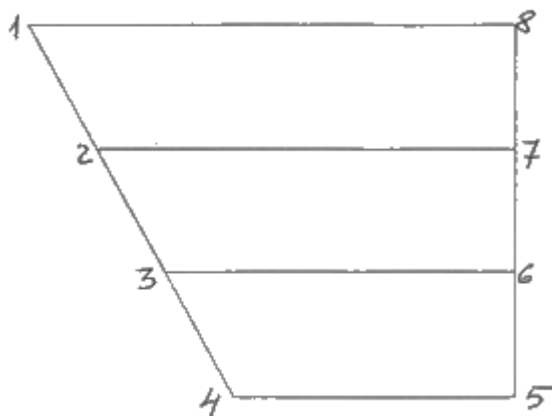


Fig. 1

The system of Cardinal Vowels is an international standard. In spite of the theoretical significance of the Cardinal Vowel system its practical application is limited.

Russian phoneticians suggest a classification of vowels according to the following principles: 1) stability of articulation; 2) tongue position; 3) lip position; 4) character of the vowel end; 5) length; 6) tenseness.

1. Stability of articulation. This principle is not singled out by British and American phoneticians. According to Russian scholars vowels are subdivided into: a) monophthongs (the tongue position is stable); b) diphthongs (it changes, that is the tongue moves from one position to another); c) diphthongoids (an intermediate case, when the change in the position is fairly weak).

Diphthongs are defined differently by different authors. A.C. Gimson, for example, distinguishes 20 vocalic phonemes which are made of vowels and vowel glides. D. Jones defines diphthongs as unisyllabic gliding sounds in the articulation of which the organs of speech start from one position and then glide to another position. There are two vowels in English [i:, u:] that may have a diphthongal glide where they have full length, and the tendency for diphthongization is becoming gradually stronger.

2. The position of the tongue. According to the horizontal movement Russian phoneticians distinguish five classes: 1) front; 2) front-retracted; 3) central; 4) back; 5) back-advanced.

British phoneticians do not single out the classes of front-retracted and back-advanced vowels. So both [i:] and [ɪ] are classed as front, and both [u:] and [ʊ] are classed as back.

The way British and Russian phoneticians approach the vertical movement of the tongue is also slightly different. British scholars distinguish three classes of vowels: high (or close), mid (or half-open) and low (or open) vowels. Russian phoneticians made the classification more detailed distinguishing two subclasses in each class, i.e. broad and narrow variations of the three vertical positions. Consequently, six groups of vowels are distinguished.

English vowels and diphthongs may be placed on the Cardinal Vowel quadrilateral as shown in Figs. 2, 3, 4.

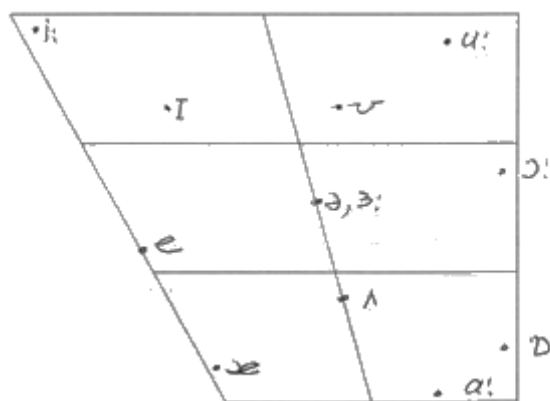


Fig. 2

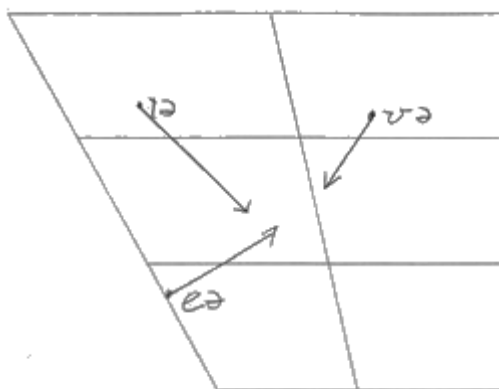


Fig. 3

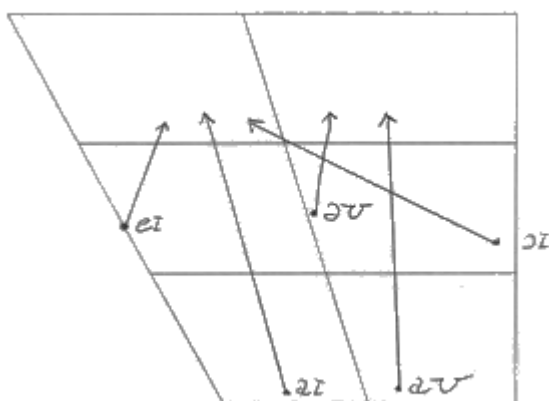


Fig. 4

3. Lip position. Traditionally three lip positions are distinguished: spread, neutral, rounded. Lip rounding takes place due to physiological reasons rather than to any other. Any back vowel in English is produced with rounded lips, the degree of rounding is different and depends on the height of the raised part of the tongue; the higher it is raised the more rounded the lips are.

4. Character of the vowel end. This quality depends on the kind of the articulatory transition from a vowel to a consonant. This transition (VC) is very closed in English unlike Russian. As a result all English short vowels are checked when stressed. The degree of checkness may vary and depends on the following consonants (voiceless, voiced or sonorant).

5. Vowel length or quantity has for a long time been the point of disagreement among phoneticians. It is a common knowledge that a vowel like any sound has physical duration. When sounds are used in connected speech they cannot help being influenced by one another. Duration of a vowel depends on the following factors: 1) its own length; 2) the accent of the syllable in which it occurs; 3) the phonetic context; 4) the position in a rhythmic structure; 5) the position in a tone group; 6) the position in an utterance; 7) the tempo of the utterance; and 8) the type of pronunciation. The problem the analysts are concerned with is whether variations in quantity are meaningful (relevant). Such contrasts are investigated in phonology.

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

4. Modifications of consonants and vowels

The modifications are observed both within words and word boundaries. There are the following types of modification: assimilation, accommodation, reduction, elision, and inserting. The adaptive modification of a consonant by a neighboring consonant in a speech chain is assimilation. Accommodation is used to denote the interchanges of VC or CV types. Reduction is actually qualitative or quantitative weakening of vowels in unstressed positions. Elision is a complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants. Inserting is a process of sound addition.

The main cases of modification in English are as follows:

Modifications of consonants

1. Assimilation

1.1. Place of articulation

- t, d > dental before [ə, ð]: *eighth, at the, said that*
- t, d > post-alveolar before [r]: *tree, true, dream, the third room*
- s, z > post-alveolar before [ʃ]: *this shop, does she*
- t, d > affricates before [j]: *graduate, could you*
- m > labio-dental before [f]: *symphony*
- n > dental before [θ]: *seventh*
- n > velar before [ŋ]: *thank*

1.2. Manner of articulation

- loss of plosion: *glad to see you, great trouble*
- nasal plosion: *sudden, at night, let me see*
- lateral plosion: *settle, at last*

1.3. Work of the vocal cords

- voiced > voiceless: *newspaper, gooseberry* (and in grammatical items: *has, is, does* > [s]; *of, have* > [f])

Notice: In English typical assimilation is voiced > voiceless; voiceless > voiced is not typical.

1.4. Degree of noise

- sonorants > are partially devoiced after [p, t, k, s]

2. Accommodation

2.1. Lip position

- consonant + back vowel: *pool, rude, who* (rounded)
- consonant + front vowel: *tea, sit, keep* (spread)

3. Elision

3.1. Loss of [h] in personal and possessive pronouns and the forms of the auxiliary verb *have*.

3.2. [l] tends to be lost when preceded by [ɔ:]: *always, already, all right*

3.3. In cluster of consonants: *next day, just one, mashed potatoes*

4. Inserting of sounds

4.1. Linking [r] (potential pronunciation of [r]): *car owner*

4.2. Intrusive [r]: [r] is pronounced where no *r* is seen in the spelling: *china and glass*; it is not recommended to foreign learners.

Modifications of vowels

1. Reduction

1.1. Quantitative

1.2. Qualitative

2. Accommodation

2.2. Positional length of vowels: *knee – need – neat*

2.3. Nasalization of vowels: preceded or followed by [n, m]: *never, no, then, men*.

Оборудование и материалы: ноутбук, проектор, доска.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What is the model accent for British English? Characterize it.
2. What are the most distinctive features of American English pronunciation?
3. What is the model accent for American English? Characterize it.
4. What are the most distinctive features of American English pronunciation?
5. Point out the principles of English consonants classification. Enumerate the consonant groups according the principles.
6. Give precise account of all factors than can influence the quality of a vowel. Discuss the principles of classification of vowels.
7. How are vowels classified according to the principles?
8. Give a brief overview of the modifications of consonants. Illustrate what are going to say by examples.
9. Give a brief overview of the modifications of vowels in speech continuum, provide examples.

Задания

1. What articulatory features of the opposed consonants make the meaning of the given words different? (E.g. *pea - fee, net - let* etc.)
2. How would a Russian learner of English probably pronounce the English [r]? Can you expect a phonological mistake?
3. Do Russian [л], [л'] and English [l], [ɫ] differ? If so, in what?
4. **Identify the syllable boundary in the following words. Work out the rules determining the syllable boundary for the first and the second groups:**
5. a) *sitter runner cutter beggar chopping clipping drummer father bigger thinner gummy*;
6. b) *pity city civil clinic finish level never living medal model very*;
7. **Comment on the difference in syllable division of the given English and Russian words. What articulatory vowel feature determines the syllable division of the English?**
8. *Letter – лето, runner – рано, sitter – сито, city – Сити, bitter – бито, belly – белый, billet – билет, bullet – пуля, cellar – села, chilly – Чили, clipper – клипер, coffee – кофе.*
9. **Study the following oppositions. Detect the realization of the phonological function of syllable division.**
10. *I scream / ice-cream; case said / Kay said / case Ed; it slips / Its lips; use park / you spark; that stuff / that's tough; plum pie / plump eye; pea stalks / peace talks; a name / an aim; one's own / one zone; night-rate / nitrate; palisades / palace aids.*

Тема 2. Фонетика и фонология английского языка. Сегментная фонетика английского языка. Особенности слогообразования.

Цель занятия: сформировать знание о суперсегментной английской фонетике.

Цель занятия: сформировать знание о сегментной английской фонетике.

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях.

ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Обучающийся должен

знать:

возможные варианты решения задачи, оценивая их достоинства и недостатки; основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии; особенности передачи семантической информации, стилистическую и культурную коннотацию языковых единиц, используемых в устной и письменной коммуникации.

уметь:

находить и критически анализировать информацию, необходимую для решения поставленной задачи; аргументировано формировать собственные суждения и оценки;

интерпретировать основные проявления взаимосвязи языковых уровней и взаимоотношения подсистем языка; интерпретировать коммуникативные цели высказывания, выявлять релевантную информацию, адекватно идентифицировать принадлежность высказывания к официальному, нейтральному и неофициальному регистрам общения

владеть:

навыками критического анализа информации;

навыками применения понятийного аппарата изучаемой дисциплины с учетом основных особенностей научного стиля в устной и письменной речи;

навыками использования лексико-грамматических и фонетических средств организации целого текста с соблюдением семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями устного и /или письменного высказывания.

Актуальность темы: важность формирования у студентов знаний суперсегментной английской фонетике.

Организационная форма занятия: собеседование, целью которого является повышение интенсивности и эффективности процесса восприятия за счет активного включения обучаемых в коллективный поиск истины.

Теоретическая часть:

Syllable formation in English is based on the phonological opposition vowel – consonant. Vowels are usually syllabic while consonants are not with the exceptions of [l], [m], [n], which become syllabic in a final position preceded by a noise consonant: *bottle* [bɒtl̩], *bottom* [bɒtm̩], *button* [bʌtn̩] and [r] (in those accents which pronounce [r]) perhaps [præps̩].

The structure of English syllables can be summarized as follows:

1. Many syllables have one or more consonants preceding the nucleus. These make up the syllable onset: *me*, *so*, *play*. Traditionally, they are known as open syllables.
2. Many syllables have one or more consonants following the nucleus. They make up the syllable coda. They are traditionally known as closed syllables: *cat*, *jump*.
3. Also there are covered (*note*) and uncovered (*oak*) syllables.
4. The combination of nucleus and coda has a special significance, making up the rhyming property of a syllable.

The other aspect of this component is syllable division. The problem of syllable division exists in case of intervocalic consonants and their clusters, like in such words as *city*, *extra*, *standing* and others.

We could enumerate the following peculiarities of the syllabic structure of English:

1. There cannot be more than one vowel within one syllable; in words with the syllabic structure CVVC the point of syllable division is between the two vowels.
2. Syllabic boundary is after an intervocalic consonant preceded by a short stressed vowel.
3. Syllabic boundary is before an intervocalic consonant if it is not preceded by the above-mentioned vowels.
4. Sonorants [l], [m], [n] are syllabic if they are preceded by noise consonants.
5. The typical and most fundamental syllabic structure is of (C) VC type.
6. Word final consonants are normally of weak-end type.

The functions of the syllable.

The first is constitutive function. It lies in its ability to be a part of a word or a word itself.

The other function is distinctive one. In this respect the syllable is characterized by its ability to differentiate words and word-forms: *an aim* – *a name*, *an ice house* – *a nice house*, etc. *I saw her eyes* – *I saw her rise*, *I saw the meat* – *I saw them eat*.

Word stress. English word stress is traditionally defined as dynamic, but in fact, the special prominence of the stressed syllables is manifested in the English language not only through the increase of intensity, but also through the changes in the vowel quantity, consonant and vowel quality and pitch of the voice.

The free placement of stress is exemplified in the English and Russian languages, e.g. English: '*appetite* – *be'ginning* – *ba'lloon*; Russian: *озеро* – *погода* – *молоко*.

The word stress in English as well as in Russian is not only free but it may also be shifting, performing the function of differentiating lexical units, parts of speech, grammatical forms. In English word stress is used as a means of word-building; in Russian it marks both word-building and word forms, e.g. '*contrast* – *con'trast*; '*habit* – *habitual*, '*music* – *mu'sician*; *дома* — *дома*; *чудная* — *чудная*.

The British linguists usually distinguish three degrees of stress in the word. A.C. Gimson, for example, shows the distribution of the degrees of stress in the word *examination*: 3 2 4 1 5. The primary stress is the strongest, it is marked by number 1, the secondary stress is the second strongest marked by 2. All the other degrees are termed weak stress. Unstressed syllables are supposed to have weak stress.

The American scholars distinguish four degrees of word stress but term them: primary stress, secondary stress, tertiary stress and weak stress. The difference between the secondary and tertiary stresses is very subtle and seems subjective. The second pretonic syllables of such words as *libe'ration*, *recog'nition* are marked by secondary stress in BrE, in AmE they are said to have tertiary stress. In AmE tertiary stress also affects the suffixes *-ory*, *-ary*, *-ony* of nouns which are considered unstressed in BrE, e.g. *'territory*, *'ceremony*, *'dictionary*.

The accentual structure of English words is liable to instability due to the different origin of several layers in the Modern English word-stock. In Germanic languages the word stress originally fell on the initial syllable or the second syllable, the root syllable in the English words with prefixes. This tendency was called recessive. Most English words of Anglo-Saxon origin as well as the French borrowings (dated back to the 15th century) are subjected to this recessive tendency. Unrestricted recessive tendency is observed in the native English words having no prefix, e.g. *mother*, *daughter*, *brother*, *swallow*, in assimilated French borrowings, e.g. *reason*, *colour*, *restaurant*. Restricted recessive tendency marks English words with prefixes, e.g. *foresee*, *withdraw*, *apart*. A great number of words of Anglo-Saxon origin are monosyllabic or disyllabic, both notional words and form words.

There is a wide agreement among Russian linguists that intonation is a complex, a whole, formed by significant variations of pitch, loudness and tempo closely related.

In the pitch component we may consider the distinct variations in the direction of pitch, pitch level and pitch range. According to R. Kingdon, the most important nuclear tones in English are: Low Fall, High Fall, Low Rise, High Rise, and Fall-Rise.

The meanings of the nuclear tones are difficult to specify in general terms. Roughly speaking the falling tone of any level and range expresses certainty, completeness, and independence. A rising tone on the contrary expresses uncertainty, incompleteness or dependence. A falling-rising tone may combine the falling tone's meaning of assertion, certainty with the rising tone's meaning of dependence, incompleteness. At the end of a phrase it often conveys a feeling of reservation; that is, it asserts something and at the same time suggests that there is something else to be said. At the beginning or in the middle of a phrase it is a more forceful alternative to the rising tone, expressing the assertion of one point, together with the implication that another point is to follow. In English there is often clear evidence of an intonation-group boundary, but no audible nuclear tone movement preceding. In such a circumstance two courses are open: either one may classify the phenomenon as a further kind of head or one may consider it to be the level nuclear tone. Low Level tone is very characteristic of reading poetry. Mid-Level tone is particularly common in spontaneous speech functionally replacing the rising tone. There are two more nuclear tones in English: Rise-Fall and Rise-Fall-Rise. But adding refinement to speech they are not absolutely essential tones for the foreign learner to acquire. Rise-Fall can always be replaced by High Fall and Rise-Fall-Rise by Fall-Rise without making nonsense of the utterance.

Two more pitch parameters are pitch ranges and pitch levels. Three pitch ranges are generally distinguished: normal, wide, and narrow. Pitch levels may be high, medium, and low.

Loudness is used in a variety of ways. Gross differences of meaning (such as anger, menace, excitement) can be conveyed by using an overall loudness level.

The tempo of speech is the third component of intonation. The term tempo implies the rate of the utterance and pausation. The rate of speech can be normal, slow and fast. The parts of the utterance which are particularly important sound slower. Unimportant parts are commonly pronounced at a greater speed than normal.

Any stretch of speech can be split into smaller portions, i.e. phonetic wholes, phrases, intonation groups by means of pauses. We may distinguish the following three kinds of pauses:

1. Short pauses which may be used to separate intonation groups within a phrase.
2. Longer pauses which normally manifest the end of the phrase.
3. Very long pauses, which are approximately twice as long as the first type, are used to separate phonetic wholes.

Functionally, there may be distinguished syntactic, emphatic and hesitation pauses.

Syntactic pauses separate phonopassages, phrases, and intonation groups. Emphatic pauses serve to make especially prominent certain parts of the utterance. Hesitation pauses are mainly used in spontaneous speech to gain some time to think over what to say next. They may be silent or filled.

Pitch movements are inseparably connected with loudness. Together with the tempo of speech they form a tone-group which is the basic unit of intonation. A tone group contains one nucleus and may contain other stressed or unstressed syllables normally preceding or following the nucleus. The boundaries of a tone group may be marked by temporal pauses.

Intonation groups serve to actualize syntagms in oral speech. The syntagm is a group of words which is semantically and syntactically complete. Each intonation group may consist of one or more potential syntagms, e.g. the sentence *I think he is coming soon* has two potential syntagms: *I think* and *he is coming soon*. In oral speech it is normally actualized as one intonation group.

The intonation group is a stretch of speech which may have the length of the whole phrase. But the phrase often contains more than one intonation group. The number of intonation groups depends on the length of the phrase and the degree of semantic importance or emphasis given to various parts of it:

This_⊃ bed was not ∇slept^o in — ‘This bed/was_⊃ not ∇slept^o in

An additional terminal tone on *this bed* expresses an emphasis on *this bed* in contrast to other *beds*.

2.2. Фонетика и фонология английского языка. Суперсегментная фонетика английского языка. Особенности слогообразования.

Not all stressed syllables are of equal importance. One of the syllables has the greater prominence than the others and forms the nucleus, or focal point of an intonation pattern. Formally the nucleus may be described as a strongly stressed syllable which is generally the last strongly accented syllable of an intonation pattern and which marks a significant change of pitch direction. The nuclear tone is the most important part of the intonation group without which the latter cannot exist at all. On the other hand, an intonation pattern may consist of one syllable which is its nucleus.

The tone of a nucleus determines the pitch of the rest of the intonation pattern following it which is called the tail. The nucleus and the tail form what is called terminal tone.

The two other sections of the intonation group are the head and the pre-head which form the pre-nuclear part of the intonation pattern and, like the tail, they may be looked upon as optional elements.

The pre-nuclear part can take a variety of pitch patterns. Variation within the pre-nucleus does not usually affect the grammatical meaning of the utterance, though it often conveys meanings associated with attitude or phonetic styles. There are three common types of pre-nucleus: a descending type in which the pitch gradually descends (often in “steps”) to the nucleus; an ascending type in which the syllables form an ascending sequence and a level type when all the syllables stay more or less on the same level.

The meaning of the intonation group is the combination of the “meaning” of the terminal tone and the pre-nuclear part combined with the “meaning” of pitch range and pitch level. The parts of the intonation group can be combined in various ways manifesting changes in meaning, cf.: the High Head combined with Low Fall, High Fall, Low Rise, High Rise, Fall-Rise in the phrase *Not at all*.

→*Not at all* (reserved, calm).

→*Not at all* (surprised, concerned).

→*Not at all* (encouraging, friendly).

→*Not at all* (questioning).

→*Not at all* (intensely encouraging, protesting).

The more the height of the pitch contrasts within the intonation pattern the more emphatic the intonation group sounds, cf.:

He's won. *Fan[?]astic.*

Fan[?]astic.

The changes of pitch, loudness and tempo are not haphazard variations. No matter how variable the individual variations of these prosodic components are they tend to become standardized, so that all speakers of the language use them in similar ways under similar circumstances. These abstracted characteristics of intonation structures may be called intonation patterns which form the prosodic system of English.

It is still impossible to classify all the fine shades of feeling and attitude which can be conveyed by slight changes in pitch, loudness and in various other ways. On the other hand it is quite possible to make a broad classification of intonation patterns which are so different in their nature that they materially change the meaning of the utterance and to make different pitches and degrees of loudness in each of them. Such an analysis resembles the phonetic analysis of sounds of a language whereby phoneticians establish the number of significant sounds it uses.

The distinctive function of intonation is realized in the opposition of the same word sequences which differ in certain parameters of the intonation pattern. Intonation patterns make their distinctive contribution at intonation group, phrase and text levels. Thus in the phrases:

If[?] Mary comes / let me→ know at[?] once (a few people are expected to come but it is Mary who interests the speaker)

If→ Mary comes / let me→ know at[?] once (no one else but Mary is expected to come)

the intonation patterns of the first intonation groups are opposed. In the opposition *I enjoyed it – I enjoyed it* the pitch pattern operates over the whole phrase adding in the second phrase the notion that the speaker has reservations (implying a continuation something like ‘but it could have been a lot better’).

Any section of the intonation pattern, any of its three constituents can perform the distinctive function thus being phonological units. The most powerful phonological unit is the terminal tone. The opposition of terminal tones distinguishes different types of sentence. The same

sequence of words may be interpreted as a different syntactical type, i.e. a statement or a question, a question or an exclamation being pronounced with different terminal tones, e.g.:

Tom saw it (statement) – *Tom saw it?* (general question)

Didn't you enjoy it? (general question) – *Didn't you enjoy it?* (exclamation)

Will you be quiet? (request) – *Will you be quiet?* (command).

The number of terminal tones indicates the number of intonation groups. Together with the increase of loudness terminal tones serve to single out the semantic centre of the utterance. By semantic centre we mean the information centre which may simultaneously concentrate the expression of attitudes and feelings. The words in an utterance do not necessarily all contribute an equal amount of information, some are more important to the meaning than others. This largely depends on the context or situation in which the intonation group or a phrase is said. Some words are predisposed by their function in the language to be stressed. In English lexical (content) words are generally accented while grammatical (form) words are more likely to be unaccented although words belonging to both of these groups may be unaccented or accented if the meaning requires it.

Оборудование и материалы: ноутбук, проектор, доска.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. Explain the structure of syllable in English. Comment on the problem of syllable division in case of intervocalic consonants.
2. What is the articulatory and acoustic nature of word stress in English?
3. How many degrees of word stress are distinguished in British English and American English?
4. What tendencies are there in English word accent?
5. Provide the definitions of intonation. How do you understand the broad and the narrow definition of intonation? What is the difference between the terms intonation and prosody?
6. What are the components of intonation? Characterize each of them.
7. What do you know about the structure of the English tone-group?
8. Comment on the distinctive function of intonation using examples.

Задания

1. Transcribe the extract.
2. Point out the modifications of sounds in speech and characterize them. Define speech sounds undergone the modifications.
3. Point out the alternations of speech sounds; characterize them from the point of view of one of the phonological schools.
4. Break the disyllabic and polysyllabic words into syllables; define the structure of the syllables; explain the points of syllable division.
5. Comment on the peculiarities of the accentual structure of words.
6. Indicate intonation on the staves according to the tonetic marks. Characterize the structure of the intonation pattern and comment on the functions.

Sample analysis:

1. *I have six honest serving men*

They taught me all I knew.

[aɪ hæv sɪks ɒnɪst sɜːvɪŋ mən

ðeɪ tɔːt mi ɔːl aɪ njuː]

2. a) mən – qualitative reduction of vowel e

mi – quantitative reduction of vowel i

b) ə – vowel, monophthong, central, mid broad, unrounded, lax (short)

i – vowel, diphthongoid, front, high narrow, tense (long)

3. [ə] // [e]. From the point of view of Moscow Phonological School this is the alternation of sounds belonging to the phoneme <e> because the sound [e] occurs in strong position: *men*.

From the point of view of Petersburg Phonological School this is the alternation of sounds belonging to the different phonemes /ə/ and /e/ because sound [ə] cannot represent the phoneme /e/: it is the principal variant of the phoneme /ə/.

4. [ɒn.ɪst] There are two syllables, both are closed uncovered. The syllabic boundary is after the consonant because the short stressed vowel should be checked.

[sɜ:.vɪŋ] There are two syllables, the first is open covered, the second closed covered. The syllabic boundary is after the tense vowel.

5. In the disyllabic words [ɒn.ɪst] and [sɜ:.vɪŋ] the first syllable is stressed, they correspond to the first accentual type according to G.P. Torsuyev: [-'-]. The other words are monosyllabic.

6. There are three syntagms in the extract. The first one consists of the low pre-head, descending stepping head, low fall (nuclear tone) and the tail. The intonation demonstrates grammatical (communicative) function (helps to identify the grammatical structure – affirmative sentence – in speech).

Texts for phonetic analysis:

O, my love is like the melody
That's sweetly play'd in tune.

She keeps ten million serving men
Who get no rest at all.

One million hows, ten million wheres
And seven million whys.

It is the hour lover's vows
Seem sweet in every whisper'd word.

And gentle winds, and waters near,
Make music to the lonely ear.

Each flower the dews have lightly wet,
And in the sky the stars are met.

And on the wave the deeper blue
And on the leaf a browner hue.

You've never turned the wrong to right,
You've been a coward in the fight.

O my love is like a red, red rose
That's newly sprung in June.

It is the hour when from the boughs
The nightingale's high note is heard.

I send them over land and sea
I send them East and West.

You have no enemies, you say?
Alas! my friend, the boast is poor

My road calls me, lures me
West, east, south and north.

Their names are what and why and when
And how and where and who.

She keeps ten million serving men
Who get no rest at all.

I shot an arrow into the air,
It fell to earth, I knew not where.

And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils.

Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?
Thou art more lovely and more temperate.

For thy sweet love remember'd such wealth brings
That then I scorn to change my state with kings.

Лабораторная работа3

Тема 3. Лексикология английского языка: этимологическая и словообразовательная структура английского слова.

Цель занятия: сформировать знание об этимологии английского слова

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

Цель занятия: сформировать знание о сегментной английской фонетике.

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях.

ОПК-5 - способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

В результате подготовки к лабораторным занятиям студент должен:

знать:

возможные варианты решения задачи, оценивая их достоинства и недостатки; основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии; особенности передачи семантической информации, стилистическую и культурную коннотацию языковых единиц, используемых в устной и письменной коммуникации.

уметь:

находить и критически анализировать информацию, необходимую для решения поставленной задачи; аргументировано формировать собственные суждения и оценки;

интерпретировать основные проявления взаимосвязи языковых уровней и взаимоотношения подсистем языка; интерпретировать коммуникативные цели высказывания, выявлять релевантную информацию, адекватно идентифицировать принадлежность высказывания к официальному, нейтральному и неофициальному регистрам общения

владеть:

навыками критического анализа информации;

навыками применения понятийного аппарата изучаемой дисциплины с учетом основных особенностей научного стиля в устной и письменной речи;

навыками использования лексико-грамматических и фонетических средств организации целого текста с соблюдением семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями устного и /или письменного высказывания.

Актуальность темы: важность формирования у студентов знаний об этимологической и морфемной структуре английского слова.

Организационная форма занятия: собеседование.

На занятии используется развернутая беседа по каждому вопросу плана с единым для всех перечнем рекомендуемой обязательной и дополнительной литературы; отдельные выступления студентов (по их желанию или по вызову преподавателя).

Теоретическая часть:

1. Etymological composition of the English vocabulary

The diachronic approach to the English word-stock includes the study of its **etymology**, i.e. of the origin of words and word-equivalents. According to their origin, all present-day English words can be classified into two groups. The first of these are the native words, which have been part of the English vocabulary ever since the Old English period, or possibly earlier. The other is

borrowed words, also known as **loan-words**, **loans**, or **borrowings**, which were taken over from another language at a certain stage in the history of English. Some of the later borrowings are easily recognized as such, as their phonetic form, or their paradigm, or both, are alien to English (e.g. *taxi* – a native English word NEVER has “i” as the last element). Most borrowed words, however, have been modified in phonemic shape, paradigm, spelling, or even meaning, to fit the standards of the English language – which is known as **assimilation**.

The native words are further subdivided into the common Indo-European stock and Common Germanic stock. The common Indo-European words have parallels in other Indo-European languages like Latin, Russian or French. Here belong words with the most fundamental meanings, as kinship terms (*mother, father*, etc.); words for natural phenomena (*sun, moon, water*, etc.); names of animals (*wolf, goose*, etc.); words for parts of human body and numerals also belong here. Words of Common Germanic stock have parallels in other Germanic languages like German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, but none in Russian or French or Latin. Here belong: *summer, winter, house, shirt*, etc. Although the native words are not too numerous in Modern English, they are the most frequently used words: among the 500 most frequent English words listed by Thorndike and Lodge, there are no less than 80 per cent native words.

On the other hand, a general count of the English words shows that only 30 per cent of these are native words at present. These are, however, probably the most important 30 per cent of the English word-stock, since they include: 1) most prepositions and conjunctions; 2) all the numerals except *second, dozen and million*; 3) all the auxiliary and modal verbs; 4) all the irregular verbs; 5) all nouns and adjectives with ablaut forms in the paradigm (*mouse – mice, good – better – best*); 6) all the pronouns except *they* and *them* (Old Norse); 7) almost all monosyllabic words expressing vital notions (whether nouns, adjectives or verbs); 8) all names of colours except *blue* (Old French).

The process of borrowing words has been very active in English since the earliest of times. Words from almost any civilized language of Europe, Asia and Africa, and even a few exotic ones, have found their way into English. Most borrowings, however, came from French, Latin or Greek, which account for 60 per cent out of a total of 70 per cent borrowed words in English.

The earliest borrowings came from Latin, dating back to the first contacts of the Germanic tribes with Romans. Those were the names of foods (*cheese*), fruit and vegetables (*plum, pear, pepper*), other words connected with cooking (*cup, kitchen*). The borrowing of mill, port and wine also dates back to this period.

Later, when Germanic tribes came to settle in Britain, they borrowed both native Celtic words and, through Christian missionaries, Latin words connected with religion (*priest, bishop, monk*, etc.).

The period between VIIIth and XIth centuries was perhaps the stormiest in the English history. Repeated Scandinavian invasions and, later, a French invasion brought about a massive influx of Scandinavian and French (actually Norman-French) words. Some of the Scandinavian borrowings of this period are easily recognized by the initial *sk* combinations: *sky, skill, skin, skirt*. They are mostly words connected with everyday activities: *call, take, cast, low, weak*. Norman-French words, on the other hand, are those connected with politics (*state, government, parliament*), law (*court, judge*), war (*army, enemy, officer*), education (*pupil, lesson, library*).

Renaissance period brought Latin and Greek words to English soil. Unlike earlier borrowings, they were mostly abstract words (*major, minor, intelligent*) or scientific terms (*status, phenomenon, philosophy*). Numerous French borrowings of this period came from the Parisian

dialect, and so look and sound rather different from the earlier Norman-French borrowings: *regime*, *routine*, *police*, *machine*, *ballet*, etc.

Borrowings from other languages (Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, German, Russian, etc.) also date back to this and later periods. They mostly served to fill the gaps in the vocabulary (as Italian musical terms, or *potato*, *tomato* and *tobacco* borrowed from Spanish), but have never been very numerous.

Borrowings may be classified according to their **type** or **degree of assimilation**, and/or the **source of borrowing**. They can also be subdivided into **direct** and **indirect** borrowings. Direct borrowings are actual words adopted from a foreign language: *river* (Fr. *riviere*), *umbrella* (It. *ombrella*), etc. Indirect borrowings are further subdivided into 1) **translation loans**, or **loan translations**, and 2) **semantic borrowings**. Translation loans are words built up from the English material but according to a pattern set by a foreign language. In other words, *they* are word-for-word or morpheme-for-morpheme translations of foreign words or phrases: *world-famous* (German *weltberühmt*), *masterpiece* (Germ. *Meisterstück*). In a semantic borrowing, an English word appears to have changed its original meaning due to an influence of a related foreign word. For example, *dream* meant 'joy' or 'happiness' in Old English, acquiring its present-day meaning under the influence of the Scandinavian *draumr*. *Bread* meant 'a loaf or piece of bread'; its present meaning is due to the influence of Scottish *braud*.

According to their degree of assimilation, borrowed words may be classified into **denizens**, **aliens** and **barbarisms**. Denizens are completely assimilated words, fully conforming to the standards and rules of the English language. They do not differ in any way – whether phonetically, graphically, semantically or grammatically – from native words. Examples are: *street*, *wall*, *wine*, *ass*, belonging to the earliest Latin borrowings. Aliens, or partly assimilated words, are the borrowings which still preserve some of their native features. They keep either their original spelling, or foreign pronunciation, or stress, or semantic/grammatical peculiarities. Thus *distance* and *development* still keep their French suffixes, *skin*, *ski*, *skirt* and *sky* the Scandinavian initial *sk*, *police* and *regime* their French stress on the last syllable, *criterion* and *phenomenon* their Latin plurals – *criteria* and *phenomena* respectively. Finally, barbarisms are very recent borrowings which preserve all the features of the language they come from, as French *adieu* or Italian *chiao*.

Even if a word is fully assimilated, there are some telltale details giving away its foreign origin. Thus, words with [v], [dʒ], or [ʒ] in an initial position are not of English stock: *vacuum* (Lat.), *valley* (Fr.), *voivode* (Russ.), *vanilla* (Sp.), *gem* (Lat.), *jewel* (Fr.), *genre* (Fr.); *ph* and *kh* in spelling, *ch* pronounced as [ʃ] (Fr.) or [k] (Gr.) also give borrowed words away.

Apart from denoting objects and phenomena alien to Britain, borrowed words dominate in the spheres of so-called learned words and terminology. In fact, the whole opposition of formal and informal words seems to be based on a deeper opposition of native and foreign, and many neutral English words pair off with correlates of either Latin or French origin (sometimes both): *motherly* – *maternal*, *childish* – *infantile*, *handy* – *manual*, *sunny* – *solar*, *toothy* – *dental*, *nosy* – *nasal*. In many cases the meanings of correlated words so far apart that they can hardly be considered synonyms.

3.2. Лексикология английского языка: словообразовательная структура английского слова

Structure of the English words

In English, as in many other languages, the word is the smallest autonomous unit (i.e. the smallest unit able to form a sentence by itself). Most words are composite in their structure, i.e. they consist of meaningful parts, called morphemes.

A morpheme is often defined as the minimum (= smallest) meaningful part of the word, or the smallest meaningful unit of the language; therefore it also combines a definite sound pattern with a definite meaning. However, unlike a word, a morpheme can't stand in isolation, i.e. it is not autonomous (= independent), although it may coincide with a word. For example, one of the morphemes making up the adjective "heartily" coincides with the noun "heart". A morpheme can no further be divided into meaningful parts; its component parts are phonemes, which have no meaning of their own.

Types of morphemes in English

Descriptive linguists of the Bloomfield school classify morphemes into **free** and **bound** forms. A free form may stand alone in a sentence, while a bound form has to be a part of something else. A more traditional classification of morphemes is into **roots** and **affixes**. The root morpheme is the central part of a word, serving to express its main lexical meaning. It remains unchanged after all the affixes have been removed, and can't be broken into smaller meaningful parts. A root may be isolated from a series of words forming a word-family. For example, *heart* is the root, or common element, of *heart*, *heartless*, *heartily*, *heart-broken*, *kind-hearted* and others (some of these are **compound** words, with two roots).

Root morphemes are main morphemes in any given language, for it is they that express ideas, or concepts. A word is impossible without a root; morpheme, and some English words contain two root morphemes, even – rarely – three. But can we do without affixes?

Affixes serve to express formal, or grammatical meaning. They help in forming parts of speech, and in putting words together. Languages of a synthetic type, like Russian, give more attention to affixes, while an analytical language has little use for them. English stands half-way between the two.

Affixes are divided, according to their function, into **derivational** and **functional**. According to their position in a word, affixes are also classified into **prefixes**, **suffixes** and **infixes**. Prefixes occupy a position preceding the root, suffixes follow the root, and infixes come inside the root. Infixes are hardly ever met in English.

The function of an affix is to form a new word from an existing one, often with a different part-of-speech meaning, as *teacher* is formed from *teach* (v) and *student* from *study* (v). This process is known as **derivation**. Sometimes a derived word acquires not one but several affixes; of these, one may be so firmly connected with the root that its separation changes the part-of-speech meaning. The part of a word containing the root and the affix with the part-of-speech meaning is called the **stem**. If a stem coincides with the root, it is called a **simple stem**. It is also a **free stem** if it can stand in isolation, otherwise it is a **bound** stem. Bound stems are typical of borrowed foreign words.

Suffixes are especially productive in forming new words, often changing the part-of-speech meaning, as *quickly* (adv.) is formed from *quick* (adj.). **Prefixes** do not usually change the part-of-speech meaning, as in *lucky* – *unlucky*, *like* – *dislike*, but there are a few exceptions: *witch* (n) – *bewitch* (v), *war* (n) – *anti-war* (adj.).

Derived words, or **derivatives**, consist of at least two morphemes, of which at least one is a root. They may be further classified into **affixational derivatives**, made up of a root and one or more affixes; **compound words**, made up of two (very seldom more) simple or derived stems (e.g.

sweetheart, *looking-glass*); and **derivational compounds**, derived from a phrase by a combined process of composition and affixation (as a *kind heart* became *kind-hearted*). A special case is words formed by the process of **conversion**, which will be discussed separately.

Affixes may be classified into **productive** and **non-productive**. Perhaps the most productive in English is the noun-forming *-er* suffix, as it is observed in many words like *teacher*, *painter*, *miner*, etc., and is regularly used to form new words. Other productive noun-forming suffixes are *-ness* and *-ing* (*thinness*, *loveliness*; *singing*, *reading*, *teaching*, etc.), while *-dom*, *-hood* and *-ship* are less productive (*wisdom*, *kingdom*; *knighthood*; *friendship*, *professorship*, *scholarship*, etc.). It is these, however, that are so useful in forming rare but expressive **neologisms** and **nonce-words** like *brinkmanship* (= the political skill of holding the world at the brink of a war), *egghood* (= the state of being an egg presumably in the life of a hen) or *lobsterdom*; used in Charles Kingsley's "Water Babies" to describe the social life of lobsters (if there is one). The most productive verb-forming suffix now is *-ise/-ize*, and the most productive adverb-forming suffix is *-ly*.

Affixes have widely generalized meanings. Rather than expressing individual concepts, they serve to relate the concept conveyed by the root to a certain rather abstract category. So the productive noun-forming *-er* suffix could be roughly defined as the "agent" suffix, as it derives the name of a person from the object of his occupation or labour (as *painter* from *paint*). It may also be used to describe a person by his place of origin (as *southerner* from *south*), or a technical device by its function (as *printer* from *print*, or *roller* from *roll*). The adjective-forming suffix *-ish* may often imply insufficient quality (as *greenish*, which is not quite green), and the adverb-forming *-wards* implies the direction of movement, such as *southwards* or *homewards* or *backwards*. This might lead someone to a conclusion that the meaning of derived words are always a sum total of the meanings of constituent morphemes; this, however, is not quite so, for the resulting meanings may undergo various semantic shifts. The adjective-forming suffix *-y*, for instance, has the general meaning of "characterized or inclined to be what the root represents"; yet *fishy* is not usually "looking or behaving like a fish", but "improbable or hard to believe", like *a fishy story* (probably originally one told by a fisherman), and *touchy* is "resenting a touch or contact, sensitive", therefore not at all inclined to be touched.

Both root and affix morphemes may have a number of positional variants, called **allomorphs** (from the Ancient Greek "allos" – "other" and "morph" – "form"). The most obvious example is the negative prefix *in-*, which has three allomorphs – *ir-*, *im-* and *il-*. *In-* is the main variant, found in words like *independent*, *ir-* is only found before "r", as in *irregular*, *im-* precedes "p" or "m", as in *impossible* or *immobile*, while *il-* is only found before "l", as in *illegal*.

Root morphemes may have allomorphs as well, which can be seen from *please*, *pleasure* and *pleasant*, where the root, although graphically identical, is pronounced differently, depending on its phonemic **environment**. Allomorphs are defined as semantically identical but phonetically different (= dissimilar) variants of the same morpheme used in mutually exclusive environments, which means they are not interchangeable although their meanings are the same. Allomorphs result from the process of **phonetic assimilation**, and linguists say they are characterized by **complementary distribution**, i.e. they may not replace one another in an identical environment.

Derivational and functional affixes

Lexicology is primarily concerned with derivational affixes, i.e. the affixes serving to produce new words. Another large group of affixes, the functional affixes, serve to express syntactical relations between words and are therefore studied in grammar. However, there are a few

cases of homonymy of these two groups – e.g. *-en* is a derivational suffix in *gold - golden* and a functional suffix in *ox – oxen*, where it expresses the notion of plurality. It may also form verbs (as in *strengthen*) and express a functional Past Tense meaning (as in *write – written*).

As functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning, they build different grammatical forms of a semantically unchanged word. A complete set of grammatical forms of a word is known as a paradigm (e.g. *write – wrote – written – writing; near – nearer – nearest*); all the words forming it share the same lexical meaning.

Derivational affixes, on the other hand, form new words, with a different lexical or lexico-grammatical meaning. The suffix *-y*, for example, is used to create adjectives from noun stems, and the semantic relations involved may be slightly different: in *bushy* or *cloudy*, it is ‘full of smth’; in *stony*, it is ‘composed of smth’; in *baggy*, ‘resembling smth’; in *hairy*, ‘covered with smth’, etc., and it may also convey an emotional attitude, as in *bossy*, where a negative evaluation is implied on top of ‘resembling a boss’ or ‘characteristic of a boss’.

The basic difference between derivational and functional affixes is that a derivational affix does not prevent a word from being equivalent to another word, in which that affix is absent, so they may replace one another in a given context, i.e. they have an identical distribution. On the other hand, a functional affix changes the distribution of a word, so we can no longer replace it without changing the meaning of the whole sentence.

Another difference is that a derivative form is often capable of further derivation (*fool – foolish – foolishly, foolishness*). A functional affix can only follow an affix of derivation, and no further affixes can be added after it. A derivational form is therefore often called a closed form.

Apart from semantic, functional and positional differences, morphemes also display statistical differences and differences in valency: root morphemes are by far more numerous, running into thousands; derivative affixes do not go beyond a few scores, and functional affixes are hardly more than a dozen. Therefore, as valency is inversely proportional to frequency, functional affixes are free to combine with practically every element in a given part of speech (e.g. the plural *-s* combines with practically any noun, with a handful of exceptions), while derivational affixes are restricted to well-established patterns: we have *hostess* but not *guestess** (the asterisk denotes an unrecorded or impossible form), *unhappy* but not *unsad**, *headless* but hardly *appendixless*. This feature of the language makes it more reliable in communication by preventing misunderstanding. On the other hand, the meaning of words thus formed are readily understandable and the words themselves ready to use if the need arises: "The road was not even "jackassable" (G.Durrell). They are the potential words, the hidden reserves of linguistic expressiveness.

Оборудование и материалы: ноутбук, проектор, доска.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What sets of English words can be singled out according to their origin? Suggest the diachronic division of native words (the Indo-European stock, the Common Germanic, the English words proper).
2. What are the ways of borrowing? What do the terms 'direct borrowings' and 'indirect borrowings' denote? Is any difference between the term 'source of borrowing' and the term 'origin of borrowing'? What borrowings are called translation borrowings? What is meant by 'semantic borrowing'?
3. What historical facts and events stipulated the great influx of borrowings from different languages? What languages did the English language borrow words from?

4. What does the term 'assimilation of borrowings' denote? What degrees of assimilation can be singled out? In what cases can borrowed words be considered completely assimilated? What are the peculiarities of completely assimilated borrowed words? What borrowings are regarded as partially assimilated? What is the principle of the classification of partially assimilated borrowed words? What words are called unassimilated words or barbarisms?

5. What is a morpheme? What are the types of morphemes in English?
6. Classify the affixes according to their productivity and their meaning.
7. What is the distribution of morphs?
8. What are the differences between derivational and functional affixes?

Задания

1. Comment on the origin of the following partially assimilated borrowings. State whether assimilation is partial due to grammatical, phonetic or graphical reasons:

memoir, cafe, verandah, waltz, bacterium, phenomenon, vase.

2. Give adjectives of Latin origin corresponding to the following nouns:

nose, son, tongue, tooth, name, father, heart

3. What are the original words borrowed from English and currently used in Russian?

бизнесмен, бутсы, бульдозер, кемпинг, мотель, сервис, хиппи, хобби.

4. Define the origin of the suggested words:

vacuum, sputnik, masseur (массажист), philosophy, xylophone (ксилофон), kindergarten, jalousie, gelatin, zoology, jamah (длинная хлопчатобумажная одежда индусов), violin, jarovize (яровизировать), chair, chagrin, chalcedony, exit, mix, xiphoid (мечевидный), jabot, jaeger, chef, chauffeur (небольшая переносная железная печь), chauffeur.

5. Match the translation borrowings on the left with the original phrases/words on the right. State the origin of the latter.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. the moment of truth | a) infra dignitatem |
| 2. word-combination | b) Wunderkind |
| 3. below one's dignity | c) попутчик |
| 4. first dancer | d) el momento de la verdad |
| 5. that goes without saying | e) circulus vitiosus |
| 6. fellow-traveler | f) колхоз |
| 7. wonder-child | g) словосочетание |
| 8. vicious circle | h) sub judice |
| 9. famous case | i) cela va sans dire |
| 10. collective farm | j) cause célèbre |
| 10. under consideration | k) prima-balerina |

6. Compare the meaning of the following Russian and English words. Consult the dictionary and give other meanings of these words.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| характер – character | реализовывать – realize |
| идея – idea | кондуктор – conductor |
| акт – act | спекулировать – speculate |
| агент – agent | иллюминировать – illuminate |
| агитатор – agitator | иммунитет – immunity |
| магазин – magazine | инцидент – incident |
| имитировать – imitate | принципиальный – principal |
| объект – object | |

7. Classify the following words according to the degree of assimilation.

Pen, moccasins, street, d'arsonvalization, sheikh, formula, hors-d'oeuvre (закуска), take, rickshaw, skin, garage, ciao, regime, coup d'état (переворот), yen, port, cafe, ballet, phenomenon, sherbet, eau-de-Cologne.

8. Segment the following words into morphemes. Define (a) the semantic types and (b) the structural types of morphemes constituting the given words.

Model: *aimless*

The word *aimless* can be segmented into two morphemes: *aim-* + *-less*.

- a) Semantically *aim* - is a root morpheme; *less* – is a suffix;
- b) Structurally *aim* – is a free morpheme, *-less* is a bound morpheme.

Beggarly, postman, shorten, destabilize, sympathy, fruitfulness, maltreatment, disaffected, overrule, photographic, half-eaten, theory, rent-free.

9. Do morphemic analysis and analysis into immediate constituents of the following words:

Model of IC analysis: uncommonly At the first stage of analysis the word is segmented into two ICs uncommon- + -ly. Uncommon- is an independent word, and the IC -ly is found in such words as sadly, quickly, etc. The IC -ly is at the same time an UC as it cannot be broken further. At the second stage of analysis the IC uncommon- is segmented into the ICs un- + -common, -common is an independent word, and the IC un- is found in such words as unsafe, undo. Both ICs are UCs. So the word consists of 3 UCs.

beautiful, unstoppable, irresponsible, peacefulness, deforestation, hopelessly, unnoticeably.

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

Model: *duck, illiterateness, back-bencher*

The word *duck* is monomorphemic. The word *illiterateness* is polymorphic, monoradical, prefix-radical-suffixal. The word *back-bencher* is polymorphic, polyradical, contains two roots and one affixational morpheme.

House, uncover, dark-brown, disappointment, effective, black, historian, book-keeper, cry, mistrust, unanswerable, home-sick, good, ex-wife, laughter-filled, go, unfortunately, age-long, manageability, short-sightedness.

Лабораторная работа4

Тема 4. Лексикология английского языка: способы увеличения английского словаря. Аффиксация, конверсия, словосложение и второстепенные способы в английском языке.

Цель занятия: сформировать знание о способах увеличения английского словаря и аффиксации в английском языке.

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях.

ОПК-5 - способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

В результате подготовки к лабораторным занятиям студент должен:

знать:

возможные варианты решения задачи, оценивая их достоинства и недостатки; основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии; особенности передачи семантической информации, стилистическую и культурную коннотацию языковых единиц, используемых в устной и письменной коммуникации.

уметь:

находить и критически анализировать информацию, необходимую для решения поставленной задачи; аргументировано формировать собственные суждения и оценки;

интерпретировать основные проявления взаимосвязи языковых уровней и взаимоотношения подсистем языка; интерпретировать коммуникативные цели высказывания, выявлять релевантную информацию, адекватно идентифицировать принадлежность высказывания к официальному, нейтральному и неофициальному регистрам общения

владеть:

навыками критического анализа информации;

навыками применения понятийного аппарата изучаемой дисциплины с учетом основных особенностей научного стиля в устной и письменной речи;

навыками использования лексико-грамматических и фонетических средств организации целого текста с соблюдением семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями устного и /или письменного высказывания.

Актуальность темы: важность формирования у студентов знаний о способах увеличения вокабуляра и аффиксации.

Организационная форма занятия: собеседование, целью которого является повышение интенсивности и эффективности процесса восприятия за счет активного включения обучаемых в коллективный поиск истины.

Теоретическая часть:

1. Methods of vocabulary extension

A new concept may be expressed by adapting an existing word for the purpose, with either a transfer or extension of meaning. A suitable word may also be borrowed from another language. Finally, an entirely new word may be formed from parts already existing in the language.

Due to the peculiarities of the history of Britain borrowings have been very productive in English, the main source being Latin, French and various Germanic languages. So extensive has the process been that by now, a large part of the English vocabulary – up to 70 per cent – is made up of borrowed words. However, those words became adapted to the existing patterns – with very few

exceptions, mostly later borrowings – so we hardly feel now that *sky* and *skirt* are of Scandinavian origin, and *mutton* and *table* are French.

Several different methods, or types, of word-formation are recognized in linguistics. They could be classified into the morphological and syntactic-morphological types. To the morphological type belong affixation; word-composition or compounding; shortening or clipping of words; abbreviation; blending; root creation and some others. Sound and stress interchange, sound imitation and reduplication could be included into this class or classified separately as phonetic or morphophonetic types of word-formation. Conversion is usually classified separately as a syntactic, or syntactic-morphological method of word-formation. Finally, transfer and extension of meaning, especially the so-called divergence of meaning, when an existing word splits into two or several homonyms, is sometimes regarded as a separate semantic type of word-formation, but this view is open to doubt, since there are no regular patterns in English according to which new meanings could appear in existing words, and it is usually very difficult to tell between one word with several widely divergent meanings, and two or more homonymous words. Sometimes both affixation and conversion are classified under derivation, to distinguish it from word composition, while sound and stress changes, abbreviation, etc. are considered separately as minor ways of word-formation.

2. Affixation in English; suffixes and prefixes

Affixation can be defined as formation of new words by means of adding affixes (either suffixes or prefixes or both) to existing stems or root. Affixation has always been very productive in English, as well as in many other Indo-European languages. Affixation can be further classified into suffixation and prefixation, according to the type of affix added. A derived word can be split into the stem and the affix added to it, but the stem, in its turn, may be simple, derived (containing other affixes) or compound (containing two roots).

Words can be classified according to the **level, or degree of derivation**. Root words have a zero level of derivation; the first level is achieved by adding one derivational affix to it. Adding further affixes results in the second, third, etc. degree of derivation (e.g. *nation* – *national* – *nationalize* – *denationalize* – *denationalization*).

In Modern English **suffixation** is characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while **prefixation** is typical of verb formation. As a rule, prefixes only modify the lexical meaning of stems to which they are added, while a suffix both modifies the lexical meaning of a stem, and changes its part-of-speech meaning, e.g. *care* (v) – *careless* (adj); *suit* (v) – *suitable* (adj); *good* (adj) – *goodness* (n). Besides, a suffix is more typically part of a stem, while a prefix is more independent semantically.

Suffixes in English; classification

There are several different methods of classifying English suffixes.

1) The most obvious classification is by **the part of speech they form**. Thus, noun-forming suffixes are: *-er* (*writer*), *-ist* (*journalist*), *-ment* (*government*), *-ness* (*whiteness*), *-ism* (*feminism*), *-or* (*author*), *-dom* (*freedom*), *-ation* (*civilization*), etc. Verb-forming suffixes are: *-ize* (*neutralize*), *-ify* (*electrify*), *-ate* (*navigate*), *-en* (*redden*, *lighten*), etc. Adjective-forming suffixes are: *-ish* (*reddish*), *-able/-ible* (*eatable*, *edible*), *-less* (*fearless*), *-ful* (*doubtful*), *-ic* (*poetic*), *-ous* (*courageous*), etc. Adverb-forming suffixes are: *-ly* (*quickly*), *-wise* (*crosswise*), *-ward/-wards* (*southward*, *homeward*, *backwards*).

2) Suffixes, as other affixes, are classified according to their **degree of productivity**. A **productive** suffix is one used in a great number of words. Usually it is actively used to produce

new words. In theory, there is no limit to a-number of words this suffix may produce. A **semi-productive** suffix is used to produce a limited number of words. A **non-productive** suffix can no longer produce new words and is only recognized by comparing existing words. However, there is no direct connection between the productivity of a suffix and the number of words in which it is used. For example, the suffixes *-ance/ -ence* and *-th* are no longer productive, but they can be recognized in a large number of existing words (*independence, existence, correspondence; warmth, length, depth, strength*, etc.). Among the noun-forming suffixes, the most productive are *-er, -ist, -ness, -ism*; the adjective-forming *-ish, -y, -ed, -able*; the most productive verb-forming suffix is *-ize* and the most productive adverb-forming is *-ly*. Among noun-producing suffixes, *-or* (*author*), *-ship* (*partnership*), *-dom* (*freedom*), *-ster* (*gangster*), *-ling* (*hireling*), *-ee* (*employee*), *-eer* (*profiteer, racketeer*) are considered to be semi-productive.

3) Suffixes can be classified semantically, according to the meaning they express – or rather the meaning they add to the stems of words (the meaning of the derived words). Thus noun-forming suffixes can be further classified into: forming personal or agentive nouns (i.e. nouns defining the doer or agent of the action) – *-er, -or, -ist*; forming abstract nouns – *-hood, -ship, -ness, -ity*; forming concrete nouns – *-ing, -ery* (*mercenary*); forming nationality nouns – *-ian* (*Russian, Arabian*), *-ese* (*Chinese, Japanese*); forming collective nouns – *-age* (*coverage*), *-dom* (*officialdom*), *-(e)ry* (*peasantry, infantry, gentry*); forming diminutive nouns, – *-ie* (*birdie*), *-let* (*cloudlet*), *-ling* (*duckling*), etc.

4) Suffixes can be classified etymologically i.e. from the point of view of their origin. We could differentiate native and borrowed suffixes, which, in their turn, are classified according to the language of their origin. Among the native English suffixes are *-er, -ish, -en, -ness, -ship, -hood* etc., while *-or, -able, -ism, -ist, -ify* are borrowed. Of these, *-able, -ment, -tion* are of Romanic (French or Latin) origin; *-ist, -ism, -ic* are of Greek origin; *-ie* and *-y* (in *girlie, pussy*) are of Scandinavian origin.

5) Suffixes can be classified according to their valency or combining ability, i.e. by the lexico-grammatical or part-of-speech meaning of the stem the suffix usually combines with. For example, *-er, -ing, -ment, -able* are added to verbal stems (*speaker, reading, agreement, suitable*); *-less, -ful, -ist, -some* are added to noun stems (*fearless, handful, violinist, troublesome*); *-en, -ly, -ness* are added to adjectival stems (*blacken, slowly, brightness*).

6) Suffixes can be classified by their stylistic reference, the two main classes being neutral and marked. Neutral suffixes can occur in words of both neutral and bookish character; marked, like *-oid, -aceous, -tron*, are restricted to learned words like *ovoid, asteroid, crustaceous, herbaceous, bevatron, cyclotron*, or, at best, to words parodying them, like *cockroachoid*. A small number of suffixes, like *-ling*, may be said to have a pejorative meaning (*hireling, Earthling*); but *duckling, wolfing* have no derogatory connotations.

Prefixes in English: classification and problems

Since prefixes do not have such a close connection with the stem as affixes do, there is a tendency to regard prefixation as related to word-composition, prefixes having the same function as the first component of a compound word. In this case, prefixes are regarded as semi-bound morphemes – especially those that coincide with words: *out-, over-, up-*. This view, however, is open to doubt, and it is probably safer to treat *out-, over-* and *up-* as homonyms to the corresponding prepositions. Since they do not display the grammatical features of those words when prefixed to a stem. (Note the parallel with the so-called post-positions.)

The opinion that prefixes do not change the part-of-speech meaning of the modified stems, as it turns out, is also not quite correct if applied to Modern English. There are about 25 prefixes which, although rarely used, can modify the part-of-speech meaning of stems – usually changing nouns to verbs or nouns to adjectives: *gulf* (n) – *engulf* (v), *bug* (n) – *debug* (v), *war* (n) – *prewar*, *postwar*, *antiwar* (adj), *tank* (a) – *anti-tank* (adj), *wit* (n) – *outwit* (v). The trend, however, is not universal: *missile* (n) – *anti-missile* (n), *Impressionism* (n) – *Post-Impressionism* (n). If this really is a regular phenomenon, and not just a few isolated examples, it can reasonably be argued that English prefixes are not different from suffixes in their ability to modify the lexico-grammatical meaning of words, i.e. like suffixes, they can also be convertive or non-convertive.

Prefixes are classified mostly on the semantic principle, productivity and etymology. Like suffixes, they can be productive, semi-productive and non-productive. Semantically, they are classified according to the meaning they convey to the modified word. It should be noted that prefixes have more concrete and less generalized meanings than suffixes, and that one and the same form (e.g. *dis-*, *un-*) may convey different meanings if connected to different parts of speech, and so should be regarded as two homonyms:

- 1) Prefixes with a negative meaning: *un-*, *in-*, *dis-* (if used with nouns or adjectives);
- 2) Prefixes with a meaning of reversal or opposition: *un-*, *dis-*, *re-* (if used with verbs), *de-*;
- 3) Prefixes denoting a wrong, or uncompleted action: *mis-*,
- 4) prefixes denoting time and space relations: *pre-*, *post-*, *over-*, *under-*, *super-*, *ultra-*, *extra-*;
- 5) Oppositional prefixes: *anti-*, *counter-*;
- 6) Prefixes with the meaning of devoiding: *de-*.

According to their origin, prefixes, like suffixes, are classified into native prefixes (*mis-*, *under-*) and borrowed ones. These may be of Latin (*pre-*, *post-*, *re-*), French (*dis-*) and Greek (*anti-*) origin.

Synonymy, homonymy and polysemy of affixes

In the course of the development of the English language, it adopted a great number of foreign words. As a result, both their stems and the foreign affixes became adopted into the language; a number of those affixes later came to be used as productive derivative morphemes, even with native English stems: *-ist*, *-ism*, *-ee*, *-or*, *-able*, *dis-*, *de-*, *re-*, etc. In the long run, the meanings of some of the foreign affixes overlapped with those of the existing native affixes, resulting in synonymous affixes. For example, the native suffix *-er*, denoting the agent or doer of the action, is now synonymous with borrowed affixes *-ist*, *-eer*, *-or*. As is usual in such cases, the synonymous units acquired certain differences in meaning and use. The suffix *-ist*, unlike *-er*, mostly combines with noun stems, usually of non-Germanic origin (*violinist*, but *fiddler*), and typically expresses an adherence to a principle or political doctrine (*chartist*, *Darwinist*). Agent nouns with *-ist* are usually matched by the name of the theory, formed with *-ism* (*chartism*, *Darwinism*). Meanwhile the suffix *-eer* acquired a derogatory force (*profiteer*, *racketeer*).

At the same time, the meaning of affixes underwent a number of semantic changes, including extension, transfer and divergence of meaning. As a result, a number of commonly used affixes are polysemantic. The suffix *-er*, which is perhaps the most frequently used single suffix in Modern English, may imply: 1) a person following a trade or profession (*writer*, *driver*, *miner*, *baker*); 2) a person so occupied at the moment of speech (*packer*, *taker*, *jumper*); 3) a person living at a certain place (*Londoner* – a rare meaning); 4) a person with an inclination to do something (*sleeper*, *eater*); 5) a device or tool (*transmitter*, *computer*, *trailer*). This may bring about a

homonymy of words so formed: e.g. *a fighter* is anyone who fights, a kind of attack aircraft, and also a pilot of that aircraft.

In other cases, two different affixes coincided in the course of the development of the English language; thus we have *-ly* added to adjectival stems to form adverbs (*quickly, slowly*) and *-ly* added to noun-stems to form adjectives (*lovely, friendly*); *-en* used to form verbs (*stiffen, strengthen*) and *-en* used to form adjectives (*wooden, golden*), etc. The suffix *-ish* is often regarded as one suffix with two homonymous meanings; however, no semantic connection can be traced between the two, so *-ish* meaning ‘something like X’, ‘a weaker kind of X’ modifying adjectival stems (*bluish*) is something entirely different from *-ish* meaning resembling added to noun-stems to produce an adjective (*girlish*). The problem is much the same with the prefix *un-*, which seems to have two homonymous variants – one with a negative meaning (*unhappy*), the other denoting a reverse or opposite action (*unbind, uncover*).

Semi-affixes

A number of frequently used Modern English word-components, notably *-proof, -man, -worthy* and *-like*, have an indefinite status: on one hand, they coincide with meaningful words; on the other hand, they are regularly used to form new words, and have a more generalized meaning than the corresponding word’s standing on their own. For example, *-man* seems to have acquired an agentive meaning in *chairman*, and lost its meaning of ‘maleness’, since *Mrs Chairman* is an acceptable form of address; moreover, a *Sony Walkman* is not a man at all, but a tape-playing machine. Linguists seem to agree these are root-morphemes in the process of developing into suffixes, and so call them semi-affixes. More semi-affixes seem to enter English now as part of brand names like *Sense-O-matic* (= a kind of automatic switch with a sensory device), *Blend-a-med* (= a much-advertised toothpaste), *Suntronic* (= a solar-powered wristwatch) and the like, deriving from *automatic, electronic*, etc., by the process of clipping.

Word-building patterns and their meaning

To describe the system of a given vocabulary, we must know not only the elements from which words are built, but also the patterns in which they are combined. To achieve this aim, we must single out recurrent (= regularly used) combinations of morphemes and determine the relations between their components.

The combining possibilities, or valency, of English affixes are very important semantically, because the meaning of a derivative form depends not only on the morphemes it consists of, but also on the combinations of stems and affixes that can be contrasted with it. Contrast is to be looked for in the cases of a same morpheme in different environments, or different morphemes in environments otherwise the same.

The difference between *-ism* and *-ity*, for example, becomes clear if we contrast *humanism* with *humanity*, or *realism* with *reality*. Roughly speaking, *-ity* forms countable nouns meaning what a corresponding adjective describes, while *-ism* forms uncountable nouns meaning a corresponding idea or form of ideology.

A word-building pattern, or a derivational pattern, is therefore defined as a meaningful combination of stems and affixes that occurs regularly enough for part of speech, the lexico-semantic category and semantic peculiarities common to most words with this particular arrangement of morphemes to be determined. Every type of word-building and every part of speech therefore has a typical set of patterns. A pattern of this type can be isolated from numerous contexts in which it is used.

For instance, the patterns involved in the use of the negative prefix *un-* can be summed up as follows:

- 1) *Un-* with an adjectival or participle I or participle II stem – negative meaning (*uncertain, unknowingly, unexpected*)
- 2) *un-* with a verbal stem – meaning of ‘reverse action’ (*undo, unwrap*)
- 3) *un-* with a verbal, noun-derived stem – meaning of ‘releasing’ (*unhook, unlock*)

The more productive an affix is, the more probable is the existence of deviations from the regular pattern. V + *-ee* usually implies a recipient of the action, as in *trainee, employee*, etc.; sometimes, however, it is added to intransitive verbs and then implies an agent (*an escapee* is one who escapes, and so is *refugee*).

Sometimes the regular pattern is broken, as is the case with *flammable* and *inflammable*, which seem to be antonyms but are in fact synonyms. The cause for this is the misleading form of *inflammable*, which on the pattern of *informal, inhospitable*, etc. seems to imply ‘fire-resistant’. In actual fact, however, *inflammable*, owing to a homonymous meaning of *in-* (causative and not negative, like in *inaugurate*), means ‘easily set on fire’. The word *flammable*, with its clear-cut meaning, was intentionally designed to prevent any possible misunderstanding, and is mostly restricted to technical contexts, like *flammable liquid*, or any case where in Russian we would have ОГНЕОПАСНО (note also that *inflammation* is a medical term and *inflammatory* may, on top of that, have a political meaning).

To sum up: the word-building pattern is a structural and semantic formula more or less regularly produced; it reveals the morphological motivation of the word, the grammatical part-of-speech meaning and in most cases helps to refer the word to some lexico-grammatical class, while the components of the lexical meaning are mostly supplied by the stem.

4.2. Лексикология английского языка. Словообразование в английском языке: конверсия, словосложение и второстепенные способы.

1. Conversion

Conversion is one of the basic ways of forming words in Modern English. When two words belonging to different parts of speech are phonetically and graphically identical and semantically related, one of them is said to have been formed by conversion, eg. *doctor* (n) - *doctor* (v). This is easily seen in the phrase: *Can a doctor doctor a doctor according to his own doctrine of doctoring?* (And even better: *...according to his own doctoring doctrine?*) There are about 14 thousand conversion pairs in Modern English, while some words – *home, back* and *round* are the best-known examples – may exhibit as many as 4 or 5 distinct part-of-speech meanings: *Come back!* (adv), *the elephant's back* (n) *back door* (adj), *back the car into the garage* (v), etc.

Conversion is not perhaps a very happy term, as actually nothing is converted, the new word co-existing with the old one. Other terms have been suggested for the process – **zero derivation, root-formation, transposition, functional change** – but each of them, too, has its drawbacks. We use conversion simply because it is the most widely accepted term, dating back to 1891 when H. Sweet first used it in his *New English Grammar*.

Due to the analytical tendencies Modern English displays, the grammatical meaning of a word – including its part-of-speech meaning – tends to depend on the **distribution** of the word, and on grammar patterns it involves, rather than on the form of the word itself. This makes it possible to define conversion, among other views, as patterned homonymy, stressing the fact that the old and the newly formed words are homonyms, and one can only tell them apart if one notes the difference in paradigm or distribution: *doctor* – *doctor's* – *doctors* for the noun, or *doctor* – *doctors* – *doctored*

– *doctoring* for the verb. Indeed, conversion may be defined as forming a new word by changing its paradigm; but that is putting the cart before the horse, as the change in paradigm is here a result of conversion, not the means of achieving it. It appears only after the conversion has already taken place.

In Modern English, conversion mainly involves monosyllabic root words, usually verbs and nouns, so that noun-verb and verb-noun conversion are the most frequently met cases. In fact, most verbs recently added to the English word-stock are formed by conversion, as *to gun for somebody* (= be willing to kill him), *to gun somebody down* (the result of the above), where it combines with **post-position** – another productive method; or *to star* (of a film-actor), *to orbit* (of a satellite), *to groove* (popular among drug-addicts – *Let's groove*). On the other hand, derivatives and compounds can also be converted (e.g. *to weekend*, *to black-list smb*), and even adverbs and affixes (e.g. *the ups and downs of life*, *the ins and outs of the place*, *the isms and ologies we used to be taught at the college*). The possibility of a noun-adjective and adjective-noun conversion presents a separate problem, as English nouns are regularly used in the syntactical function of attributes and form such close links with the nouns they modify that the whole combination acquires the status of a compound word. The relevant problem is known as the stone wall problem and will be discussed later.

Conversion in English is characterized, apart from syntactical patterns mentioned above, also by **semantic patterns** – i.e. there are some typical relationships between the meaning of the original word, and the one derived by conversion. If the original word is a noun, the derived verb may imply a typical action associated with it (*a nurse* – *to nurse*), an instrumental use (*a knife* – *to knife*); addition or modification to the object (*a coat* – *to coat*, *a fish* – *to fish*), with possible subdivisions of hunting, placing into a container, etc.; deprivation of the object (*dust* – *to dust*). If the original word is a verb, the derived noun may imply an instance of the corresponding action (*to drink* – *a drink*), the agent or doer of that action (*to help* – *a help*), place of the action (*to leak* – *a leak*), object or result of the action (*to find* – *a find*).

2. Word-compounding

Compounding, or word-composition, is one of the productive methods of word-formation in Modern English. It involves bringing together at least two stems already existing in the language as **free forms**; thus *motor* + *car* = *motor-car*; *coal* + *black* = *coal-black*; *aircraft* (itself a compound) + *carrier* (derived stem) = *aircraft carrier*. The result, however, is not a mere sum of components, but a new lexical unit possessing a **semantic, phonemic, graphic, morphological and syntactic integrity**. Unlike a phrase, a compound word is characterized by **impenetrability** – i.e. no word or morpheme can stand between its elements.

Compounding is one of the most ancient ways of word-building: suffixation and prefixation are believed to have developed from it. Compounding has always been, and is, productive in English – especially in forming nouns and adjectives. About 50 per cent of Old English words were compound words – but many of those lost their original morphological character due to various factors (note that both *woman* and *lady* were compounds in Old English).

Apart from the process of word-composition described above, there are other, if minor, ways of forming compound words:

- a) conversion from another compound word (e.g. *to week-end*);
- b) **back-formation** on an analogy with the existing form (e.g. *to vacuum-clean*);
- c) **fusion** or **merging** of a free combination of words, known also as lexicalization of a free phrase (e.g. *a stay-at-home*).

Two features of English compounds make them different from those in other Indo-European and Germanic languages: a) unlike Russian, they are made up of free forms coinciding with words (in Russian they are usually bound forms); b) unlike German, where there are no limits – in theory at least – to a number of stems involved in a compound, English compounds are usually binary, i.e. they are made up of two components only, with rare exceptions (e.g. *waste-paper basket*, *aircraft carrier*).

Classification of compounds

There are several possible classifications of compound words:

- 1) a functional, or part-of-speech classification;
- 2) a classification by the way or method of combination;
- 3) according to the relations between the components;
- 4) according to the order and arrangement of the components;
- 5) according to the type of compounding, etc.

Functionally, English compounds belong to different parts of speech, nouns and adjectives being the most common: *arm-chair*, *baby-sitter*, *knee-high*, *rain-driven*, etc. Adverbs and connectives (prepositions, particles) are hardly ever formed by composition: *indoors*, *within*, *outside*, etc., and it is not productive with verbs either.

There are two main methods of linking the parts of a compound word together. One is **juxtaposition**, or merely placing them side by side in a definite order, with no linking element: *door-handle*, *football* – which is the most typical for English. The other is **morphological compounding**, which makes use of a linking element – a vowel, a consonant, or a syllable. Such words are rare in English, appearing mostly in special terminology: *electromagnetic*, *magnetometer*, *handicraft*, *Anglo-French*, – or with certain components: *salesman*, *sportswoman*. In a number of compound words originating from phrases, the linking elements are former prepositions or conjunctions: *mother-in-law*, *man-of-war*, *bread-and-butter*.

A peculiar method of compound word formation is **derivational composition**, which involves turning a phrase into a compound words by joining its parts together and adding an affix simultaneously: *red-haired* from *red hair*, *pleasure-seeker* from *to seek pleasure* etc. The two productive suffixes used for this purpose are *-ed*, to form compound-derivative adjectives, and *-er*, to form compound-derivative nouns. Derivational compound may also be formed by conversion from a verbal phrase with a post-position adverb: *to hold up* – *a holdup*, *to cast away* – *a castaway*, and verbs are similarly formed from noun phrases: *week-end* – *to week-end*, *blackmail* – *to blackmail*.

There are two types of relations between the components in an English compound word – **coordination** and **subordination**. Coordinative compounds consist of components equal in their importance, so that neither of them dominates the other. The meaning of such compounds is the meaning of the sum of their components: *actor-manager*, *secretary-stenographer*, *bread-and-butter*. The coordinative model is not very productive in English. A subordinative compound, on the other hand, is based on the domination of one component, usually the second, which is the structural and semantical centre of the word (*taxi-driver*, *text-book*). It is the second component that refers a compound word to a certain lexico-grammatical class.

The order and arrangement of components in a compound are rigidly fixed in English and can't be changed at will. They usually resemble the order of words in a phrase or a sentence. The choice of stems and the rules of their arrangement are known as **distributional formulas** or **structural patterns** of compound words.

There are two types of English compounds according to their structural arrangement – syntactic and asyntactic. In syntactic compounds the order of their components is parallel to the order of words in a phrase, so it doesn't contradict the rules of Modern English syntax. An (adj. stem + noun stem) combination in *blackbird* obviously reminds one of (adj + noun) combination in *black piano*; a structure of (verbal stem + noun stem) in *tell-tale* is the same as in *tell tales* (verb + noun), etc. In an asyntactic compound, however, the order of components is impossible for, or contrary to, English syntax: *oil-rich* (noun stem + adj. stem) / rich in oil (adj + noun), or incompatible with it: *bluish-black* (adj. stem + adj. stem).

According to their **morphemic composition**, compounds in Modern English may be classified into consisting: 1) of two simple stems (e.g. *home-made*, *blackbird*); 2) of one simple and one derived stem (eg. *land-owner*, *looking-glass*); 3) of a simple stem added to a compound (e.g. *wastepaper-basket*, *aircraft-carrier*).

A more detailed classification of English compounds is also possible. Thus English compound nouns are usually classified into **endocentric** and **exocentric**. Endocentric compounds possess an obvious semantic centre which names the referent, while the second component modifies and narrows the meaning of the first: *sunbeam*, *maid-servant*. In exocentric compounds, however, the referent is not named but rather implied; what is named is a characteristic aspect or feature of the referent. The meaning of such a compound is never equivalent to that of any of its parts; it lies, as it were, outside the word (hence the name). For example, *scarecrow* is not a kind of crow, nor is it a kind of scare: it is something used for scaring the crows away, while *cutthroat* and *pickpocket* are somebody performing the criminal acts named. Many exocentric compound nouns are converted from verbs combining with postpositions: *black-out*, *splash-down*, *go-between*.

A special type of exocentric compounds is **bahuvrihi** compounds. The word *bahuvrihi* itself is borrowed from Sanskrit, an ancient Indian language. It could be translated as much-riced but actually meant rich. Compound words of this type are based on a metonymical relation between an object named and an object implied, and name an object by pointing to some striking feature it possesses – usually a striking feature in its appearance: thus a *redbreast* is not any special kind of breast, but a small bird with a prominent red spot on its breast. Similarly, a *blackshirt* is not the shirt itself, but what's inside it (in the 1920s it was an Italian Fascist, a follower of Mussolini), and a *greenhorn* is not a horn but an inexperienced person.

Another important classification of Modern English compounds is according to their motivation, i.e. according to the way the morphological structure of a compound is related to its meaning. The compounds are accordingly divided into: 1) motivated, or non-idiomatic, and 2) idiomatic, or non-motivated. With motivated compounds, the meaning can be easily deduced from the meaning of their components: e.g. *land-owner* is undoubtedly one who owns land. In idiomatic compounds, however, there is no direct connection between the structure and the meaning; metaphorically speaking, they are not transparent. A *blackboard*, for example, need not be either a *board* or *black*. It might have been originally, but now it is usually brown or green – even white! – and made of linoleum or plastic or some other suitable material. What is important is its actual use as a teaching aid. According to Geoffrey Leech, what we see here is a shrinking of denotation: a compound word, unlike a free combination of independent elements, becomes restricted in sense and use, i.e. applies to fewer objects. Thus a *trouser suit* is no longer any suit of clothes with trousers – but “a suit with trousers for women”. This brings us directly to a complex problem of distinguishing between a compound word and a free combination.

Criteria of compounding. The stone wall problem

As most English compounds consist of free forms, a question naturally arises of distinguishing between a compound word and a free combination of the same roots. In other words, how do we know that *blackbird* is a compound word and *black bird* is a phrase? Numerous criteria and their combinations have been suggested by various linguistic schools. Eugene Nida, for example, suggested that a combination of phonological, morphological and syntactic criteria be used for this purpose, no single factor being normally sufficient.

The phonological criterion, and the related graphical criterion, are among the least reliable, since the spelling of English compound words is by no means consistent. Not only different authors, but sometimes even the same author may spell *headmaster* as a solid word, or with a hyphen in the middle (*head-master*), or as two separate words (*head master*). The same applies to most compound words in Modern English. The phonetic criterion is in itself not too reliable, either. True, there is a definite stress pattern for Modern English compounds – a heavy stress on the first element. This pattern, however, is followed by compound nouns mostly, while compound adjectives show double even stress (i.e. both elements are stressed equally heavily); besides, the stress pattern may be influenced by the phrasal stress, or the syntactical function of the compound.

The semantic criterion seems more reliable. Indeed, a compound word is usually defined as expressing a single idea, while a phrase expresses something like a sum of meanings of components; so *dirty work* is a compound as long as its meaning is idiomatic, unlike *clean work*. But stating whether a phrase expresses one integrated idea is no easy task, involving a number of intermediate stages. Besides, this criterion fails to distinguish between a compound word and an idiomatic expression, most of which are definitely not compound words (e.g. *it's raining cats and dogs*).

The morphological criterion of formal integrity, which emphasizes the presence of connecting elements, bound forms, or structural indivisibility, is of little use for English: *black market* is indivisible, and yet the stress patterns show that it is a phrase.

The numerous borderline cases between compounds and word-groups have given rise to one of the most controversial problems in English word-composition, known as the stone wall problem. Briefly, it is whether the combinations of the stone wall type should be regarded as compound words or free combinations. Even if this difficulty is solved, the status of the first element is still not clear: is it a noun used as an attribute, or a noun that has been converted into an adjective?

According to most linguists, a noun-to-adjective conversion is hardly productive in Modern English, and there are very few such adjectives in independent use. On the other hand, the possibility of combining two nouns in an attributive phrase is now almost universally recognised. This seems to bring us to a conclusion that both free combinations of the noun + noun type and compound words of the noun stem + noun stem type co-exist in present-day English. The criterion in distinguishing compound words from word-groups of the N + N type seems to be the spelling, which in most cases fluctuates between the use of a hyphen, and spelling as two separate words. Those N + N units which have become registered by vocabularies tend to solid or hyphenated spellings.

3. Minor ways of word-formation

Reduplication and related phenomena

A limited number of English words, although they obviously consist of two parts, fail to satisfy the commonly accepted definition of a compound word. They either contain only one free form, the other component being variation of it, or are made up of two nonsensical **pseudo-morphemes**. Other features they have in common is a stylistically marked (often jocular) character,

and a phonetic motivation. The morphophonetic phenomena involved in their creation are **reduplication**, **ablaut** and **rhyme**.

Reduplicative compounds proper are a very mixed group, some of them phonetically motivated (onomatopoeic) words, others made up of pseudo-morphemes. *Hush-hush* (= secret) and *murmur* are obvious sound imitations, while reduplicated non-imitative words like *goody-goody* usually have an ironic ring. Ablaut combinations combine a repetition with a vowel interchange (ablaut), as *chit-chat*, *riff-raff*, *shilly-shally* and a number of others. They often imply irony, a negative evaluation, or are sound-imitations (e.g. *ding-dong*). Rhyme combinations are usually made up of two pseudo-morphemes: *helter-skelter*, *razzle-dazzle*, *mumbo-jumbo*.

Shortening or clipping of words

This phenomenon has been recorded in English as far back as the 15th century. The process mostly involves long borrowed words, and cuts them down to one syllable to fit the dominant monosyllabic tendency of English colloquial speech. During the process of clipping, either initial, medial, or final part of a word drops off: thus *demonstration* becomes *demo*, *microphone* turns into *mike*, *avant-garde* (Fr) shortens down to *vanguard* and then to *van*, and *influenza* got finally chopped into *flu*.

Shortening, however, is not simply replacing a longer form with a shorter one, as a clipped word usually differs from its prototype both in meaning and usage. *Tele-*, for example, does not only mean 'far' in Modern English: in words like *telecast*, *teletext*, *televviewer*, etc. it is in fact a shortened variant of *television*.

Unlike conversion, clipping produces new words in the same part of speech – mostly nouns. Final-clipped words form the bulk of the class: *ad* (from *advertisement*), *lab* (from *laboratorium*), *veg* (from *vegetable*), etc. Initial clippings are rare, mostly established as separate words: *story* (from *history*), *tend* (from *attend*). Medial clippings are equally few: they usually retain the functional morpheme on a final-clipped stem, like *specs* (from *spectacles*) or *maths* (from *mathematics*), or *drop* the unstressed syllable 'due to the influence of rhythm (this phenomenon is known as **contraction** or **elision**): *fancy*, formed from *fantasy*.

Abbreviations and acronyms

Abbreviated words are those formed from the initial letters of a (usually long) phrasal term: *GPO* – *General Post Office*, *D.A.* – *District Attorney*, *GMT* – *Greenwich Mean Time*. They are either pronounced as a series of letters (*B.B.C.*) or, if the written form resembles an English word, it will be read like one (*NATO*). The words thus formed are called **acronyms** (from "acros" – "end" and "onym" – "name" in Ancient Greek). Acronyms are frequent in technical speech, *laser* and *radar* being the best-known examples. In many cases, a phrase naming a technical device is deliberately chosen to produce an acronymic reading: thus one of the first computers was "Mathematical Analyzer, Numerical Integrator and Computer", which shortened down to *MANIAC*. The same applies to names of political parties and lobby groups like *STOPP* (= "Students and Teachers Opposed to Physical Punishment").

The most frequently used abbreviations and acronyms are usually familiar to the English-speaking public, but tend to be quickly forgotten as they drop out of active use, as their meanings are not "transparent". An average Englishman would readily recognize *P.M.* as *Prime Minister*, but not *CND* – "Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament", now that its protests are no longer headline news.

Blendings

Blendings, also known as **fusions** or **portmanteau words**, or **telescoping formations**, are made up of parts of two or more words so that the parts they have in common serve as a connecting

element. *You see it a like a portmanteau – there are two meanings packed into one word*, Humpty-Dumpty explained the method to Alice.

Blendings are a very productive class of words in Modern English. Two subclasses are distinguished, those of **additive** and **restrictive** blendings. The first class runs together both parts of the sound forms of two words and their meaning, as *smog* is a combination of *smoke* and *fog*, *brunch* is *breakfast* and *lunch* combined, etc. The restrictive type, on the other hand, runs together an attributive phrase, where the first element serves as the modifier of the second: *breathalyzer* (= *breath analyzer*), *medicare* (= *medical care*), *workaholic* (= *work alcoholic*), etc.

Оборудование и материалы: ноутбук, проектор, доска.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What are the ways of vocabulary extension?
2. Give a general description of affixation in English.
3. Classify suffixes in English.
4. Classify prefixes in English.
5. Characterize synonymy, homonymy and polysemy of affixes.
6. What morphs are treated as semi-affixes?
7. What is a word-building pattern?
8. What is conversion? In what way is a new word formed under conversion? What does a converted word acquire?
9. What are the main varieties of conversion? What parts of speech are especially affected by conversion? What are the basic criteria of semantic derivation in conversion?
10. What is word-composition? What components does the meaning of a compound word consist of? What is meant by the structural meaning of a compound word?
11. What classes of compounds can be singled out according to the relations between the ICs that constitute them? What groups do compound words fall into according to the part of speech they represent?
12. How can compounds be classified according to the means of composition? What classes of compound words can be singled out according to the type of bases?
13. What does correlation between the system of free phrases and compound words embrace? What four major classes of compounds can be singled out on the basis of their correlation with free phrases?
14. Provide criteria of compounding. Characterize “the stone wall problem”.
15. Give a brief description of the minor ways of word-formation.

Задания

1. Form the words with a negative meaning, using prefixes in-, un-, dis-, de-. Translate them into Russian.

Ability, able, accessible, action, admissible, expected, comprehensible, to tie, eatable, to bind, to charge, to obey, to organize, to mobilize, to bolt, just, justice.

2. Form the verbs with the following prefixes, translate them into Russian.

Be-, re-, per-, pro-, for-, trans-, dis-, de-, mis-

3. State the verb-stems and suffixes the nouns are built with. Translate them into Russian:

1. Electrification, simplification, amplification, intensification, classification, specification, preparation, connection, lubrication, compression, transmission.

2. Drawing, designing, beginning, feeling, steering, acting, welding.
3. Government, development, employment, accomplishment, movement, equipment, establishment.
4. Conductivity, variety, productivity.
5. Defense, resemblance, appearance, clearance.
6. Discovery, delivery.

4. Analyze the words, state what part of speech they belong to. Comment on the formation and meaning. Translate them into Russian.

Aside, afresh, antibody, antiwar, countermotion, decompose, demilitarization, disarrange, discover, extraterritorial, extralogical, ex-champion, ex-president, ex-student, immortal, indirect, invariable, interconnect, interdependent, outsider, outsit, overweight, overload, non-resistance, pre-fabricate, prehistoric, predetermined, post-war, prorector, rearrangement, reconstruct, subclass, substation, supersonic, superheating, transatlantic, transcontinental, untrue, ultrasonic, ultramodern, vice-president.

5. Classify the suggested compounds according to their structure into a) neutral, b) morphological, c) syntactic:

Good-looking, twenty-five, statesman, merry-go-round, so-so, landlord, cabman, nothing, handicraft, forget-me-not, traveling-bag, two-storied, newly-wed, billboard, sociolinguistics, well-fitting.

6. Express the following using idiomatic compounds from the following list:

free-handed, great-hearted, stiff-necked, light-hearted, heavy-handed

obstinate, spending or giving away money freely, awkward and clumsy, happy or free mom care, generous.

7. Define the minor type of word-formation used to form the given words:

vac (vacuum cleaner), seadrome (sea and airdrome), VIP, quack, commentate, NASA, pro (professional actor), media, subject (n) - to subject (v), FBI, O.K., buzz, walkie-talkie, lose (v) - loss.

8. Define the type of word-formation used to form the given words:

collarless, prof (professor), to holiday, lungful, Spanglish (Spanish English), light-hearted, Interpol, looking-glass, powerful, girl-friend, smog, lab, transistor (= transfer and resistor), anti-stress, VCR, to photograph, AIDS, sister-in-law, H-bomb, blackbird, Liz (Elizabeth), subway, motel (motor hotel), handicraft, ad (advertisement), imperfect, week-end, bye-bye, to baby-sit, foot - feet, to moo, NATO, lazy-bones, to weekend, NBA, friendship, CD, exam, bang, brunch, cuckoo.

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

Model: *net* < *internet*. The initial part of the original word is cut off. Consequently, the new word refers to the first group.

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

10. Determine the original components of the following blends. Define which type (additive or restrictive) the blends belong to.

Model: *guesstimate*, *seadrome*

The verb *to guesstimate* is formed by combining the words *guess* and *estimate*. The given blend may be transformed into a phrase consisting of complete stems combined by the conjunction *and*. Thus, *to guesstimate* belongs to the additive type of blends.

The noun *seadrome* is formed by combining the words *sea* and *airdrome*. The given blend may be transformed into a phrase, the first element of which serves as modifier to the second. Thus, *seadrome* belongs to the restrictive type of blends.

Positron, brunch, absotively, motel, spam, flush, slanguage, twirl, bit, mingy, transceiver, paratroops, crocogator, oilitics, dipward, windoor, newtopia, glumpy, cablegram, smaze, flextime, Oxbridge.

11. According to their pronunciation classify the given acronyms into two groups: 1) those that are read as ordinary English words; 2) those with the alphabetic reading. (p80

NATO, UNO, WHO, BUPA, AGM, WI, UCAS, IRA, NASA, CID, SALT, UEFA, IQ, NAAFI, MRBN, FBI, TEFL, UFO, UNRRa, VIP, FIFA.

Лабораторная работа5

Тема 5. Семасиология. Лексическое значение. Семантические изменения в структуре слова. Полисемия.

Цель занятия: дать представление о семасиологии как одном из разделов лингвистики, рассмотреть значение слова как основное понятие семасиологии и рассмотреть изменения в семантическом значении структуры слов.

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях.

ОПК-5 - способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

В результате подготовки к лабораторным занятиям студент должен:

знать:

возможные варианты решения задачи, оценивая их достоинства и недостатки; основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии; особенности передачи семантической информации, стилистическую и культурную коннотацию языковых единиц, используемых в устной и письменной коммуникации.

уметь:

находить и критически анализировать информацию, необходимую для решения поставленной задачи; аргументировано формировать собственные суждения и оценки;

интерпретировать основные проявления взаимосвязи языковых уровней и взаимоотношения подсистем языка; интерпретировать коммуникативные цели

высказывания, выявлять релевантную информацию, адекватно идентифицировать принадлежность высказывания к официальному, нейтральному и неофициальному регистрам общения

владеть:

навыками критического анализа информации;

навыками применения понятийного аппарата изучаемой дисциплины с учетом основных особенностей научного стиля в устной и письменной речи;

навыками использования лексико-грамматических и фонетических средств организации целого текста с соблюдением семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями устного и /или письменного высказывания.

Актуальность темы: важность формирования у студентов знаний о лексическом значении и умений проводить семантический анализ.

Организационная форма занятия: **собеседование**, целью которого является повышение интенсивности и эффективности процесса восприятия за счет активного включения обучаемых в коллективный поиск истины.

Теоретическая часть:

1. Meaning as an object of study

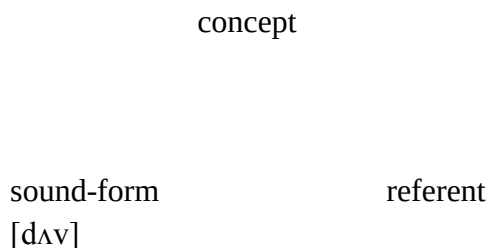
"Meaning", like "word", is one of the most controversial terms in linguistics. Although we often use it in teaching and translation (usually implying a synonym or a translation equivalent), the precise scientific definition of "meaning" presents a considerable difficulty. This is partly so because philosophers, psychologists, literary critics and others all take part in the study of meaning, each of them trying to adapt its definition to his own needs. So a logic may define meaning in terms of truth and falsehood; a psychologist, in terms of stimulus and reaction; a literary critic, in terms of the author's intention and the reader's response, etc. Ogden and Richards, the authors of the classical work on the subject, aptly titled "The Meaning of Meaning", were able to include no less than twenty-two various definitions of meaning into their book.

Even within linguistics itself, there are different schools and approaches. Ferdinand de Saussure and his followers treated meaning as the relation between something named and the name itself, and therefore part of the system of the language. On the other hand, the "descriptive" linguistics of the Bloomfield school defines meaning as the situation in which the word is uttered, and therefore part of the use to which language is put. Meaning, according to Bloomfield and his successors, is outside the structure of the language. Some of them went so far as to exclude semasiology from linguistics on the ground that "meaning could not be studied objectively". (Most linguists, however, do not share this extreme view. A prominent linguist Roman Jakobson summed it up in his joke: "Linguistics without meaning is meaningless").

As a result, there are two main approaches to the study of meaning in present-day linguistics. One is the referential approach, seeking to establish the interdependence between words and concepts. The other is the functional approach, which is less concerned with what meaning is than with how it works. All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning, but this doesn't mean that the functional approach should be fully ignored: it is often a useful starting point for a referential analysis, and is also widely used in various structure-oriented studies of language, such as semantic syntax and computer linguistics.

2. The referential theory of meaning

The reference-based approach to meaning distinguishes between three closely related objects: the linguistic sign the (sound-form of a word or its graphic representation); the concept, or the mental object; and the referent, i.e. the actual part of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. Their connection and interrelation is best represented by the so-called semantic triangle:



As is seen from the diagram, there's no direct connection between the sign and the referent. Instead, the sound or graphic form of the linguistic sign is connected with our concept of what it denotes, and only through that with the referent, i.e. the actual animal in question.

This scheme is over-simplified and several things are left out for the sake of clarity. It is important to remember, for example, that the word is represented by the whole left-hand side of the diagram, i.e. both the sign and the underlying concept, which form an inseparable unity.

Can the linguistic meaning be identified with the concept? To begin with, concepts are mental abstractions representing the most essential features of the real world objects; therefore they are almost identical for all people, no matter what language they speak. The meanings of words, on the other hand, are different in different languages, as additional structures (semantic, grammatical, etc.) are imposed on mental concepts. The Russian дом, for example, may have two different English equivalents, house and home, depending on the aspect of the concept we have in mind. Even in the same language, we can find words expressing the same concept but having different linguistic meaning: child, baby, brat, infant.

As we see, meaning cannot be identified with the concept; but neither can it be identified with the referent. While meaning is part of the system of the language, the referent is part of the real world, and so stands outside language. Besides that, the same object may be identified by using different words with different meanings: an apple, depending on the situation, may be apple or fruit or something or simply this (if you are pointing at it). Some linguists claim meanings can be identified by giving precise, scientifically accurate definitions of their referents; but again, this is not so. One may easily speak about things one has a very approximate knowledge of, just as one can use a computer or a TV set without any real knowledge of what's inside it. In a similar way, when we talk of water, we need not know anything about its chemical composition.

Finally, there is no direct connection between the meaning and the corresponding linguistic sign, or the form of the word. Their connection has a perfectly conventional and arbitrary character, as identical meanings could be expressed by different forms (in a different language, or even in the same language: cf. car and automobile), and different meanings could be expressed by identical forms: cf. ball – a round object used for games and ball – a gathering of people for dancing. Therefore meaning cannot be identified with any of the three parts of the semantic triangle, although it is closely associated with all of them.

The main problem with studying meaning is that, being relative by nature, it can't be "isolated" in a "chemically pure" form. THERE IS NO WAY OF GETTING MEANING OUTSIDE LANGUAGE, and the only method of describing it is in terms of language itself. Yet, by placing different words in identical contexts (= in an identical environment). or placing identical words in

different contexts, and then contrasting them, i.e. by setting up linguistic oppositions, it is possible to prove that lexical meaning is not a homogeneous unity, but is a structure made up of various components. These components are usually described as types of meaning.

The four most important types or aspects of meaning are as follows:

1) Every word combines lexical and grammatical meaning (e.g. father is a personal noun, and the opposition father / fathers reveals a regular plural number paradigm);

2) Many words not only refer to some object but also serve to express the speaker's attitude towards that object; thus their lexical meaning splits into denotational and connotational meaning (e.g. daddy is synonymous to father, but has added colloquial overtones and is a term of endearment);

3) Denotational meaning is further segmented into semantic components, or semes (e.g. the denotational meaning of father is clearly segmented into male and parent);

4) A word may be polysemantic, i.e. it may have several meanings, all interconnected and forming its semantic structure (e.g. apart from "a male parent", "father" can refer to an ancestor, a founder of a business company, a pioneer in some field, or a Christian priest). These component meanings are often defined as lexico-semantic variants.

3. Grammatical and lexical meaning

Word-forms so vastly different in meaning as tables, joys, machines and horses nevertheless have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality which can be found, and is also formally expressed, in all of them. From the point of view of lexicology, it is an expression in speech of relations between words by means of identical recurrent parts of individual forms of different words. These parts are known as "affixes", and can be isolated from word-forms similar or identical in function by comparing them. English has a limited number of such forms, all easily recognizable (as the plural and possessive forms in nouns, or 3rd person singular form in present tense verbs).

It may seem that grammatical meaning is of no importance for lexicology, but this is not quite so. Words preserve their grammatical meaning even when standing in isolation, as in a dictionary, and this should be taken into consideration when studying the other aspects of meaning. Besides that, some linguists speak of a lexico-grammatical meaning which stands in between lexical and grammatical meanings proper and deals with sub-categories within grammatical categories, such as "material nouns", "collective nouns" and "personal nouns" within the category of noun.

Unlike grammatical meaning, the lexical meaning is identical in all the forms of a word. For example, the word-forms go, goes, went, going and gone possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person, etc., but express the same notion, or concept, as they all refer to the process of movement. Lexical meaning is retained in all the forms of a given word, as well as in all the possible distributions.

As we see, lexical meaning is the feature of an individual lexical unit, while grammatical meaning is common to a class. However, none of these two meanings can be fully isolated from the other, as a word is impossible without both. (In some classes of words, known as form words, the lexical meaning is weakened and the grammatical meaning prevails.)

4. Denotational and connotational meaning

Most linguists agree that lexical meaning involves not only mental concepts, but also the speaker's emotions, as long as they are expressed by linguistic means (not by animal sounds). Therefore, the speaker's attitudes to what he is speaking about, to other communicants, and to the act of communication itself, are also relevant for semasiology and have to be accounted for.

The conceptual meaning of a word is expressed in its denotational or denotative meaning. To "denote" means to serve as a linguistic expression for a concept, or as a name for an individual object, and has a broader meaning than "refer to". The denotative meaning may be significative, if the referent is a concept, or demonstrative, if it is an individual object. The object denoted is a "denotatum" (pl. "denotata"), and is sometimes identified with the referent. Generally speaking, "signification", "denotation" and "reference" differ in their degree of abstraction, "signification" being the most abstract.

The opposite of denotation in language belongs to the field of expressiveness, which deals with the linguistic expression of the speaker's feelings and attitudes, and pragmatics involving the effect of words upon the listeners. Apart from the speaker's emotions, these also include evaluations, associations, social and expressive parameters of speech, etc. Taken together, these are known as connotations, or connotative meaning. Unlike denotation, this is an optional element of meaning, i.e. it may be absent completely, or present in varying proportions.

The connotative or connotational meaning, if it is present, may reflect the speaker's observance of the appropriate style of communication (as in saying whether somebody was slain or killed or murdered or bumped off), his approval/disapproval of the object spoken of (as in saying whether a group of people is a party or a clique or a gang) or the person addressed (as in calling a police officer sergeant or constable or cop), his emotional state (as whether he speaks about his father as daddy or old geezer) or the degree of intensity (whether his feelings towards a certain lady are affection or love or adoration).

The description of the denotative meaning or meanings is the main task undertaken by lexicographers compiling unilingual explanatory dictionaries. The task is a difficult one because there is no clear line of demarcation between the semantic features strictly necessary for a definition, and those which are optional. In other words, the lexicographer should not include anything that rather belongs in an encyclopaedia. The definition of the word cat given by Hornby is: "a small fur-covered animal often kept as a pet in the house". It is brief and seemingly clear, but is it sufficient? The Chambers Dictionary, on the other hand, gives a scientific definition describing the animal in question as "a domestic carnivore of the genus *Felis*". One actually needs a knowledge of Latin, not English, to understand that.

On top of this, different speakers of the same language may have a differing scope of knowledge about one and the same referent. What, then, are the features necessary and sufficient to characterize a referent? Should we be guided by all that science knows about it, or restrict ourselves to the simplest possible concept clear to every child? (The best-known example of this is a Classical Greek definition of man as "biped aptera", i.e. "two legs and no feathers", which also applies to any well-plucked hen).

An obvious way out of this difficulty is greater diversity in dictionary-making. A dictionary, like a textbook, should be graded according to its future use. The compiler of a fundamental dictionary like the Oxford English Dictionary should take great pains to make his definitions as exact as possible. If, on the other hand, we need one for teaching English to an elementary class, we should stick to the minimum semantic components, explained as clearly as possible. Further steps could also be taken to study the very fuzziness (= lack of precision) of meanings in English. Of late, a special theory has been developed, enabling a precise translation of such abstract ideas as tall, young, beautiful etc. into a mathematical description suitable for a computer.

The denotative meaning, in spite of the difficulties described above, seems to be intuitively clear to the average user of the language. There is no doubt an Arctic explorer has a much larger

knowledge of the place than a man in the street has. Yet, somehow, there seems to be an elementary core of meaning present in the word that enables both to use the word Arctic and understand each other.

If the denotative meaning links the word with its referent, and is therefore rather stable, the connotative meaning is the pragmatic communicative value of a word, which depends on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it is or may be used, and therefore a word's connotations are many and varied. We shall restrict ourselves to four main types, which are the stylistic, emotional, evaluative, and expressive or intensifying connotations.

Stylistic connotations deal with the situation in which the word is uttered, the social circumstances (formal, familiar, etc.), the social relationships between the speakers (polite, rough, etc.), the type or purpose of communication (learned, poetic, official, etc.). These are mostly dealt with in stylistic, but some words are so heavily loaded with stylistic connotations that they are hardly ever used outside of some specialized contexts, and this should be reflected in the dictionary, as part of the word's meaning. Usually, the dictionary-maker adds a special warning to the description of the word's meaning, stating it's slang or poetic or official, etc.

An effective method of revealing connotations of this type is the analysis of synonymic groups, where the denotational meanings are close or identical. A classical example of such an analysis is the word horse and its synonyms: the head-word is stylistically neutral, steed is poetic, nag is informal and gee-gee is baby-talk.

An emotional or affective connotation is acquired by the word as a result of its frequent use in contexts corresponding to emotional situations. It may also be the result of the emotional significance implied in its referential meaning. An example of this is the word beseech, which differs from ask in exactly that quality (cf. Russian просить – умолять).

Evaluative connotation expresses approval or disapproval, whether on the part of the speaker or on the part of the society. In the latter case they are more stable, and are often felt to be "an inseparable part" of the meaning of the word. Thus magic, sorcery and witchcraft, long regarded as evil practices, still retain unfavourable associations (especially the last two). On the other hand, individual connotations are less stable and vary widely with ideology, culture, education and experience of the individual.

Words acquiring permanent unpleasant connotations – as those dealing with social taboos like crime, sex and disease – tend to be replaced by other words even in seemingly innocent contexts. This is especially so in politics and advertising, where deliberate use of words with vague denotational meanings and neutral or positive evaluative connotations is a great help in manipulating public opinion. Thus the poorest of the Third World countries are no longer backward or undeveloped countries, but less developed or developing.

There is some difficulty in separating the binary good/bad evaluation from connotations of the so-called bias words involving ideological view-points. Some authors think these should be regarded as a separate class. Indeed, words denoting social (political and national) groupings are notoriously rich in evaluative associations, which usually depend on whether the speaker belongs to the group in question. The evaluative component may be so strongly felt that the denotative meaning is all but forgotten, and the word is used as a term of abuse or praise. (Fascist is the most obvious example – as are the names of other extreme right- or left-wing parties). With a word like democratic, too, the connotative meaning seems to have taken over completely.

A fourth type of connotation that should be mentioned is the intensifying connotation, also known as "expressive" or "emphatic". This is easily traced in the colloquial use of words like

magnificent, gorgeous, splendid, superb or divine as terms of exaggeration. This type of connotation, however, is often combined with other types, so we have two, three or even all four types expressed at once. For example, the word beastly in beastly weather is emotional, colloquial, evaluative (expressing negative evaluation) and also expressing intensity.

This phenomenon has often led linguists to neglecting the difference between various types of connotational meaning. The tendency was to put them all together into a single class described as "stylistic" or "emotive" connotations. The purpose of semantic analysis, however, is to try and differentiate meanings that come together (as is the case with grammatical and lexical meaning). Remembering also that each of the types of connotational meaning may occur separately, or in various combinations with other types, thus producing different effects, it becomes clear that they should be differentiated.

The interdependence of connotations with denotative meaning is also different for different types of connotations. Thus, emotional connotation based on denotative meaning may finally replace it completely, adding overtones of colloquial style, general emphasis and evaluation (positive or negative, depending on the context). For example, terrific no longer means frightening, but is a colloquial intensifier meaning either "very good" or "very bad". In other cases, the meaning is not replaced but modified, as in the case with absolutely which may be used as a colloquial intensifier.

Care should be taken to distinguish between connotations, on one hand, and implications on the other. A connotation may be permanent, and form part of the dictionary meaning of a word, or spring up in some contexts and be absent in others but it would always be distinct from the denotational meaning of the word. Implications, on the other hand, would be caused by the speakers' knowledge of the referent and its qualities. An implication is a potential meaning, a possibility until it is materialized in a secondary meaning – maybe in a metaphor or a derivative. A wolf, for example, is known to be greedy and cruel, but the denotative meaning of the word does not have to include these features. On the other hand, a derived metaphorical meaning "to wolf smth down" is based precisely on this implied feature of wolves.

5.2. Семасиология. Семантические изменения в структуре слова. Полисемия.

1. Narrowing and extension of meaning. Transfer of meaning

When passing from general usage into some special sphere of communication, a word usually undergoes some sort of specialization of its meaning. (The reverse is also true, but not so frequent.) Consider the word case, which alongside of a general meaning possesses special meanings in law, medicine and grammar. This difference of meaning reveals itself in different contexts the word gets into (= differences in distribution), and also in different valency, or combining power. As a result, we ascribe a different semantic structure to the word, depending on its distribution or semantic paradigm.

Consider the word play as used by: a child; a playwright; a football player; a musician; and a chess player. It would clearly have different semantic paradigms in their speech, although a certain general notion (approximately that of "enjoyment") is preserved. Note also the difference in the meaning of Careful, this car is hot! as used: by its owner to a companion invited for a ride (on a very sunny day); by a proud owner of a Ferrari to an inexperienced friend; by a road patrolman to his partner after consulting a list of stolen cars; and by a man armed with a radiation detector, in a place like Fukushima.

There seems to be a directly proportional connection between the frequency of a word usage and a number of notions it may be used to denote (sometimes this is referred to as "Zipf's law". Zipf's law states that given some corpus of natural language utterances, the frequency of any word is inversely proportional to its rank in the frequency table. Thus the most frequent word will occur approximately twice as often as the second most frequent word, three times as often as the third most frequent word, etc.). The more often a word is used, the more objects it applies to, and therefore the vaguer its meaning becomes. (The most frequently used words are form words, almost devoid of denotational meaning.) On the other hand, if a word becomes specialized, it names fewer objects and therefore has fewer referents. At the same time, the corresponding concept is being enriched; it includes an ever greater number of relevant features. The word now applies to fewer things but tells us more about them.

The process described above is known as "narrowing of meaning", which is slightly misleading, as it is not the meaning but the applicability of the word that is narrowed or restricted. We should, therefore, speak of "restriction" or "specialization" of meaning, or of "differentiation" of meaning if relations with other words are implied.

History of English is rich in examples of restriction of meaning. Thus OE *mete* meant food in general – the present meaning is only one kind of food (probably the most important). Note that the old meaning is preserved in *sweetmeat*. OE *fuzol* (cf. German *Vogel*) and OE *hund* (cf. German *Hund*) were likewise generic words but became specialized in meaning as new generic words, *bird* and *dog*, also of OE origin, came into use. In other cases the older word was forced into a specialized use by a borrowing. This was the fate of OE *tacen* (cf. Germ. *Zeichen*) meaning "sign". The present-day generic word is of Latin origin, while *token* survives in a number of idioms (e.g. as a token of goodwill) and in specialized use (lexical token).

The process reverse to specialization is called generalization, or widening of meaning. This means a word is gradually applied to a wider field of objects, whereas the underlying concept becomes more abstract. In fact, most abstract words appeared in that way. From the point of view of semantics, the process may be described as loss of less significant components of meaning. Thus *ready* originally meant "prepared for the ride", while *fly* implied moving through the air with wings but now may be used for almost any kind of quick movement. In the case of generic terms like *person* or *thing*, the grammatical categorial meaning became dominant in the semantic structure of the word, while all the other components gradually weakened or disappeared altogether.

Narrowing and extension of meaning are by far not the only types of semantic change. More typically, they are supplemented by various kinds of semantic transfer, often based on various associations. Thus, by extension, a word comes to be used for an object similar to, or connected with, the object originally denoted. Small children are particularly fond of associative use of the language, coining their own words for anything they see – thus a fur coat becomes a *pussy*, and a globe-shaped lampshade, a *melon*.

The major types of semantic transfer are well-known to linguists, ever since they were described by Ancient Greek rhetoric – the science studying the art of expressive speech (and, by extension, expressive writing). The most common transfers are those based on similarity (the metaphor) and contiguity, or connection (the metonymy). The names of these and other tropes, or figures of speech, are traditional, and therefore should be known to any self-respecting student of philology.

A metaphor is a meaning transfer based on an association of similarity, or likeness, and is therefore a hidden comparison. A thing is therefore referred to as if it were something perfectly

different – but the thing meant and the thing referred to must have at least one point in common, as when the trousers of a specific cut are referred to as bananas (the similarity is in shape). Many words that originated as metaphors are no longer felt as such: thus we say foot (of a mountain), leg (of a table), etc. On the other hand, new metaphors are being created by authors; hence the difference between trite or dead, and poetic metaphors.

Unlike a metaphor, metonymy is based on an objectively existing connection between a thing named and a thing implied. The name of a thing may then imply the material the thing is made of (as book is indirectly related to bark because it was the first writing material used), the place (as cash is indirectly related to case – the container where it was kept), the symbol (as crown for monarchy), etc.

Other tropes described in rhetoric (hyperbole, litotes, irony) are less productive as methods of semantic transfer, since they usually depend on a wider context. They can, however, be used in forming expressive words and phrases, with a weakened denotative meaning. A hyperbolic aspect, for example, is clearly felt in emotive words like splendid! marvellous!, etc., used as exclamations, and understatement is considered to be a typically British way of putting things, especially in male colloquial speech, so a humble "not so bad" may actually be a term of high praise.

2. Divergence of meaning. Meaning and polysemy

While dealing with a componential analysis of meaning, one would expect all the semantic components (as +HUMAN, +MALE and +ADULT in man) to be equally important. In actual speech, however, this is not so, as some of the components may be reduced in importance, and even fully neutralized, when the word is used in some specific contexts (as +MALE is neutralized if man is a morpheme in mankind). This is especially so if the semantic components in question are not equally important in defining the meaning of a word. These features of a word's semantic structure make it possible to use it in various contexts, and with various meanings. Such words are known as polysemantic, and the corresponding phenomenon is known as polysemy.

Due to the monosyllabic character of English words, and predominance of root words (unlike Russian, where most words are derived), polysemy is very typical of English words. There is a direct proportion between the relative frequency of a word usage in English, and the number of variations that make up its semantic structure; i.e. the more frequent an English word is, the more polysemantic it is. It is not unusual for an English word (like the adjective good or the verb set) to have about a hundred of distinct meanings, and the average number of meanings for a word in the first thousand of the most frequent words is 25.

Consider the verb run. Its main meaning seems to be "to go by moving legs quickly" – although this should be further distinguished from jogging or trotting, – and is restricted to humans, and possibly animals. If we extend it to inanimate thing (A bus runs between these two villages twice a day), or use it as a metaphor (It made my blood run cold), both "on foot", and possibly also "quickly", are neutralized or suppressed. In The car runs on petrol, the idea of motion is reduced to "operating" or "functioning", and this is reflected in the changed syntactic valency, or environment, of the word. In This shop is run by Mrs Brown but owned by her husband, the idea of "operation" is narrowed down to "management", and in The river bank ran up steeply, there is no implication of speed or movement, but the sense of direction is preserved. In the final analysis, there seems to be no single semantic component common to all the variant meanings – known as lexico-semantic variants – of the verb run. On the other hand, every variant has something in common with at least one of the others. This is best represented schematically by a branching tree diagram which shows the interrelation between all the variant meanings.

There are no universally accepted criteria for differentiating variant meanings of a word. In fact, different dictionaries may group variant meanings differently. To be able to distinguish between variant meanings, or lexico-grammatical variants of a single word, we must note the morphological peculiarities (if any) of each variant, the difference in paradigm or distribution (i.e. possible contexts), difference in valency, different syntactic functions (e.g. run is transitive in some meanings but intransitive in others).

All the lexical and lexico-grammatical variants of a word taken together form its semantic structure, or semantic paradigm. A more detailed analysis of this structure presents considerable difficulty, but there is a set of generally recognized oppositions with respect to meaning.

To begin with, meaning can be direct and figurative. It is direct if an object so named could be recognized outside of any context, even from a word standing in isolation. It is figurative when an object is both named and characterized through its similarity or connection with another object (which is usually impossible without a context).

Other oppositions are more or less self-evident, including concrete/abstract; primary or main/secondary; central/marginal or peripheral; narrow/extended; general/special etc. For example, screen is direct when meaning a piece of furniture or a projection surface, and figurative when meaning something that protects by hiding (a smoke screen). In its turn, the projection surface comes secondary to a piece of furniture, as the latter meaning was the earliest historically (even though the projection surface seems to be the most typical meaning of screen in modern contexts). In a screen adaptation, screen means "having to do with cinema" and is therefore abstract, while the previously defined meanings are concrete, and the main meaning is the one possessing the highest frequency of usage at any given period.

The above oppositions are synchronic in character. If, however, we are interested in the diachronic aspect, we would distinguish the etymological, or the earliest known meaning; the archaic meanings, no longer active, but still surviving in restricted contexts (as idioms or compound words); obsolete meanings, no longer in use; the present-day meaning and probably also the original meaning serving as a basis for derivation.

If the stress is not on the meaning of the word, but rather upon its use in various contexts, the stylistic classification of words may be useful, separating words into neutral, bookish and colloquial, with a number of subclasses in each.

Polysemy is a phenomenon of language, not of speech. It deals with those meanings of a word that are firmly established in the language through their repeated use, and could be isolated from texts and fixed in dictionaries. However, a word used in a particular context may represent an unusual meaning, often suggested by an untypical environment, often figurative or transferred (as one is terminated, rather than killed, in certain works of science fiction). Such meanings are known as contextual, are created by individual authors or speakers, and hardly ever acquire a permanent status in a language. The extreme case of a contextual meaning is a nonce-use, coined for a unique use in a unique context, and never meant to be reproduced (as Lewis Carroll's un-birthday present).

Summing up, we define the semantic structure of a word as a structured set of interrelated lexical variants with different denotational meanings. All the variants are expressed by the same set of morphemes, but occur in different contextual environments. The lexical variants are interrelated due to the existence of some common semantic component, and the various meanings they express have a recurrent character. They may also have various emotional, stylistic and other connotations, but these are optional. Every meaning is thus characterized according to its function, its significative effect and its pragmatic effect it has to fulfil in referring the word to extra-linguistic

reality and to the speaker. It can also be characterized with respect to other meanings with which it is contrasted.

Оборудование и материалы: ноутбук, проектор, доска.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What does semasiology study?
2. What is the essence of the referential approach to meaning?
3. How is meaning defined on the functional basis?
4. What types of meaning can be singled out?
5. Meaning in the operation-oriented approach
6. What aspects of lexical meaning can be singled out? Describe each of the type.
7. What are the basic types of association involved in various semantic changes? Give examples.
8. What are the results of the change of the denotational aspect of the lexical meaning? Give examples.
9. What are the results of the change of the connotational aspect of the lexical meaning? Give examples.
10. What is polysemy?
11. Why is it important to differentiate between meaning and usage?
12. Diachronic and synchronic approach to polysemy.
13. Polysemy and context: context, lexical context, grammatical context, extra-linguistic context.

Задания

1. **State to what part of speech the words in italics belong. Comment on their meaning. Translate into Russian.**

He *elbowed* his way through the crowd. Let him have his *say*. She *upped* and threw a tea-pot at him. Life has its *ups and downs*. They will *honeymoon* in Scotland. That was a fine *catch of fish*. I don't know why you've *babied* me along, but you have.

2. **Define all possible types of meaning in the following words:**

Model: *buys*

1. Lexical meaning consists of denotational and connotational components. The denotational meaning of this word is "to purchase". It is stylistically neutral and there is no emotive charge in it.
2. The grammatical meaning of this word is the third person singular.
3. As for part-of-speech meaning it is a verb and denotes an action (the lexical component) and as a verb it has the grammatical categories of tense, person, number, mood, voice (the grammatical component).

Woman's, chicks (=girls colloquial), bright, wider, the blackest, walked, (had) moved, runs, quickly, further (adv).

3. **Define the type of logical association in the following examples of different meaning of the same words.**

Green grass - green years, the wing of a bird - the wing of a building, the eye of a man - the eye of a needle, copper (metal) - copper (coin), Ford (proper name) -ford (a car), the hand of a child - the

hand of a clock, the tooth of a boy - the tooth of comb, the mouth of a man - the mouth of a cave, black coat - black despair, the heart of the man - the heart of the matter, glass - a glass, Kashmir (town) - cashmere (fabric), the bridge across the river - the bridge of the nose, jersey (fabric) - jersey (sweater), the tongue of a person - the tongue of a bell, the man's foot - the foot of the mountain, tweed (fabric) - tweeds (suit).

4. Analyze the meanings of the suggested words and define the result of the semantic change:

Girl: a small child of either sex - a small child of the female sex, **knight:** manservant, noble courageous man, **bird:** a young bird, any bird, **barn:** a place for keeping barley, a large farm building used to keep grain, hay, etc., **coarse:** ordinary or common, rude or vulgar, **champion:** a fighting man, a person who won in a sporting contest, **pen:** feather, writing implements such as ballpoint, fountain pens, **marshal:** manservant attending horses, an officer of the highest rank.

5. Using a dictionary determine the direct meaning of the italicised words, which are used here in their figurative metaphorical meanings.

1. Art is a *vehicle* of propaganda. 2. Raise the *bonnet* of the car. 3. Don't *fumble* for excuses. 4. He's always ready to *shove* the responsibility on others. 5. I'm sure he didn't steal the thing. It had been *planted*. 6. This event is a *milestone* in the history of the country. 7. It will *soil* his reputation. 8. I'll *swelter* in this coat on such a hot day. 9. There is a *snag* in your argument. 10. A smile *creased* his face. 11. I *stumbled* through the text somehow. 12. You have a *fertile* imagination.

6. Determine the meanings of the words "house", "white", "die" in the following contexts. Say what concept is realised in these lexical meanings. Discuss the problem "concept-meaning".

1. A house in the country. A full house. Every word was heard in all parts of the house. White House. An ancient trading house in the city. A noisy cheerful house. To keep house. To bring down the house. To leave one's father's house. On the house.

2. White clouds. White hair. A white elephant. The white race. White magic. White meat. As white as snow. White wine. It's white of you. White lie.

3. Die of hunger. Die a violent death. Die in one's bed. The day is dying. Die to the world. I'm dying to know. His secret died with him. Die in harness. Die game. Never say die.

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

Model: *celebrated* – *notorious*

The denotational and connotational aspects of the word *celebrated* is 'widely known, admired and talked about by many people because of good qualities' (component of the connotational aspect - positive evaluation)

The denotational and connotational aspects of the word *notorious* is 'widely known because of something bad, for example for being criminal, violent or immoral' (component of the connotational aspect - negative evaluation)

To deal with – to grapple with, sophisticated – hardened, adventure – ordeal, perfect – flawless, to glance – to glare, adulation – respect, to murmur – to mutter.

8. Comment on the different meanings of the italicized words. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. It is not within my *power* to help you. 2. He is losing his *powers*. 3. More *power* to your elbow! 4. Are the *powers* of the prime minister strictly defined by law? 5. They have mustered sufficient sea, air and land *power* to win back the territory. 6. The task of preserving peace lies mainly with the great *powers*.

9. Find restriction of meaning in the following sentences. Give reasons for the meaning shift.

1. Have you read the editorial in today's paper? 2. The City is the banking and commercial centre of London. 3. There were several cases of influenza. The worst cases were sent to hospital.

10. Comment on the extension of meaning and state whether the shift of meaning has taken place (a) from concrete to abstract, (b) from physical to mental, (c) as a transfer on the basis of functional change.

1. He spoke so fast that I could not follow him.
2. The airship sailed slowly over the city.
3. He works at a cotton mill.
4. Belgium has often been a theatre of war.

11. Determine the main and derived meanings of the underlined words. Translate the sentences. Say whether lexical or grammatical context is predominant in determining the meaning of a word.

A. 1. Do not suspend the lamp from the ceiling, fix it to the wall. 2. The molecules of the substance remain suspended in the solution. 3. The law was suspended. 5. He was suspended from all international games for three years. 6. The Lords have the power to suspend non-financial legislation for two years.

B. 1. It's like having a loose cobra around the house. 2. You can get it loose or in packets. 3. To say so would be loose grammar. 4. Have the loose tooth out. 5. That would be rather a loose translation. 6. Fix the loose end to the wall. 7. Your shoe lace got loose. 8. There was some loose change in his pocket but nothing else. 9. He has loose manners.

C. 1. He gets up early. 2. The speaker called for an early settlement of the issue. 3. Do it at the earliest opportunity. 4. He wants an early answer. 5. Only a joint conference will bring about an early solution of the problem. 6. Early training tells. 7. The early bird catches the first worm.

D. 1. The steak is tough. 2. Don't worry, it won't get me down. I'm tough. 3. This is a tough problem. 4. He is for a tough policy. 5. Prof. Holborn is a tough examiner.

12. What process of the change of word meaning is found in the following signs? The explanations in the right column will help you understand the signs.

HELPING HAND	charity gift shop
LITTLE WOMEN	women's clothes shop (small sizes)
FOOD FOR THOUGHT	vegetarian restaurant
HAIRAIZERS	hairdresser's shop (compare the two expressions <i>hair-raising</i> "terrifying" and <i>put one's hair up</i> which means "arrange it so that it is rolled up on one's head")
A PRICE TO SUIT EVERYONE'S POCKET	anyone can afford it
FREE TRAIL WITHOUT OBLIGATION	We'll show how it works - there's no charge (compare <i>blaze a trail</i> which means "mark trees to show a path through a forest"; (figurative) "do smth for the first time and show others how to do it")

Лабораторная работа 6

Тема 6. Семантические отношения между словами. Омонимия в английском языке. Синонимия и антонимия в английском языке.

Цель занятия: рассмотреть семантические отношения между словами.

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях.

ОПК-5 - способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

В результате подготовки к лабораторным занятиям студент должен:

знать:

возможные варианты решения задачи, оценивая их достоинства и недостатки; основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии; особенности передачи семантической информации, стилистическую и культурную коннотацию языковых единиц, используемых в устной и письменной коммуникации.

уметь:

находить и критически анализировать информацию, необходимую для решения поставленной задачи; аргументировано формировать собственные суждения и оценки;

интерпретировать основные проявления взаимосвязи языковых уровней и взаимоотношения подсистем языка; интерпретировать коммуникативные цели высказывания, выявлять релевантную информацию, адекватно идентифицировать принадлежность высказывания к официальному, нейтральному и неофициальному регистрам общения

владеть:

навыками критического анализа информации;

навыками применения понятийного аппарата изучаемой дисциплины с учетом основных особенностей научного стиля в устной и письменной речи;

навыками использования лексико-грамматических и фонетических средств организации целого текста с соблюдением семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями устного и /или письменного высказывания.

Актуальность темы: важность формирования у студентов знаний о семантических отношениях между словами и умений проводить лексико-семантический анализ.

Организационная форма занятия: собеседование, целью которого является повышение интенсивности и эффективности процесса восприятия за счет активного включения обучаемых в коллективный поиск истины.

Теоретическая часть:

1. Classification of lexical groups

Unlike most codes, there is no one-to-one relationship between meanings and signs in a natural language. When several related meanings are associated with one written or spoken word, that word is called **polysemantic**; when two or more unrelated meanings are associated with the same form – these are **homonyms**, **full** or **partial**, or **homophones** if only their spoken forms coincide, or **homographs** if their written forms coincide but spoken do not; when two or more different forms are associated with the same – or nearly the same – denotational meaning these words are **synonyms**. Lexicology also studies **antonyms**, or words with a directly opposite or polar meaning; **hyponyms** and **hyperonyms**, i.e. words whose meanings either include or are included, by meanings of other words; **word-families**, i.e. words related in meaning but different in form and belonging to different parts of speech; and **thematic groups** of words loosely associated in meaning. Of these, homonyms and word-families are often brought together by dictionaries, while synonyms and thematic groups are brought together by a thesaurus, a conversation-book or a school textbook.

2. Homonymy in English

Homonyms are traditionally defined as words identical in both sound and spelling – or at least one of these aspects (homographs, homophones) – but having different meanings. Thus *match* – a competition and *match* – a stick of wood for striking fire are grammatically identical and are thus **full homonyms** whereas *rose* (n) – a flower and *rose* - past tense of rise are **partial homonyms** (note that in Ancient Greek homonymos was having the same name).

Homonyms exist in many languages, but English is particularly rich in them. They are mostly one-morpheme, one-syllable, words, numbering about 2.5 thousand. Most homonyms exist in pairs, but there are isolated examples like *baric*, *bay*, etc. that represent three or four meanings. In most cases, a pair of homonyms is a linguistic accident of a pair of words, often of different origin, gradually becoming identical in form. Only about 7 per cent of English homonyms are a result of splitting up of polysemantic words. If synonyms and antonyms could be used as an additional expressive means in a language, homonyms are of no interest in this respect, and are hardly of any use in communication. Moreover, as an isolated word form of this type, like *sound* or *fast*, may potentially assume different meanings in different contexts, a homonym is a powerful source of ambiguity and misunderstanding.

The ambiguity of a homonym, when it arises, may only be resolved in a context - *a boxing match* or *to strike a match* are hardly ambiguous. If ambiguous contexts do arise, they are either a result of carelessness on the part of the speaker or writer, or a deliberate device of humour known as a **pun**. For example, a tailor's motto, "We guarantee you a perfect fit, may be a promise of very good work – or very bad one".

Among the factors contributing to the number of homonyms in English are the monosyllabic character of English words and the analytical tendencies in the language, as well as the abundance of root words. As monosyllabic words tend to be the most frequent (according to Zipf's law), they tend to acquire meanings that may in the course of time stray very far from the original word. If an intermediate or linking meaning falls out of use, all connection with the original word is lost, and a new meaning starts on its separate existence. Thus *board* – a long, thin piece of wood, *board* – meals provided for the day and *board* – a group of people set up to examine a problem or run a business company are no longer felt as related because a fourth meaning, a piece of furniture, which originally held them together, dropped out of use as it was replaced by *table*. Similarly, *spring* – act of springing, *spring* – a source of water and *spring* - a season of the year are all related to the Old

English verb *springan* (cf. German *springen*), which used to mean jump and all but disappeared in Modern English. The process is known as **splitting** or **disintegration of polysemy**.

Another, more frequent source of homonymy is the phonetic changes that words undergo in the course of their development. As a result, two or more words that used to be pronounced differently lose their endings, drop unstressed syllables, mutate almost out of recognition due to phonetic assimilation, and finally coincide. Thus *niht* and *kniht* used to be pronounced differently in Old English, but the initial *k* was dropped in the second, although the difference in spelling was preserved (*night* – *knight*).

More typically, a borrowed word, in a final stage of its phonetic adaptation, may coincide with either a native word or another borrowing.

Historically, homonyms are an interesting field of study, ironically, they are a constant source of worry for lexicographers, teachers of English, and specialists in information processing. The problems here are the criteria for distinguishing homonyms from synonyms, and recognizing different meanings of the same homonyms. For a lexicographer, the chief problem is establishing word boundaries. The only reliable evidence for distinguishing different words identical in sound form, and different meanings of the same word, is etymology. If this is disregarded, the problem becomes almost impossible to solve. Neither can it be ignored, for the convenience in the use of the dictionary depends upon it.

Actual solutions differ. English lexicographers often place phonetically identical words showing similarity of lexical meaning within one entry, even if they belong to different parts of speech. English-Russian dictionaries usually make a distinction, etymology is often disregarded if it doesn't fit the present-day state of the language: thus *ear* in *an ear of corn* is now felt to be a metaphorical extension of the word meaning an organ of hearing, although etymologically it's a different word – one is related to Latin *auris*, the other to the Old English *ec3* (related to Modern English *edge*).

As for those teaching English, their main problem is **patterned homonymy** which is often found in frequently used words, that may easily have different part-of-speech meanings. *That* for example, is both a conjunction and a pronoun, *above* is a preposition, adverb and adjective – and there are countless other examples. The only clue to the part-of-speech meaning of many English words seems to be their **distribution**, or ability to occur in different environments. Nouns, for example, have a very typical pattern of (article + adjective + noun), while a verb typically follows a noun. So in *You'd have a bigger laugh if you laugh at yourself*, the first *laugh* is very clearly a noun while the second is a verb.

6.2. Семантические отношения между словами. Синонимия и антонимия в английском языке.

3. Synonyms in English

Synonyms are often defined as words different in form but identical in meaning. In reality, however, this is not so. By the very nature of language, each and every word has its own history, its typical contexts and motivation. Hence synonymous words could only be **similar**, but never really identical in meaning. There is always a difference, if very small, between either denotational or connotational meaning or both.

Synonyms, therefore, could be defined as belonging to the same part of speech, and possessing one or more identical, or nearly identical, denotational meanings. Synonyms are interchangeable – at least in some contexts – without any considerable change in meaning.

However, they differ in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotation, style, valency and idiomatic use – or at least in some of these parameters.

That synonyms are interchangeable leads one to believe the difference between their denotational meanings may, least under certain conditions, be **neutralized**. However, this often applies to certain contexts but not to others: so *undergo changes* and *suffer changes* seem to be identical in meaning, but in *suffer atrocities*, there is no replacing *suffer*, as, unlike *undergo* and *experience*, it implies *pain*.

Much synonymic group includes, among others, a dominant element, or a **synonymic dominant**. This seems to contain all, most, specific semantic features possessed also by the specific members of the synonymic group, and so is the most general term that could, if necessary, replace any other member of synonymic group in most contexts. An example is *hope* as used to *anticipate*, *expect*, *look forward to*: *hope* is most neutral word, while *look forward* is definitely colloquial and *anticipate* is bookish.

Traditionally, the Soviet linguists, following V.V. Vinogradov, distinguished between **ideographic** synonyms, defined words conveying the same notion but differing in shades of meaning, **stylistic** synonyms, differing in stylistic characteristics, and **absolute** synonyms, which coincided in all shades of meaning and all their stylistic characteristics. This, however, leaves more questions than answers. Firstly, absolute synonyms are very rare; whenever they appear – usually as a result of borrowings – one of them tends to drop out of use, or acquire a specialized meaning. Secondly, shades of meaning is something so vague that it evades definition. Thirdly, many synonyms are distinguished both by their shade of meaning and their stylistic colouring, or, in other words, both in their denotational and connotational meaning.

A more reliable approach to synonymy is presented by the componential theory of meaning. In terms of this theory, synonyms may be defined as word with the same denotation, but differing in connotations, or secondary components of meaning. To study a group of synonyms, we collect and analyze their definitions, preferably from different dictionaries. After that, we subject the definitions to **semantic transformations** to single out the components of meaning. Thus *stare*, *glare* and *gaze* all imply looking and a manner of this action that may be described as steady or lasting. However, in addition, *stare* implies surprise, *glare* – anger or fury, *gaze* implies admiration or wonder.

The synonymic dominant should not be confused with a **hypernym**. This is a generic term which, although it can be used to replace any word in a synonymic group, implies not equivalence but **inclusion**, as *animal* is a hyperonym for *wolf*, *dog* or *mouse*. *Dog*, in its turn, is a hyperonym for *collie*, *poodle*, *bull-dog*, etc., which are its **hyponyms**. Unlike synonymy, which is symmetrical, a hypo-hyperonymic relation is asymmetrical, which the forms hypo- (Greek under) and hyper- (over) clearly signify.

A polysemantic word may belong, in its various meanings, to several different synonymic groups, as *fresh* is related, in its different meanings, to *original*, *new*, *pure*, *inexperienced* and *rude*. Two polysemantic words may have more than one meaning in common, but never coincide completely.

In a great number of cases, the semantic difference between synonyms is supported by a difference in **valency**, which may be syntactical, morphological, or lexical. Syntactically, for example, *seem* and *appear* differ from *look* in that *seem* and *appear* may be followed by *that* or an infinitive, and *look* is never found in such constructions. Other differences include the use of different prepositions (*answer a question* – *reply to a question*), or difference in lexical valency:

gain a victory, but *win a war*. Difference in combinability extends to phraseological combinations: *cast* combines with *glance* but not with *glimpse*, although *cast a look* is perfectly possible, while *steal*, *shoot* or *throw* only combine with *glance*. This is akin to **contextual** or **context-sensitive** synonymy, where two words could on interchangeable under some very specific conditions, as their semantic difference is contextually neutralized. *Buy* and *get*, for example, are not synonyms, but the difference between them all but disappears when both are used colloquially, as in *Go get some bread* and *Go buy some bread*. *Bear* and *stand*, too, are hardly similar, but *can't bear* and *can't stand* are practically identical in meaning.

Diachronically, borrowings from various languages comprise tin: vast majority of English synonyms. A typical pattern is a word alongside that of a Latin origin (*bodily* – corporal, *brotherly* – *fraternal*), or a native word versus Greek or French (*answer* – *reply*), where the native word is typically neutral or colloquial, while the borrowed is bookish or literary.

The role of borrowings should not be overestimated, as new words are also created by other word-formation processes, and, once coined, become synonyms to those already in use. Of particular importance here is the formation of so-called phrasal verbs (*abandon* – *give up*, *postpone* – *put off*) and compound nouns related to them (*conscription* – *call-up*; *reproduction* – *playback*, etc.). Important causes of synonymy are creation of euphemisms, and the so-called synonymic attraction in colloquial speech, where notions of an emotionally significant, often partially taboo character (alcohol, sex, drugs) invite numerous slangy nominations, often current in teenage slang.

4. Antonyms in English

Traditionally, antonyms are defined as pairs of words that have opposite or contrasting meanings, such as *hot* – *cold*, *wide* – *narrow*, *happiness* – *sorrow*, *love* – *hate*. This definition, however, is not sufficiently accurate. A more precise definition, taking into account all the various aspects of the phenomenon, runs as follows: Antonyms are two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and to the same semantic field, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and often used together so that their denotative meanings render **contradictory** or **contrary** notions. Contradictory notions mentioned here are mutually opposed and mutually exclusive, as *alive* is the opposition of *dead*. Contrary notions, on the other hand, imply a gradation of meaning, so *old* and *young*, *hot* and *cold* are but the most distant elements in a series of intermediate stages like *elderly*, *middle-aged*; *cool*, *lukewarm*, etc. On the other hand, even an absolute opposition could be made gradable for stylistic purposes (e.g. more *dead* than *alive*).

Another classification of antonyms is based on a morphological approach, dividing them into **absolute** antonyms which are completely different in their sound-form (*right* – *wrong*, *kind* – *cruel*), and **derivational** antonyms with phonemically identical root-morphemes, distinguished by presence or absence of a negative affix (*happy* – *unhappy*, *kind* – *unkind*).

Antonyms are widely used as an expressive means in literature and colloquial speech. Their juxtaposition in contrastive pairs serves to express or emphasize emotional tension.

Antonymy in general shares many features typical of synonymy. Like synonyms, perfect antonyms are rare, and both are often restricted to certain contexts: thus *thick* is only one of the possible antonyms of *thin*, used when describing objects (e.g. *a thin/thick slice of bread*); when applied to persons, its antonym is *fat*. Thus we could speak of contextual antonyms.

Unlike synonyms, antonyms do not differ either in style, emotional colouring or distribution. Antonymic pairs are interchangeable – at least in some contexts. This is especially obvious if a pair of antonyms is used side by side: *I know as much, or as little, as you*. In other cases, the whole

sentence receives an opposite meaning if a word is replaced by an antonym: *This is very wise – This is very foolish.*

In dealing with antonymic oppositions, it may be helpful to regard antonyms in terms of marked and unmarked members. unmarked member of the opposition usually has a more abstract or generalized denotational meaning which may include referents of the marked member. In the antonymic pair *old – young* the unmarked member seems to be old, as it is possible to ask *How old is the baby?* without implying that the baby is old. In the pair *narrow – wide*, *wide* seems to be unmarked, in *big – small* it is *big*, etc. Semantic analysis of these adjectives shows that *old*, *big*, *long*, *wide* and others possess a more generalized semantic meaning than their antonyms. The corresponding semantic element may be described as ‘presence’ and comes to the fore when the adjectives used to denote the exact size, age, etc.: *three months old (not three months young)*, *twenty metres long (not twenty metres short)*, etc.

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives, which is only since their qualitative characteristics could be easily contrasted: *high – low*, *wide – narrow*, *strong – weak*, *friendly – hostile*, etc. Verbs occupy the second place as far as antonymy is concerned: *lose – find*, *open – close*, *weep – laugh*, etc., followed by nouns: *joy – grief*, *love – hatred*, etc. Antonymic adverbs are either derived from adjectives: *warmly – coldly*, *loudly – softly*, etc., or imply time or space relations: *now – then*, *here – there*, *ever – never*, *up – down*, *in – out*.

Derivative antonyms are mostly restricted to definite patterns: *appear – disappear*, *logical – illogical*, *prewar – postwar*, *useful – useless*, where negative prefixes prevail: *dis-*, *in-* (with allomorphs), *non-* and *un-*, and suffixes are rare: *-ful* and *-less* are about the only contrastive pair of suffixes so used.

Antonyms should be distinguished from **conversives** which describe the same situation as seen from different points of view, and therefore not antagonistic but complementary in meaning: *buy – sell*, *parent – child*, *left – right*, etc., with an obvious place or role reversal. The substitution of one converse by another does not change the meaning of a sentence if other necessary changes are made, and logico-grammatical relations are taken into account: *He is my child – I am his parent*, *He is to the left of me – I am to the right of him*, *I bought flowers – I was sold flowers*.

Conversives are sometimes put into the same class with antonyms, or regarded as a subset of antonyms, or grouped together with antonyms under the name of contrastives. Although there is some parallelism between the two relations, it seems more logical to keep them apart. Unlike antonyms, several words display both the characteristics of a converse pair, active and passive, as parts of the same semantic structure. Thus *sad* is both *saddened* and *saddening*, *tire* implies both *tiring* and *tired*, *sell* is active in *I sell books* and passive (more precisely mediopassive or middle voice) in *The book sells well*. In Russian, as in a number of other languages, there are two converse verbs for the action of *marrying* – one for the woman and one for the man. The English verb, however, applies equally well to both participants.

Оборудование и материалы: ноутбук, проектор, доска.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. Intralinguistic relations of words.
2. Provide the classification of lexical groups in English.
3. What is a thematic group?

4. What is a semantic field?
5. Explain the terms: hyponym and hyperonym.
6. What is homonymy? What are the factors contributing to the great number of homonyms in English?
7. Various classifications of homonyms.
8. What are synonyms? What semantic relations are synonyms characterized by?
9. According to what principles are synonyms classified? What are the main types of synonyms?
10. What is meant by the synonymic dominant?
11. What do we call antonyms? What structural types of antonyms do you know? What semantic types of antonyms do you know?
12. What is the difference between: a) contradictories and contraries; b) contradictories and incompatibles?

Задания

1. Organize the given words according to their hyponymic relations. Enumerate the general terms (hyperonyms)

- 1) Train, light lorry, bicycle, vehicle, cabriolet, car, heavy lorry, estate car, motorcycle, buss, lorry, three-door hatchback, three-way dump truck.
- 2) Turtle, mammal, squirrel, animal, reptile, seal, tiger, lizard, leopard, fox, wolf, iguana, bear, snake, feline, panther.

2. Arrange the following units into two lexical and two terminological sets. Give them corresponding names.

Detached house, wire-haired fox terrier, climbing robe, bull terrier, disk, horse (vaulting horse), hardware, multi-storey block of flats, monitor, terraced house, Scottish terrier, mainframe, trampoline, interface, Bedlington terrier, floor, high-rise block of flats, landing mat, Pekinese, asymmetric bars, software, weekend house, springboard, server, cottage, beam, semi-detached house.

3. Arrange the following units into three semantic fields - feelings, parts of the body, education.

Academy, affection, arm, back, belly, body, brow, calf, calmness, cheek, chest, classes, classmate, coaching, college, contempt, contentment, correspondence, course, curriculum, day-student, delight, don, drill, ear, education, elbow, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, envy, erudition, excitement, exercise, exhilaration, eye, face, faculty, finger, foot, forehead, frustration, grammar, hair, hand, happiness, head, headmaster, heel, homework, ignorance, impatience, indifference, indignation, instruction, jealousy, joint, kindness, knee, knowledge, knuckle, learning, lecturer, leg, limb, love, malice, master, neck, nose, passion, pedagogy, primer, rapture, relief, restlessness, satisfaction, scholar, science, temple, tenderness, textbook, tight, thrill, thumb, toe, torso, tutor, undergraduate, university, unrest, waist, wrath.

4. Put the following words into thematic groups according to their contextual associations:

air, challenger, transaction, championship, classification, profit, dig, flower, globalisation, garden, green, marketing, grow, juice, competitive, jump, language, match, preconditions, meaning, outrun, restructuring, overrun, participate, diversifier, principles, race sports, bargaining, system, water, weed, ward, relaunch.

5. Classify the following words into logical groups comprising the general and the particular.

animal, asparagus, beet, building, bull, bungalow, bush, cabbage, carrot, cat, cottage, dog, flower, football, grass, horse, mansion, plant, polo, sport, tennis, tree, villa.

6. Read the sentences in which the polysemantic word *simple* is used. Give all the lexico-semantic variants constituting the semantic structure of this word. Check yourself by a dictionary.

1. The book tries to give *simple* explanations of some very complex scientific ideas.
2. Sally like clothes that are *simple* but elegant.
3. The *simple* fact is that he wants to divorce.
4. Archeologists found several *simple* tools at the site. A knife is a *simple* tool.
5. Her grandparents were *simple* people who never had much money. I'm just a *simple* farmer.
6. You may be joking but she's *simple* enough to believe you.
7. I'm afraid old Jack is a bit *simple*.

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

Made (adj) – maid (n), row (n) – row (n), week (n) – weak (adj), tear (v) – tear (n), bread (n) – bred (adj), band (n) – band (n), sum (n) – some (prn), wind (n) – wind (v), base (n) – base (v), desert (n) – desert (v), hare (n) – hair (n), sewer (n) sewer (n)

8. Find the homonyms proper for the following words. Explain their meaning:

Seal - a sea fish-eating animal, *ear* - the part of a cereal plant, *cut* - the result of cutting, *bore* - to make a long round hole, *corn* - a hard thickening of the skin, especially on the foot, *fall* - the act of falling, *draw* - something that attracts attention, *bank* - the sloping side of the ground, especially when bordering a river, *spring* -jump.

9. Find the homophones for the following words. Explain their meaning:

Heir, dye, cent, tale, sea, week, peace, sun, meet, steel, knight, sum, coarse, write, sight, hare.

10. Find the homographs for the following words. Explain their meaning:

To bow - to bend the head or body, *to wind* - to turn some object around, *to tear* -to pull apart by force, *to desert* - to leave a person or place, *row* - some persons or objects in a line.

11. Transcribe the following homographs and translate them:

desert, desert; minute, minute; tear, tear.

12. Classify homonyms according to A.I. Smirnitskiy's classification:

ball (бал) - ball (мяч), left (левый) - left (оставил), light (свет) - light (светлый), page (паж) - page (страница), rose (поднялся) - rose (роза), bound (обязанный) - bound (ограничивать), bear (вынести) - bear (медведь), to can (консервировать) - can (мочь).

13. Fill in the blanks choosing the right word.

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

14. Read the following jokes and say what linguistic phenomenon they are based on.

1. A Scotchman was going on an excursion to New York. He handed the agent a ten-dollar bill as the agent called "Change at Jersey City". " No jokes now - I want my change right away," said the frightened Scotchman.

2. She: Now that we're engaged, dear, you'll give me a ring, won't you ? He: Yes, dear, certainly. What's your telephone number ?

3. "When rain falls, does it ever get up again?" "Yes, in dew time!"

4. "What's the difference between soldiers and girls?" "The soldier faces powder. Girls powder faces".

15. Give meanings of the following synonyms. State the difference in the connotational aspect of their meaning.

Model: *love – worship*

Love – an intense feeling of deep affection

Worship – the feeling of profound reverence
and strong adoration

Emotive charge and

expressiveness (intensity)

are different

confidence – assurance, to satisfy – to delight, to create – to manufacture, to blush – to redden

16. Define the suggested synonyms and find the elements of opposition in them:

To shake - to tremble - to shiver - to shudder, smell - scent - odor - aroma, to walk - to stroll - to saunter - to wander, to want - to wish - to desire, weak - feeble - frail - fragile, to jump - to leap - to spring - to skip - to hop, pain - ache - pang - twinge, to discuss - to argue - to debate - to dispute, dim - dusky - obscure.

17. Find the dominant synonym in the suggested synonymic sets:

To tremble - to shake - to shiver, smell - scent — aroma - odor, to stroll - to walk - to wander, to wish - to desire - to want, large - big - great, to jump – to leap - to hop, to argue - to discuss - to debate - to dispute, furious - enraged - angry, lonely - alone - solitary, to weep - to sob - to cry, to glare - to stare - to look - to gaze – to peep, to like - to love - to admire, to brood – to reflect – to mediate – to think, strange - quaint – add – queer, terror – fear – horror, to flash – to gleam – to sparkle – to blaze – to shine, display - demonstrate – exhibit – show – indicate – manifest – reveal, demand – question – ask – inquire - interrogate.

18. Match the euphemisms on the left, which have been used in government and business, with the plain English versions on the right.

1. Sufferer from fictitious disorder syndrome

A. Stolen goods

2. Sub-optimal

B. Junkyard

3. Temporarily displaced inventory

C Plastic

4. Negative gain in test scores

D. Bag of ice cubes

5. Synthetic glass

E. Bribe

6. Normal gratitude

F. Death

7. Vegetarian leather

G. Liar

8. Thermal therapy kit

H. Vinyl

9. Substantive negative outcome

I. Failed

10. Reutilization marketing yard

J. Lower test scores

19. Find synonyms corresponding to the following words:

Cordial, to moan, homeland, city, stool, to begin, the dead, to perspire

20. Find antonyms to the given words.

to like –

meaningless –

sympathy –

after –

progress –

dim –

failure –

to fasten –

successful –

something –

right –

husband –

flexible –

exclude –

conceal –
somewhere –

slow - fast, post-war - pre-war, happiness - unhappiness, above - below, asleep awake, appear - disappear, late - early, ugly - beautiful, distraction - attraction, spend – save.

Model: *arid – awash*

Poetry – prose, inch – foot, man – woman, old – young, beautiful – ugly, Monday – Sunday, teacher – pupil, to adore – to loathe, one – thousand, tremendous – tiny, iron – copper, to accept – to reject, round – square, creditor – debtor, immaculate – filthy, boy – man, day – night, clever – stupid, red – brown, inside – outside, open – shut, November – March, evil – good.

Just, justice, use (adj), use (n), fortunate, fortune, grateful, gratitude, like (v), like (adj), movable, related, relative, complete (v), arrange (v), possible (adj).

1. He who likes borrowing likes paying.
2. Promise little but do much.
3. Speech is silver but silence is gold.

Тема 7. Грамматические классы слов в английском языке.

Знания и умения, приобретаемые студентом в результате освоения темы и формируемые компетенции:

ОПК-1 - способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях.

В результате подготовки к лабораторным занятиям студент должен:

знать:

возможные варианты решения задачи, оценивая их достоинства и недостатки; основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии; особенности передачи семантической информации, стилистическую и культурную коннотацию языковых единиц, используемых в устной и письменной коммуникации.

уметь:

находить и критически анализировать информацию, необходимую для решения поставленной задачи; аргументировано формировать собственные суждения и оценки;

интерпретировать основные проявления взаимосвязи языковых уровней и взаимоотношения подсистем языка; интерпретировать коммуникативные цели высказывания, выявлять релевантную информацию, адекватно идентифицировать принадлежность высказывания к официальному, нейтральному и неофициальному регистрам общения

владеть:

навыками критического анализа информации;

навыками применения понятийного аппарата изучаемой дисциплины с учетом основных особенностей научного стиля в устной и письменной речи;

навыками использования лексико-грамматических и фонетических средств организации целого текста с соблюдением семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями устного и /или письменного высказывания.

Актуальность темы: важность формирования у студентов знаний о грамматических классах слов в английском языке.

Организационная форма занятия: собеседование, целью которого является повышение интенсивности и эффективности процесса восприятия за счет активного включения обучаемых в коллективный поиск истины.

Теоретическая часть:

1. Principles of grammatical classification of words

The distribution of word units into classes described in grammars as parts of speech is one of most widely discussed problems in English. So far there remain a number of unsolved problems: 1) the cardinal specifies of a part of speech foundation; 2) the number of parts of speech; 3) the role of syntax in morphological representation of the part of speech.

As far as it is concerned the very term parts of speech is subjected to more criticism as it contradicted the established division into language and speech. It morphology modifies the language paradigmatic foundation, speech reveals its dynamic nature in syntagmatics. The parts of speech as a phenomenon of morphology offered just a paradigmatic structures. In this respect the term “parts of speech” somewhat contradicts itself. Though in a language like English where the hypnosis of morphological forms in taken away as to their inflexion stock scarcity a word unit may be a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, etc. without changing its morphological structure.

He has no equal (n)

On equal terms (adj)

We equal the rights (v)

Dress them equal (adv)

The position of the word in the sentence affects its morphological reference and permits of revealing the paradigm of the verb, noun, adverb, etc. The very reference of a word to a part of

speech turns out to be the function of its syntactic employment. The function comes a secondary phenomenon, the syntactic position being primary.

Grammarians long ago recognized the fact that there must be different kinds of words, according to the positions they can fill and the functions they can perform in various structures; the name “parts of speech” was given to these various types of words. An adequate definition of parts of speech must naturally proceed from a set of criteria that can be consistently applied to all lexical units of a given language. We cannot, for instance, use only “lexical meaning” as the basis for the definition of some word-classes, “function in the sentence” for others, and “formal characteristics” for still others.

Parts of speech must be defined as lexico-grammatical word-classes which differ in their grammatical meaning and forms, word-making devices and functions in the sentence. In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: “semantic”, “formal”, “functional”. The semantic criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized meaning, which is characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the “categorical meaning of the part of speech”. The formal criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech.

2. Classes of words in English

In accord with the traditional criteria of meaning, form and function, words on the upper level of classification are divided into notional and functional.

In English to the notional parts of speech are usually referred the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb. The notional parts of speech are the words of complete nominative value; in the utterance they fulfil self-dependent functions of naming and denoting things, phenomena, and their substantial properties. Opposed to the notional parts of speech are the functional words which are words of incomplete nominative value, but of absolutely essential grammatical value. In the utterance they serve as all sorts of mediators. They are: the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection.

It must be emphasized that the difference between notional words and functional ones is often not so much a matter of form as of content. In semantic term, function words are known to be weak and very general. Considered in form, they sometimes coincide with notional parts of speech. Compare the verb *get*, *go*, *grow* in the following patterns: *to get a letter*, *to go home*, *to go bad*, *to grow potatoes*, *to grow dark*.

The boy says that the guests did arrive.

Grammatical (functional) words which play so large part in English grammar are for the most part sharply and different from the lexical words. But you can't say that “the” is less meaningful than “boy”.

The syntactic classification of words is based on syntactic featuring of words only. The syntactic classification of words, in principle, supplements the three-criterion classification specifying the syntactic features of parts of speech. In English the syntactico-distributional classification of words was worked out by L. Bloomfield and his followers Z. Harris and Ch.P. Fries.

The syntactico-distributional classification of words is based on the study of their combinability by means of substitution tests. As a result of this testing, a standard model of four main syntactic positions of notional words was built up. These positions are those of the noun, verb,

adjective and adverb. Pronouns are included into the corresponding positional classes as their substitutes. Words incapable to occupy the said main syntactic positions are treated as functional words. Grammatical categories identifying the parts of speech are known to be expressed in paradigms. We generally distinguish inflectional and analytical types of the paradigm. In the former the invariable part is the stem, in the latter the lexical element of the paradigm. The so-called interparadigmatic homonymy resulting from the fact that the root, the stem and the grammatical form of the word may be identical in sound is most frequent.

The evaluation of the differential features of both cited classifications allows us to work out a classification of the lexicon presenting some essential generalizations about its structure. The semantico-grammatical analysis of the lexicon shows that it is explicitly divided into two parts: the notional words (lexical words) and functional words. The open character of the notional part and the closed character of the functional part have the status of a formal grammatical feature. Between these two parts there is an intermediary field of semi-functional words. The unity of the notional lexemes, as well as their division into four infinitely large classes is demonstrated in the inner-class system of derivation. This inner class system of derivation is presented as a four-stage series permitting the lexicon. It has been given the name of “Lexical paradigm of nomination”. For example: *fancy – to fancy – fanciful – fancifully*. As the initial position in a particular nomination paradigm can be occupied by a lexeme of any word class, one can define the concrete “derivational perspective” of the given series in accord with a part of speech status of the constituent in the initial position.

Thus, in the following paradigm of nomination the derivational perspective is verbal (V→): *to decide – decision – decisive – decisively*

The universal character of the nomination paradigm is sustained by suppletivity, both lexemic and phrasemic, e.g. *an end – to end – final – finally* (lexemic), *gratitude – grateful – gratefully – to express gratitude* (phrasemic).

The lexical paradigm of nomination has a parallel substitutional representation: *one, it, they... – to do, to make, to act... – such, same, similar... – thus, so, there*.

In consequence of the identification of the said pronominal paradigm representation, the functional part of the lexicon is to be divided in two sets: first, the pronominal; second the functional proper or “specifier”. Thus, the general classification of the lexicon, not denying or in any such depreciating the merits of their classification, but rather deriving its essential propositions from their positive data is to be presented in a such outline:

The whole of the lexicon is divided into three layers.

1. The first, the upper layer, having an open character, is formed by four classes of notional words; since these words have nominative value, they may be referred to as “names”: respectively, substance – names (noun), process-names (verbs), primary property names (adjectives), secondary property names (adverbs). The names are consolidated into an integral system by the lexical paradigm of nomination – the paradigmatic series whose function is to form and distribute any given word not among the four lexical class –types (parts of speech).

2. The second, intermediate layer, having closed character is formed by pronominal words or “substitutes of names”; here belong pronouns and replacer lexemes of all kinds, words of broad meaning (thing, matter) and also numbers.

3. The third, the lower layer, having a closed character, is formed by functional words proper, or “specifiers of names”: determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, etc.

The function of the second and the third layers within the framework of their specifying role is to organize together with the categorical means of grammar, the production of speech utterances out of the direct naming means of language (the first layer).

7.2. Имя существительное и артикль в английском языке

1. The noun

Nouns are the largest class of words. They denote classes and categories of things in the world, including people, animals, inanimate things, places, events, qualities and states. For example, *accident, cat, club, competition, conscience, garage, soldier, pride, James, Paris* are nouns.

Nouns are not usually identifiable by their form. However, there are common derivational suffixes which may enable words to be recognised as nouns.

Nouns differ in their types of meaning, for example **common nouns** (e.g. *table, boy* and most nouns) versus **proper names** (e.g. *Joanna, New York*), or **concrete nouns** (*cup, bus*) versus **abstract nouns** (*love, beauty*).

The major grammatical distinction in English nouns is between countable nouns and uncountable nouns. English treats some things as units which can be counted and some things as indivisible wholes. Countable nouns refer to people and things which can be counted. Uncountable nouns refer to things which are treated as indivisible wholes which cannot be broken down in order to be counted:

countable *a dog – dogs, church – churches*

uncountable *butter, oil, advice, furniture, belongings*

The noun in Modern English has only two grammatical categories, number and case. The existence of case appears to be doubtful and has to be carefully analyzed. The existence of gender appears to be doubtful also. Nouns in English do not in themselves have masculine or feminine gender. They do, however, sometimes refer to male or female people or animals, or consist of a pair where one is used as the neutral term covering both sexes and the other is more marked. For example, *host – hostess, father – mother, widower – widow, dog – bitch* (where dog is the neutral term).

Category of number

Modern English, as most other languages, distinguishes between two numbers, singular and plural. Most nouns have a singular and plural form which can be distinguished by different inflectional endings. The most common plural form is *-(e)s*. For example, *cat–cats, wish–wishes*. Some nouns have irregular plurals, mainly because they reflect older English forms or are derived from foreign words. Examples of these are: *ox–oxen, alumnus–alumni*. For some nouns the singular and plural forms are the same (e.g. *sheep, series, deer*).

We must also consider here two types of nouns differing from all others in the way of number: they have not got the usual two number forms, but only one form. The nouns which have only plural and no singular are usually termed ‘pluralia tantum’ (which is the Latin for ‘plural only’), and those which have only a singular and no plural are termed ‘singularia tantum’ (the Latin for ‘singular only’).

Among the pluralia tantum are the nouns *trousers, scissors, lungs, pincers, breeches; environs, outskirts, dregs*. Close to this group of pluralia tantum nouns are also some names of sciences, e.g. *mathematics, physics, phonetics*, also *politics*, and some names of diseases, e.g. *measles, mumps, rickets*.

The direct opposite of pluralia tantum are the singularia tantum, i. e. the nouns which have no plural form. Among these we may first note some nouns denoting material substance, such as

milk, butter, quicksilver, etc., and also names of abstract notions, such as *peace, usefulness, incongruity*, etc. Nouns of this kind express notions which are, strictly speaking, outside the sphere of number: e. g. *milk*, or *fluency*. But in the morphological and syntactical system of the English language a noun cannot stand outside the category of number. If the noun is the subject of a sentence, the predicate verb (if it is in the present tense) will have to be either singular or plural. With the nouns just mentioned the predicate verb is always singular. This is practically the only external sign (alongside of the absence of a plural inflection in the noun) which definitely shows the noun to be singular.

Certain nouns denoting groups of human beings (*family, government, party, clergy*, etc.) and also of animals (*cattle, poultry*, etc.) can be used in two different ways: either they are taken to denote the group as a whole, and in that case they are treated as singulars, and usually termed 'collective nouns' (in a restricted sense of the term); or else they are taken to denote the group as consisting of a certain number of individual human beings (or animals), and in that case they are usually termed 'nouns of multitude'.

A pair of examples may briefly demonstrate the difference between the two applications of such nouns: *My family is small*, and *My family are good speakers*. It is quite obvious here that in the one sentence the characteristic 'small' applies to the family as a whole, while in the other sentence the characteristic 'good speakers' applies to every single member of the family ('everyone of them is a good speaker' is what is meant, but certainly not 'everyone of them is small'). The same consideration would also apply to such sentences as *The cattle were grazing in the field*. It is also quite possible to say *Many cattle were grazing in the field*, where the use of *many* (not *much*) clearly shows that *cattle* is apprehended as a plural. With the noun *people* the process seems to have gone further than with any other noun of this kind. There is, on the one hand, the noun *people*, singular, with its plural *peoples* (meaning 'nations'), and there is, on the other hand; the noun *people* apprehended as a plural (*There were fifty people in the hall*) and serving as a kind of plural to the noun *person* (*There was only one person in the hall*). *People* can of course be modified by the words *many* and *few* and by cardinal numerals (*twenty people*).

A peculiar view of the category of number was put forward by A. Isachenko. According to this view, the essential inclining of the category (in nouns) is not that of quantity, but of discreteness. The plural, in this view, expresses fundamentally the notion of something consisting of distinguishable parts, and the meaning of quantity in the usual sense would then appear to be a result of combining the fundamental meaning of the category as such with the lexical meaning of the noun used in the plural.

Category of case

The problem of case in Modern English nouns is one of the most vexed problems in English grammar. This can be seen from the fact that views on the subject differ widely. The most usual view is that English nouns have two cases: a common case (e. g. *father*) and a genitive (or possessive) case (e. g. *father's*). Side by side with this view there are a number of other views, which can be roughly classified into two main groups: (1) the number of cases in English is more than two, (2) there are no cases at all in English nouns.

Case is the category of a noun expressing relations between the thing denoted in the noun and other things, or properties, or actions, and manifested by some formal sign in the noun itself. This sign is almost always an inflection, and it may also be a 'zero' sign, i.e. the absence of any sign may be significant as distinguishing one particular case from another. It is obvious that the minimum number.

Different views have also been expressed concerning the scope of meaning of the -s. Besides phrases implying possession in the strict sense of the term (*my father's books*, etc.), the -s is also found in other contexts, such as *my father's friends*, *my father's arrival*, *my father's willingness*, etc. The question now arises how wide this scope may be. From this point of view it has been customary to point out that the relation expressed by the collocation - noun + -s + noun is often a subjective relation, as in *my father's arrival*: *my father's* expresses the subject of the action, cf. *my father arrives*. This would then correspond to the so-called subjective genitive of inflected languages, such as Russian or Latin. However, it is not true to say that the noun having the -s could never indicate the object of the action: cf. the example *Doughty's famous trial and execution*, where the implied meaning of course is, '*Doughty was tried and executed*'. This would correspond to the so-called objective genitive of inflected languages. Now, though this particular use would seem to be far less frequent than the subjective, it is by no means impossible or anomalous. Thus it would not be correct to formulate the meaning of the -s in a way that would exclude the possible objective applications of the -s-formation.

Parallel use of the -s-form and the preposition *of* is seen in the following example: *In the light of this it was Lyman's belief and it is mine – that it is a man's duty and the duty of his friends to see to it that his exit from this world, at least, shall be made with all possible dignity*.

Another view of the case system in English nouns must also be mentioned here, namely the view that we should distinguish between a nominative and an objective case, though there is no difference between the two in any English noun. Such a differentiation could only be based on the fact that personal pronouns (*I, he, she, we, they*) and the pronoun *who* have different forms for these cases (*I – me*, etc.). If, therefore, we start on the assumption that the system of cases is bound to be the same in these pronouns and in all nouns, we shall be led to acknowledge the two cases in nouns. However, there would seem to be no necessity to endorse this view. It is probably more advisable to consider the case system of nouns without taking into account that of the personal pronouns.

2. The article

The linguistic status of the English article

The article in Modern English is a very peculiar phenomenon which presents one of the most difficult and intricate problems of language structure. Grammarians disagree as to the grammatical status of the article in English. Among the various views on the essence of the English article the following three main questions might be mentioned:

1. Is the article a word or a morpheme?
2. Another question which has been long debated concerns the number of articles in Modern English.
3. There is also the problem of the meaning of each article.

Besides those already mentioned the problem whether the article is a separate part of speech or not is often debated among linguists.

The only thing grammarians are unanimous about is the grammatical function of the article – the article is used to signify a noun, it shows which word is a noun, e.g.

to play – a (the) play

to jump – a(the) jump

to light – a (the) light, etc.

Thus, the article may be defined as a noun-marker. But let us return to the first problem of the linguistic status of the English article. It has been solved in different ways by different linguists. It seems that there would always be some argument in favour of the article being a separate word,

and some argument to show that it is a morpheme. B.Ilyish does not think that this kind of approach with ready-made notions of what a word and what a morpheme is can be followed. Instead he suggests that we should first study the article as it actually exists and functions in the language, and only then see whether it will fit into any ready-made category.

With respect to the article we must state that there are languages which have no article at all. Here belong Russian and most other Slavonic languages, and Latin as well.

As far as its form is concerned, the English article is usually a separate unit which may be divided from its noun by other words, chiefly adjectives, e.g.

a very hot day;

the bright morning sun.

However, in certain languages the article may also be a morpheme attached to the noun as a kind of suffix. Thus, the two main views of the English article are, then, these:

1. The article is a word (possibly an auxiliary word (possibly an auxiliary word of the same kind as the auxiliary verbs). In this case the phrase “article + nouns” is a morphological formation similar to the formation “auxiliary verb + infinitive or participle”, which is an analytical form of the verb, e.g. *will write, is writing*, etc. If this view is accepted the collocation “article + noun” should be also treated as an analytical form of the noun.

2. The article is a form element in the system of the noun; it is thus a kind of morpheme. The absence of the article is accordingly referred to as “zero-morpheme”. The idea of “zero morpheme” has been applied in inflected languages to certain forms having no grammatical endings and differing by this very absence from other forms of the same word, which have each their individual ending. The notion of “zero morpheme” may also be applied in Modern English, for instance, to the singular form of nouns (*room, book*, etc.) as distinct from the plural form with its -s-inflection (*rooms, books*, etc.).

But this statement is open to question. It seems more in accordance with the nature of Modern English to identify the article as a typical morphological category, a special function-word used as an overt marker of the noun. It determines the “nounness” of the head-word and contributes to its meaning.

The number of articles in Modern English

Opinions differ as to the number of articles in English. All grammarians recognize the existence of the definite and the indefinite articles, since they both have an obvious material expression (the and a/an). The distinction thus is between, for instance, *the language* and *a language*. However, the noun *language* and indeed many other nouns, are also used without any article, as in the sentence *Language is a means of communication*. It is obvious that the absence of the article in this sentence is in itself a way of showing that *language is general* and not any specific language is meant. Hence we may say that there are three variants: 1) *the language*, 2) *a language*, 3) *language*. Now the question arises, how this third variant should be treated. The following views have been expressed:

1. The older grammatical tradition described it as “omission of the article”, which is obviously inadequate, since we cannot speak of the omission of the article in such cases where it has never been left out. We can speak of the omission of the article when it is dropped in newspaper headings (e.g. *Train saved by Boy*), in stage remarks (e.g. *Goes to table, picks up book*), in telegrams (e.g. *Wire definite answer*), in dictionaries, etc., where the omission of the article is due to conciseness of style and the definite or indefinite article may be easily inserted without affecting the meaning.

2. Another view is that we should describe this as “absence of the article”, and sometimes this notion is made more precise and the phenomenon is called “meaningful absence of article”. This view seems most appropriate as the article is not used before a noun in accordance with its semantics.

3. A third view, which has been gaining ground lately, is that the very absence of the article is a special kind of article – the zero article. According to this view, there would be three articles in English – the definite article, the indefinite article and the zero article. As has already been mentioned the idea of the zero article takes its origin in the notion of “zero morpheme”. In this case the article would be a form element in the system of the noun and there would be the definite, the indefinite and the zero form of the noun.

If, on the other hand, we take the article to be a word, the idea of a “zero word” would entail some difficulty. We will proceed on the assumption that the notion “zero article” is only possible if the article is not a word, but a morpheme. As shown above, the articles are not grammatical morphemes and their meanings are not relative. They are words, and the absence of a word cannot be regarded as a zero word. We do not speak of zero prepositions or zero particles. There is not more reason to speak of zero articles.

The meaning of the English articles

Besides those problems already mentioned, there is the problem of the meaning of each article: we must find out whether it has one or several meanings, each of them (appearing in a different context) signalled by the context. We can illustrate the problem by comparing the two sentences:

1. *The dog has come home*
2. *The dog is a domestic animal.*

Of course it is clearly seen that *the dog* in (1) means one individual dog, whereas *the dog* in (2) means the dog in general, as a zoological species. The question, then, is whether the article itself has two distinct meanings or whether the meaning of the definite article is the same in both cases and the difference in meaning between them depends on some other factors.

If we accept the first view (which is prevalent in English grammars in this country and abroad), we shall say that the definite article has at least two distinct meanings, namely: 1) it means that an object is singled out as a definite particular object from all objects of the same class and is therefore an individualizing (particularizing) or limiting article; 2) it means the whole class of objects taken as a type, genus and distinct from other classes, types, genera and is therefore termed “the generic article”.

If we endorse the second view, we shall say that the definite article has one meaning only, namely: that of something singled out from other entities. Now, whether the essence thus singled out is a separate object or a whole class depends not on the article at all but on the other elements in the sentence, usually on the type of predicate. According to this view, then, the meaning of the definite article itself is the same in both sentences, and the difference proceeds from the peculiarities of the predicates and the words expressing them. Compare: in (1) the predicate is *has come*, i.e. *come* in the Present Perfect; in (2) it is a compound nominal predicate *is an ... animal* where the link verb is in the present tense. All this gives a certain indication that the verb in the Present Perfect is more likely than not to express a concrete action (i.e. One that has taken place), while the group “link verb in the present tense + predicative” is very likely to express some general characteristic. These grammatical points are supported by some lexical points, which make the difference quite clear. In (1) the verb *come* and the adverb *home* denote a concrete physical action

and the place to which it is directed, while in (2) the predicative *a domestic animal* denotes a zoological idea and thus points out that by *the dog* is meant not an individual dog but the whole genus.

And here the question naturally arises about the invariable meaning of the article, by which we mean, taking the view put forward by A.Isachenko, a stable element in its grammatical meaning that is always preserved irrespective of the context in which it occurs. It seems perfectly reasonable to say that the invariable grammatical meaning of the definite article is that of restriction and concretization. As a matter of fact, this element of meaning is preserved in all the variety of its uses. Examples are:

1. *This is the book I promised to lend you.*
2. *We stayed at the cottage of Mr. Brown.*
3. *Did you enjoy the play?*
4. *The violet is a lovely flower.*
5. *The Tories will not lift a finger to help the workers.*
6. *And suddenly the moon appeared, young and tender, floating on her back.*

If we adhere to this view (as it appears we should) we will say that there is no difference in the meaning of the definite article between the sentences *The dog has come home* and *The dog is a domestic animal*. The difference is accounted for by other factors, as have been mentioned above. It is obvious, however, that not everybody will accept the principle of the invariable, and in that case, the question of the meaning of the definite article will appear in a different light. The same may be said about the indefinite article. According to the first viewpoint all the meanings of the indefinite article may also be reduced to two: 1) the classifying use, subdivided into introductory and generalizing, and 2) the numerical use. The indefinite article is used as a classifying article to denote that the object is presented as belonging to a class of similar objects without its individual peculiarities, e.g. *A little bird perched on the tree. He is a worker.* It is introductory when it introduces a new object, e.g. *Give me a pencil.* The indefinite article is generalizing when the noun represents a whole class, e.g. *An eagle is a very strong bird. A horse eats oats.* The indefinite article is used as a numerical article only in a few cases where it has preserved its original numerical meaning originated from the Old English *an (one)*, e.g. *Wait a minute. We'll stay here a day or two.* All the other uses of the indefinite article may be regarded as variants of these two main meanings (classifying and numerical). Naturally, the indefinite article with its meaning of *oneness* is not used with a "plural" noun. If, on the other hand, we accept the principle of the invariable, the indefinite article will be said to have the same meaning of indefiniteness irrespective of the context in which it occurs and the difference in meaning depends on some other factors (i.e. usually on the type of predicate). Example are: 1) *A stitch in time saves nine.* 2) *A bird may be known by its song.* 3) *A child can understand it.* 4) *My brother is a student.* 5) *There is a hill behind our house.* 6) *A hill is the opposite of a valley.* As can be seen from the above examples, the invariable element of indefiniteness is preserved in all the patterns. The difference in meaning will have to be sought in the particular type of predication in which the article appears. It must be stressed that if the principle of the invariable is not accepted the result of the analysis will be different. Which of the two views is the more convincing one? Both views seem to be defensible.

Now we will touch upon the difference in meaning between the definite and the indefinite articles. So let us take and compare the following two example: 1) *Give me a newspaper, please!* and 2) *Give me the newspaper, please!* This may indeed be called the difference between definite and indefinite in the usual sense of the words. The definite and the indefinite article as mutually

exclusive stand in obvious opposition which might be defined as that of “definiteness – indefiniteness”. However, this distinction will not apply to all cases and we will examine the sentences where the line of distinction is of another kind. Let us now take these two sentences *The curtain rose and a girl stepped out* and *The curtain rose and the girl stepped out*. It is clear that at the bottom of this distinction there is an opposition between “definite” and “indefinite”, however, another element has come in here. In the first example the attention of the listener is attracted to the fact that it was *a girl* (not a boy, an old man, etc.) who stepped out. In the second sentence the listener’s attention is drawn to the action of *stepping out*. Thus, the fact that it was *a girl* would be **new**, it would be the central point of the sentence. The central point in the second sentence would be that she *stepped out*. Now, this element of the sentence which is the central point may be said to correspond to the semantic predicate, or the rheme. Then the indefinite article, as opposed to the definite article in sentences of this kind, would be a means of expressing the semantic predicate of the sentence. How should we then define its meaning? We might say that the indefinite article expresses what is new, and the definite article expresses what is known already, or at least what is not presented as new. This opposition would then be superimposed on that of “definiteness – indefiniteness”.

Let us now see in what relation the absence of the article stands to the meanings of the definite and the indefinite article. The absence of the article with a noun in the plural or the use of the pronouns *some*, *any* corresponds to a certain extent to the indefinite article with that noun in the singular, whereas the absence of the article with a noun in the singular stands apart and does not correspond to anything in the plural. Cf.:

1. *My brother is a sailor. – My brothers are sailors.*
2. *I have read a novel by Thackeray. – I have read some novels by Thackeray.*

But

Language is a means of communication.

Water boils at 100° centigrade.

The absence of the article with a noun in the plural is the only possibility in sentences expressing general statements, such as, *Dogs are domestic animals*, but in the singular *The/A dog is a domestic animal*. The article is also absent in such sentences as, *Pencils, pens, and sheets of paper were littered all over the table*, where indefinitely large quantities are meant. Such would seem to be the main factors determining the use of the definite or indefinite article and the absence of the article.

Оборудование и материалы: ноутбук, проектор, доска.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. Enumerate the principles of grammatical classification of words.
2. What are the classes of words in English?
3. Explain the notion “lexical paradigm of nomination”.
4. What are general characteristics of the noun and its categories?
5. Enlighten the problem of article in English.
6. What are general characteristics of the noun?
7. Characterize the category of number.
8. How many cases does the English noun possess?
9. Characterize the English articles.

Задания

1. Determine the part of speech to which the words belong.

We have now to consider combinations of words, and here we shall find that though a substantive always remain a substantive, there is a certain scheme of subordination in connected speech which is analogous to the distribution of words into “parts of speech” without being entirely dependent on it.

2. Build up the lexical paradigm of nomination.

MODEL: high: high – height – heighten – highly (high)

- 1) fool, to criticize, slow, fast;
- 2) new, work, to fraud, out;
- 3) to cut, sleep, brief, hard;
- 4) down, beauty, to deceive, bright.

3. Identifying adjectives and adverbs

For the sentences below, underline all adjectives and circle all the adverbs.

- 1 They were cute invitations, weren't they?
- 2 That looks pretty good.
- 3 From a discussion of the meaning of 'wild boar'] Can it be farmed intensively or should it be reared extensively?
- 4 Here there are eight shared electrons; therefore methane is uncharged.
- 5 The initial objective is to identify areas within cities which exhibit distinctive characteristics and which can be shown to be relatively homogenous.
- 6 The Russian airline was also interested in starting a transatlantic service.
- 7 The drive that motivates distinctive individual behavioral patterns (personality) is to a considerable degree subconscious.

4. Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives

Some of the following adjectives use an inflectional comparative or superlative form (e.g. hotter/hottest); others use a phrasal construction (e.g. more/most useful). Underline the comparative or superlative form in each sentence. Determine whether each form is inflectional or phrasal.

1. They became more distinct.
2. My grandfather wanted to stay in the kitchen because it was warmest there and he was near everyone.
3. A storm of laughter arose and even the tiniest child joined in.
4. The espresso, in small cups, is dark and serious and packs a more powerful punch.
5. The plane ascends and descends at a shallower angle when horses are aboard.
6. As the test goes on, you're gonna get more and more tired.
7. Her eyes, between her bright, ironic smile, and her short, white-gray hair, seem tired, more deeply set in their sockets.
8. Sabina had never looked more lovely.
9. I've never seen May looking lovelier.
10. His reply was soon the property of every taxi-driver in Moscow, the most certain network in those days for news.

5. Formation of adjectives

Identify each adjective in the sentences below, and state how it was formed. Choose from the following:

- (a) participial form
- (b) derivational suffix
- (c) compounding (including compounds containing participial and derived forms)
- (d) simple form (i.e. not using any of the processes for forming new adjectives).

- 1 It is useful to review some of the major classifications of motivation theories.
- 2 Well in the beginning we kind of felt nervous.
- 3 It was, it was interesting.
- 4 The more cycles per second, the higher you go in the so-called spectrum of frequencies.
- 5 Earth trickled by the gap in the bank to the broken roots below.
- 6 With the lime juice, it [the drink] has a sort of pale greenish-yellowish, misty look.
- 7 Let's go somewhere you guys know that's good and cheap.

4. Formation of adverbs

The passage below describes a fictional train journey. Use it to find examples of the following forms of adverb. Some forms will have more than one example.

- (a) a compound adverb
- (b) an adverb derived from an adjective
- (c) an adverb like an adverbial particle (e.g. off)
- (d) a fixed phrase functioning as an adverb
- (e) a simple adverb (excluding type (c) above)
- (f) any other form of adverb.

Neither in the train to Kirkuk, nor in the Rest House at Mosul, nor last night on the train had she slept properly. Now, weary of lying wakeful in the hot stuffiness of her overheated compartment, she got up and peered out. Nothing to see, of course. Just a long, poor-lighted platform with loud furious altercations in Arabic going on somewhere. The train, with a terrific jerk, moved slowly forward.

6. The syntactic roles of adjectives

a) Use any English language materials that are available to you to find examples of adjectives in the following syntactic roles. Alternatively, if you do not have many English materials, you may make up an original example of your own.

b) In your examples, underline the adjective or adjective phrase that illustrates the role. An example is given to illustrate each category.

- 1 attributive

Waste generation and environmental pollution are visible consequences of any form of industrial activity. Your example:

- 2 subject predicative That's cool. Your example:

- 3 object predicative

If they find him innocent they won't be able to charge him. Your example:

- 4 postposed modifier

Don't watch anything scary before you go to bed. Your example:

- 5 noun phrase head

A modest effort was begun in some countries toward compensating women for the work they had always done for nothing: cooking, cleaning, taking care of children, the sick and the old. Your example:

- 6 (part of a) linking expression

I had no one else to go to when my parent was angry with me or when I felt unjustly treated. Equally important, my parent had no one with whom to discuss child rearing or domestic crises.

Your example:

7 free modifier

Silent with awe and pity I went to her bedside. Your example:

8 exclamation

A: ... and he and he got a scholarship so ... B: Fantastic! Your example:

8. Identifying the syntactic roles of adverbs

Match the adverbs to the correct description of its syntactic role.

- (a) adverb modifying an adjective
- (b) adverb modifying a noun phrase
- (c) adverb modifying a predeterminer
- (d) adverb modifying a prepositional phrase
- (e) adverb as a complement of a preposition
- (f) adverb standing alone
- (g) adverb modifying a measurement expression other than a numeral
- (h) adverb modifying another adverb
- (i) adverb modifying a pronoun
- (j) adverb modifying a particle of a phrasal verb
- (k) adverb modifying a numeral
- (l) adverb functioning as an adverbial.

1 You had the objectives right in front of you.

2 We have taken this event extremely seriously.

3 It did not seem odd to him that the subway held more compelling things than the famous city above.

4 Practically everyone knows the line, 'Play it again, Sam.'

5 Well, I think coming to the meeting is a pretty general requirement.

6 A: You can visit?

B: Absolutely.

7 For almost 200 years geologists have supported various theories of mountain building, volcanism, and other major phenomena of earth.

8 It [an answering machine] cut me right off.

9 Each of its workers gets a basic monthly wage of 360 pesos, almost twice the average pay.

10 So we'll give you a call later on or drop by and say hello. Until then, ciao!

11 'Is he often angry?' I asked.

12 Similar data are available for the approximately one-fourth of Shang characters that have been deciphered to date.

9. Semantic categories of adverbs

Each of these sentences comes from fiction, where adverbs often help give a story descriptive impact.

a) Underline each adverb in the sentences below and identify its semantic category: place, degree (amplifier/intensifier, diminisher/ downtoner), time, addition/restriction, manner, stance, linking, or other.

b) If you think an adverb combines two or more categories, or fits in an 'other' category, explain why.

- 1 They embraced lightly and carefully while Gwen made another set of little sounds.
- 2 It didn't really matter: everyone was insured when he bought a ticket, automatically.
- 3 Of course he understands perfectly well but wears that uncomprehending and pained look to establish he's not to blame.
- 4 Sometimes other people in the village glanced at him curiously, as though they could not quite place him.
- 5 The bank is so crowded nowadays that many people are moving away altogether.
- 6 We don't go there very much.
- 7 He tried to be offhand and not too obviously interested, but the fat boy hurried after him.
- 8 He too felt a mounting excitement.
- 9 Only the frightless gulls wheeled and soared and mewed their plaint over the place where it had been.
- 10 Hardly were we out of earshot, however, when Marcus said: 'I'm afraid I can't come with you this afternoon.
- 11 I felt he had some inner reserve of strength which no reverse, however serious, would break down.

10. State morphological composition of the following nouns

Snow	Impossibility	opinion	passer-by	inactivity
Kingdom	immobility	warmth	nurse	blackbird
merry-go-round	fortune	friendship	population	smelling-salt
sandstone	widower	exclamation	misunderstanding	
snowball	mother-in-law	might	succession	misdeed
policeman	usefulness	friend	statesman	fellow-worker

12. State whether the underlined nouns denote countable or uncountable objects

- 1 . The box is made of iron and has a tricky lock.
- 2 The fever within her was like a red-hot iron pressing upon her breast.
- 3 Montanelli took the hand and examined it closely. «Have they put irons on a fresh wound?»
4. There was a moon but it was still low in the sky. It gave sufficient light for Victoria.
5. He saw a light in one window on the ground floor.
6. The book gives much food for thought.
7. Health is a priceless possession.
8. Of all prosperity their respective healths naturally concerned them (the Forsytes) most.
9. The boys stood on the bank throwing stones into the river.
10. When I think of this, my heart turns to stone.

13. Build up the lexical paradigm of nomination.

MODEL: high: high – height – heighten – highly (high)

- 1) fool, to criticize, slow, fast;
- 2) new, work, to fraud, out;
- 3) to cut, sleep, brief, hard;
- 4) down, beauty, to deceive, bright.

Французский язык

Лабораторная работа1.

Тема: Периодизация истории языка и ее критерии; первые памятники письменности

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач

ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Периодизация истории языка и ее критерии;
2. Первые памятники письменности.
3. Происхождение и развитие французского языка.

Лабораторная работа2

Тема: Формы существования языка: литературный язык, национальные варианты и диалекты языка.

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач

ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Формы существования языка: литературный язык, национальные варианты и диалекты языка;
2. Исторический синтаксис.
3. Историческая лексикология

Лабораторная работа3.

Тема: Членение фразы на отдельные интонационные единицы. Паузы и их распределение в потоке речи

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач

ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Компоненты и функции интонации.
2. Членение фразы на отдельные интонационные единицы.
3. Паузы и их распределение в потоке речи

Лабораторная работа4.

Тема: Артикуляционная база языка и ее характерные особенности

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач

ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Понятие фонемы в различных фонологических школах.
2. Фонетическая база – совокупность артикуляторной и ритмической баз.
3. Понятие фоностилистики

Лабораторная работа 5

Тема: Грамматический строй языка. Соотношение морфологии и синтаксиса в работах отечественных и зарубежных авторов

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач

ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

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Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Предмет теоретической грамматики
2. Морфология в работах отечественных и зарубежных авторов
3. Синтаксис в работах отечественных и зарубежных авторов

Лабораторная работа 6.

Тема: Изменяемые части речи: существительное, прилагательное, глагол, числительное, местоимение. Их грамматические категории. Неизменяемые части речи: наречие, междометие. Классификация наречий по семантическим и морфологическим основаниям.

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

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ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Классификация частей речи.
2. Грамматическая категория.
3. Зависимость объема парадигмы от особенностей функционирования структурно-семантических разрядов данной части речи.

Лабораторная работа7.

Тема: Основные способы словообразования. Слова с разной структурой основы. Лексические и лексико-морфологические категории. Функционально-семантические категории.

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач

ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Типы слов. Полисемия и омонимия. Синонимия. Антонимия;
2. Способы словообразования;
3. Фразеологизмы. Типы словарей.

Испанский язык

Лабораторная работа1.

Тема 1. Основные законы исторического развития языка Периодизация истории испанского языка. Лингвистическая карта Пиренейского полуострова доримского периода.

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Четыре основных исторических периода в эволюции испанского языка.
2. Лингвистическая карта Пиренейского полуострова доримского периода.
3. Древние народы, населявшие Пиренейский полуостров: иберы, кельты, кельтоиберы, тартессы.
4. Народы колонисты: финикийцы, греки, карфагеняне, лигуры.
5. Влияние языков этих народов на становление испанского языка.

Теоретическая часть

Las raíces de la Historia de España se hunden en los tiempos prehistóricos, o al menos a esos tiempos hay que remontarse para encontrar a los primeros hombres que vivieron en la Península Ibérica. La idea de que en esta tierra vivieron seres humanos desde hace milenios se ha corroborado con los nuevos hallazgos de los arqueólogos en Atapuerca. La civilización de los hombres que vivieron en este territorio desde tiempo inmemorial evolucionó no solo por sus propios medios sino por la llegada de pueblos colonizadores que pudieron aportarles nuevos conocimientos. Los primeros fueron los celtas, procedentes del centro de Europa, y los fenicios y los griegos, procedentes del Este del Mediterráneo. Los fenicios comerciaron con algunos de los pueblos más antiguos que se conocen en la Península, en concreto con los tartesos. A esos primeros pueblos colonizadores les siguieron cartagineses y romanos. Estos últimos organizaron política y administrativamente el territorio, hasta que otro pueblo invasor, el visigodo, se hizo con el control de buena parte de la Península Ibérica y creó un reino.

Las raíces de lo que después sería España hay que buscarlas, pues, en momentos muy distintos de la historia de los hombres: prehistoria, protohistoria e historia antigua y medieval. Es importante conocer estos pueblos por sus aportaciones e influencia posterior, aunque la escasez de

la información ha promovido la polémica entre los historiadores acerca del papel que cada uno de esos pueblos pudo ejercer en la configuración de los futuros habitantes de España y Portugal.



La península Ibérica ocupa una posición singular, en la extremidad occidental del continente europeo. El carácter peninsular explica una historia condicionada por el mar, del que han llegado grandes influencias e intercambios culturales. Por otro lado, el aislamiento respecto al Norte de Europa causado por la frontera natural de los Pirineos, acondicionó una relativa separación entre la evolución en la Península Ibérica y la del resto de Europa. La Península, pues, forma parte de Europa, pero en una posición marginal, como territorio fronterizo entre dos continentes, una Europa y el Norte de África, formando un nexo entre los continentes africano y europeo. Otro condicionante es la doble influencia atlántica y mediterránea, que en distintas ocasiones hizo partícipe a la Península en los fenómenos hegemónicos procedentes del este y del oeste. Por ello la civilización española no suele seguir el mismo paso que la europea, siempre dejando un fuerte sello original en lo que hace. El apego a sus tradiciones ha hecho de España un país algo diferente de los demás europeos, que le ha creado su fama de pintoresco y “romántico” en sentido admirativo unas veces, otras en tono despectivo por su carácter primitivo. Hasta el descubrimiento de América, España fue extremo del mundo occidental adonde confluían en sus viajes de exploración comercial, de conquista o de migración los pueblos procedentes del norte, del sur y del este. El resultado fue la mezcla de razas y culturas con elementos nórdicos y africanos en mayor proporción y con mayor variedad racial que en los otros países europeos.

En cuanto a la geografía interior, estuvo determinada por un relieve complejo y un clima muy variable. La acción de los ríos, más caudalosos que en la actualidad, produjo la creación de terrazas fluviales que propiciarían la habitabilidad del hombre. Además, se ha demostrado que existió una actividad volcánica manifiesta, especialmente en dos zonas: en la actual provincia de Ciudad Real y en la de Gerona, en las cuales todavía quedan restos.

En lo que a clima se refiere, debió de cambiar al tiempo que se desarrollaban alternativamente los cuatro periodos glaciales y los tres interglaciares. Aunque las glaciaciones fueron diferentes entre sí, en general podría decirse que en la Meseta tendría un clima más extremo

y lluvioso que ahora, la costa cantábrica era mucho más fría y húmeda, y los pobladores de la zona andaluza gozarían de un clima algo más frío que el presente sur de Francia.

Si además tenemos en cuenta que la mayor actividad de los habitantes de Iberia consistía en la caza, cabe mencionar los cambios en la fauna ibérica en relación con los cambios climatológicos. En los periodos glaciales los animales característicos fueron el mamut, el rinoceronte lanudo y el reno, especies procedentes del centro y norte de Europa y que buscaban la relativa calidez de la península. Durante los periodos interglaciares, el elefante meridional, el elefante antiguo y el rinoceronte de Merck fueron los animales más abundantes. También existían otros animales que se mantuvieron indiferentemente de los cambios climáticos como: osos, lobos, caballos, bisontes, jabalíes, perros, ciervos y cabras.

Todos estos fenómenos han generado una variedad cultural, formas de vida y mentalidades que explican la diferenciación permanente de los distintos rincones del territorio.

Consecuencias geográficas que se derivan de ellas. Unidad y variedad

Las consecuencias de esta singularidad geográfica que se deriva de la posición y situación de España son múltiples:

- ☐ Contrastes litológicos, con tres zonas bien diferenciadas: silíceas, calizas y arcillosas.
- ☐ Contrastes geomorfológicos: macizos antiguos, montañas jóvenes, depresiones y llanuras litorales.
- ☐ Contrastes climáticos, con enormes diferencias de temperaturas y precipitaciones entre las distintas zonas y estaciones. Podemos distinguir tres zonas climáticas: o La mediterránea, que abarca casi toda la Península. o La oceánica, que afecta a la costa cantábrica. o La subtropical (Islas Canarias)
- ☐ Contrastes biogeográficos (fauna, flora, etc.), condicionados por el conjunto de diferencias apuntadas.
- ☐ Contrastes en los paisajes agrarios, dependientes de múltiples factores: clima, calidad de la tierra, agua disponible, etc.
- ☐ Contrastes de asentamiento de población, más denso en las costas que en el interior.

Esta situación contiene también elementos que han ayudado tanto al aislamiento de España como a su relación con el resto de Europa y el mundo.

Los elementos que más han contribuido al aislamiento son los siguientes:

a) La situación peninsular. Casi el 85% de la Península Ibérica (PI) está ocupada por España (el resto, por Portugal, Andorra y Gibraltar). Debemos considerar que una península tiene algo de espacio marginal, de añadido, con respecto al continente del que forma parte.

b) Además, el istmo que une la península al continente es una abrupta cadena montañosa, los Pirineos, de 435 km de longitud. Se trata de un conjunto de sierras que superan en su mayor parte los 2000 metros de altura y que culminan en el pico Aneto, de 3404. El conjunto es un murallón, que alcanza los 150 km. de altura en la zona central y que dificulta mucho las relaciones de la península con el resto de Europa.

c) La PI es el territorio continental más al sur y más al oeste de Europa. Resulta, por tanto, muy excéntrica respecto al continente europeo.

Por otra parte, también podemos señalar elementos de relación. Son los siguientes:

a) Puente euroafricano. El extremo sur peninsular sólo está separado de África por un brazo marino, el Estrecho de Gibraltar, de solo 13 km. de ancho. Esta cercanía, explica la continua

relación humana entre ambas orillas a lo largo de largo de la historia.

b) La fachada levantina de la PI ha sido importante zona de relación y contacto con el resto del Mediterráneo. En la Edad Antigua, Gibraltar era el fin del mundo conocido. Las costas mediterráneas fueron puertos de llegada para fenicios, griegos, cartagineses y romanos.

c) Desde comienzos de la Edad Moderna, la PI se convirtió en elemento principal de la navegación atlántica. El flujo natural de vientos y corrientes hace esta navegación muy favorable. Señalemos un dato: botellas abandonadas en el Canal de la Mancha lleguen a los diez meses a Canarias, a los tres años a las Antillas, y a los cuatro de su inicial partida vuelven a las costas de Europa occidental. Esto representa una velocidad de cinco millas al día. Así se explica que cuando comenzaron los viajes hacia América, durante siglos en barcos a vela, la PI fuera punto esencial de salida o de paso.

2. Las raíces de la España contemporánea

A lo largo del primer milenio antes de Cristo, llega a la Península una serie de pueblos cuya aportación técnica y cultural produciría un desarrollo importante de los pueblos autóctonos. Fruto de la fusión entre las diferentes culturas aparecen otras, cuyas manifestaciones artísticas alcanzaron un alto nivel.

Los fenicios fundaron ciudades en la costa mediterránea, entre las cuales destaca Cádiz. Son importantes sus necrópolis, en las que se ha encontrado, además de otros objetos, algunos sarcófagos antropomórficos emparentados con el mundo egipcio.

Los griegos aportaron su gran bagaje artístico y, más que en las escasas obras que nos han legado, su importancia radica en ser precursores del arte ibérico.

Los cartagineses conquistaron militarmente la mayor parte de la Península en el siglo IV antes de Cristo; posteriormente su imperio fue destruido por Roma tras las guerras púnicas. Transmitieron al arte peninsular influencias orientales, que pervivirían hasta la invasión romana.

Los celtas entraron por los Pirineos, se instalaron en el norte y oeste de la Península. Sus rasgos más peculiares son su organización tribal, la introducción de sus lenguas indoeuropeas, sus poblados fortificados, llamados castros, muy extendidos en Galicia, caracterizados por su localización en altos, las casas circulares y su fortificación y por la costumbre de incinerar los cadáveres y enterrarlos en vasijas cerámicas, ya que algunos de los pueblos invasores pertenecían a la cultura de los campos de urnas. Eran muy hábiles en la orfebrería.

Los iberos fueron pueblos autóctonos peninsulares. El nombre de iberos proviene del dado por los viajeros griegos a las gentes que vivían en las tierras por las que discurría el río que también ellos llamaban Iber (Ebro). Los pueblos iberos son principalmente los que viven en el levante y sur peninsular. Su cultura no es uniforme y los mismos griegos los diferencian repartiéndolos por el territorio y poniéndoles nombres como los ilergetas, los oretanos, los bastetanos, los turdetanos etc. Entre todos ellos destacaron los Tartessios por su mayor nivel de desarrollo cultural. La cultura ibérica se desarrolló entre los siglos VI y I antes de Cristo, y su mayor expresión artística la constituyen las esculturas monumentales en piedra, entre las que destacan la *Dama de Elche*, la *Dama de Baza* y la *Dama oferente*.

Los celtíberos: Con el tiempo, la evolución de los celtas hizo aparecer una cultura con personalidad propia, los celtibéricos, que se extienden por el centro peninsular. Eran ganaderos (esculturas de verracos). Su principal ciudad Numancia y su jefe Viriato figuran en páginas importantes de la historia por su resistencia a la invasión romana, ya en el siglo II a.C. El arte celtibérico nace de la fusión de las culturas ibera y celta, y se halla localizado en ambas mesetas.

Una muestra de este arte son los verracos o toros, cuyo ejemplo más importante es el grupo de los *Toros de Guisando* (Ávila).

Вопросы и задания

1. Extensión total de España
2. Entre qué dos paralelos se encuentra la España peninsular
3. Nombra las islas que forman el archipiélago Balear
4. ¿Cuál es el origen geomorfológico del archipiélago canario?
5. ¿Cuáles son los principales factores que influyen en el clima peninsular?
6. ¿Cuál es la altitud media de la península?
7. Nombra los principales ríos de la vertiente cantábrica (de oeste a este).
8. ¿Cuál es la densidad poblacional media de España?
9. Nombra las cuatro ciudades españolas mayores, con su número de habitantes.
10. Nombra las provincias que tienen costa al mediterráneo (de norte a sur)
11. Nombra las provincias de Castilla La Mancha.
12. Nombra las Comunidades que destacan por sus recursos: Hidroeléctricos, mineros y ganaderos.
13. Cite algunos establecimientos fenicios en la Península Ibérica. Explique las causas de su llegada.
14. ¿Por dónde se extendía el reino de Tartessos? ¿Cómo fueron los tartessos?
15. ¿Qué se sabe del modo de vivir de los pueblos indígenas: iberos, celtas, celtíberos?

Лабораторная работа2.

Тема 2. Романизация полуострова. Становление кастильского диалекта; первые памятники письменности.

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. La conquista de la Península Ibérica por Roma.
2. El proceso de la romanización

Теоретическая часть

En este tema vamos a estudiar un periodo histórico de importancia trascendental para la Hispania antigua. Nos centraremos en la Hispania romana, su evolución y las transformaciones que se inician en el siglo III y que serán la clave para entender la Edad Media.

Se conoce como Hispania Romana a los territorios de la Península Ibérica durante el período histórico de dominación romana (218 a. C. a 476).

1. La conquista de la Península Ibérica por Roma

Los diversos pueblos que habitaban la Península seguían desarrollando sus formas de vida y de cultura propias, cuando, en el siglo III a. C., la rivalidad entre Roma y Cartago por el dominio del Mediterráneo, que dio lugar a las **guerras púnicas**, afectó de lleno a la Historia de la península incorporándose España al Mundo Romano.

En efecto, tras la **Primera Guerra Púnica**, que expulsó a los cartagineses de Sicilia, Cartago decidió extender su imperio en la Península Ibérica, de donde obtenía riquezas mineras y aguerridos combatientes, como plataforma para un nuevo enfrentamiento con Roma. Así, en el año 237 a.C., el cartaginés **Amílcar Barca** desembarca en Cádiz y somete a los pueblos del sur y sureste de la Península hasta Akra Leuke (Alicante). A su muerte, sus sucesores, Asdrúbal y Aníbal, continuaron con la labor de conquista. **Asdrúbal** fundó *Cartago Nova* (Cartagena), y al morir le sucedió **Aníbal**, hijo de Amílcar, quien decidió lanzarse a la lucha definitiva contra Roma. Explotando los enfrentamientos entre los pueblos que habitaban el interior peninsular logró atraérselos y luego conquistó Sagunto (219), ciudad protegida por Roma, que fue el pretexto para iniciar la **Segunda Guerra Púnica** (218-201 a.C.). Aquel momento en el año 218 a. C. un ejército romano, al mando de Escipión, entra en Hispania, desembarca en Ampurias, decidido a cortar la retaguardia a Aníbal. Así empezó la conquista de Hispania que duró hasta el 19 a.C. La conquista romana de Hispania no fue uniforme.

2. El proceso de la romanización

Bajo la dominación romana, Hispania fue objeto de varias **divisiones administrativas**. En el año 197 a.C., poco después del triunfo sobre los cartagineses, se hizo la primera división de la Península en dos provincias: Hispania Citerior e Hispania Ulterior. Octavio Augusto la reorganizó dividiendo en dos la Hispania Ulterior: **Bética** y **Lusitania** mientras la Citerior pasó a denominarse **Tarraconense**.



A comienzos del siglo III el emperador Caracalla creó la provincia de **Gallaecia**, a costa de la Tarraconense y, a principios del siglo IV, Diocleciano estableció una nueva provincia, la **Cartaginense**, separada también de la Tarraconense.

El concepto de **romanización**: integración plena de una sociedad determinada, en este caso la hispana, en el conjunto del mundo romano (economía, sociedad, cultura, religión). Por este proceso, los pueblos indígenas (iberos, celtiberos...) fueron asumiendo la cultura romana.

La **romanización** es un **momento clave de la historia cultural de los pueblos de la península**.

El proceso de romanización llegó a su máxima expresión cuando el emperador Caracalla en el siglo III extendió la **ciudadanía a todos los habitantes libres** del Imperio.

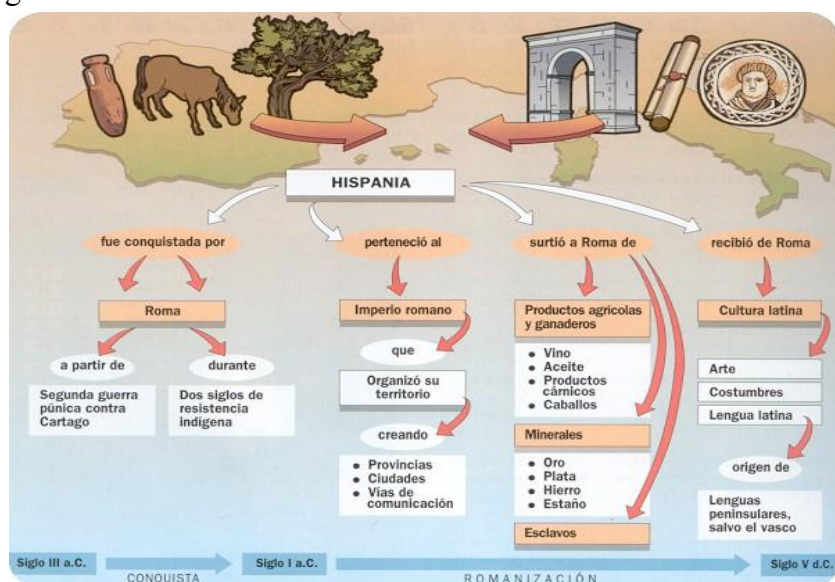
3. La sociedad hispanorromana

La sociedad hispanorromana del periodo republicano y de los primeros siglos del Imperio, etapa a la que se le llama **Alto Imperio**, puede definirse como “esclavista”, al poder diferenciarse entre hombres libres y esclavos. Otra fórmula es la de considerarla como una “**sociedad de órdenes**”, estructurada en órdenes cerrados, a los que se accedía por el nacimiento o por concesión imperial. El orden superior era el **senatorial**, un pequeño número de miembros de las familias más ilustres que residían normalmente en Roma; seguía el orden **ecuestre** o de los caballeros, con mayor presencia en Hispania, desempeñaban los cargos superiores en el ejército o en las provincias imperiales. El tercero en dignidad era el orden **decurional**, formado por los decuriones, que eran los miembros de las oligarquías municipales y desempeñaban las magistraturas de las colonias o los cargos inferiores del ejército.

Naturalmente, por debajo de estos tres órdenes se encontraba la mayor parte de la **población libre**, caracterizada por su diversidad ante la riqueza. Había, en efecto, pequeños propietarios de tierras, dueños de talleres artesanales, que trabajaban con la ayuda de su familia y un pequeño número de esclavos; empleados en las minas o en los servicios públicos o privados...

Los **esclavos** formaban la capa más baja de la sociedad hispanorromana. Procedían de otros territorios imperiales o de la propia Península. Estaban privados de derechos políticos o civiles y no podían, por ello, ser considerados como personas. Se les utilizaba como mano de obra en el trabajo agrícola, minero, artesanal y doméstico. El amo podía liberarle por medio de un acto de manumisión convirtiendo al antiguo esclavo en **liberto**, manteniendo diversas obligaciones (económicas o de respeto y ayuda) con respecto a su antiguo dueño.

Hispania fue importante fuente de explotación para los romanos. La producción agrícola y ganadera fue básica en la economía.



Gracias al proceso de romanización, España entra a formar parte del espacio cultural y artístico de Roma, aunque sin perder su propia personalidad. Fruto de esta mezcla es el arte hispano-romano. El arte romano es heredero del griego, al que añade un sentido de practicidad y grandiosidad.

Arquitectura:

- Obras de ingeniería: calzadas, puentes, presas, acueductos, planificación de ciudades, etc. Es decir, todo lo que constituye las infraestructuras necesarias para crear un espacio vital de calidad.
- Obras arquitectónicas: todos los edificios públicos que configuran las formas de vida de los ciudadanos. Aquí encontramos diferentes grupos: religiosos (templos), comerciales y judiciales (basílicas), para espectáculos (teatros, anfiteatros, circos), conmemorativos (arcos de triunfo), de solaz y esparcimiento (termas).

Escultura:

- La escultura religiosa sigue ligada a la tradición griega.
- En los retratos y en los relieves históricos se producen importantes innovaciones.

Pintura, mosaico y cerámica:

- Pintura mural muy desarrollada y de gran calidad técnica, pero de la que apenas quedan restos significativos.
- Los mosaicos que cubrían los pavimentos de mansiones importantes son reflejo de la gran calidad de la pintura.
- La cerámica tuvo un desarrollo grande y su producción se hizo industrial. Características más notables: color rojizo, vidriado, sello del alfar, característica a la que debe su denominación de *térrea sigillata*.

El arte paleocristiano es el realizado por los primitivos cristianos.

- Es deudor del arte romano, del que toma muchos modelos, adaptándolos a sus necesidades, sobre todo en la iconografía.
- Más tarde crean sus propios edificios, imágenes y símbolos.
- Las obras más representativas son los sarcófagos, en cuyos frentes se representan escenas bíblicas, fundamentalmente.

La **religión** romana, una adaptación de la griega, se impuso en poca medida a las autóctonas. No ocurrió lo mismo con el cristianismo, que se extendió por toda Hispania convirtiéndose en un nuevo vehículo de unificación cultural.

La romanización de Hispania no fue uniforme. En las montañas del norte cántabro-pirenaico fue muy débil lo que prueba la supervivencia del eusquera. Por el contrario La Bética fue la provincia más romanizada del imperio. Los emperadores Trajano y Adriano eran béticos, y algunos científicos y literatos notables del mundo romano también, como el cordobés Séneca y el gaditano Columela. El literato Quintiliano era de la Tarraconensis (de Calahorra).

Вопросы и задания

1. ¿Cuál fue la causa de la intervención romana en España?
2. Explique las fases de la conquista de España por los romanos?
3. ¿Qué es la romanización? ¿Cómo se realizó en la Península?
4. ¿Qué manifestaciones de la cultura romana se puede contemplar en la España contemporánea?
5. ¿Recuerda las repercusiones de la crisis del siglo III en Hispania?

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5. Ward Perkins, J. B. (1989). *Arquitectura romana*. Madrid: Aguilar.

Fuentes electrónicas:

http://www.españaescultura.es/es/estilos/hispania_romana/

<http://civycultura.denison.edu/artes/roma/intro.html>

Web: Museo Nacional de Arte Romano.

<http://museoarteromano.mcu.es/> - permite realizar una vista virtual por las diferentes salas del museo. Contiene imágenes, textos y numerosos enlaces a otros sitios de Internet relacionados con la Hispania romana.

<http://www.man.es/man/home.html> - página del Museo arqueológico nacional de España.

Лабораторная работа3

Тема 3. Fonología. El sistema fonológico del español

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Fonética y Fonología.

1.1. Lengua y habla. Significado y significante.

2. Objeto y tareas de la Fonología. Conceptos básicos de la Fonología.

2.1. Teoría del fonema.

2.2. El sistema fonológico de la lengua española.

2.3. Fonémas y letras

Теоретическая часть

Este tema de *Fonética y Fonología de la Lengua Española* es el primero que se dedica a uno de los niveles de la descripción de la Lengua española: el fónico. El objetivo general de la conferencia es conocer el sistema fonológico del español y sus realizaciones principales en el habla española. Pero su conocimiento lleva también aparejado el estudio de algunas nociones imprescindibles de lingüística general; el aparato fonador, por ser en él donde se forman los sonidos del lenguaje.

1. La Fonética y la Fonología estudian los sonidos, pero con fines diferentes. Los sonidos reales que se pueden producir con órganos de articulación son variadísimos y muy numerosos, puesto que son

muy numerosas y variadas las posiciones posibles de dichos órganos. Pero, en práctica, cada idioma posee una serie limitada de “sonidos ideales” aceptados por todos para su uso en el habla. El sistema de los sonidos ideales pertenece a la lengua y es objeto de un estudio especial de la Filología. La Fonética establece el repertorio de los sonidos reales del habla y describe las particularidades y las más pequeñas diferencias articulatorias perceptibles del hablante. Distinguen, por ejemplo, en español dos realizaciones de *b* (rumbo – robo) por sus particularidades articulatorias; en el primer caso, es labial oclusivo, y en el segundo, los labios solo se aproximan, es fricativo. Por su articulación, son sonidos diferentes, pero ambos se corresponden con el mismo modelo mental que tienen los hablantes del español. Decimos entonces que se trata de un mismo fonema de manifestaciones diversas. El sonido ideal, reconocido por todos como único, aunque ejecutado de distintas maneras, se llama *fonema*, y las distintas maneras de ejecutarlo se llaman *variantes* de ese fonema. Los sonidos ideales o fonemas se representan entre barras oblicuas: /b/, /d/, /e/, etc.; mientras que los sonidos reales se representan entre corchetes: [b], [d], [e], etc.

La Fonología es una disciplina relativamente reciente en el mundo occidental. La Fonología como nueva ciencia, en oposición a la antigua (Fonética) comenzó a desarrollarse en la segunda década del s.XX, con los trabajos de Jan Boudouin de Courtenay cuyas ideas fueron acogidas por el famoso lingüista Ferdinand de Saussure. La denominación Fonología se debe al lingüista R. Jakobson, quien la propuso por primera vez en un estudio sobre el verso checo que apareció en Berlín. El campo de acción de la Fonología es el sistema de la lengua. La Fonología se basa en la conciencia vigente en la comunidad, en lo que sus individuos creen pronunciar cuando hablan. También se la denomina **Fonética Funcional**.

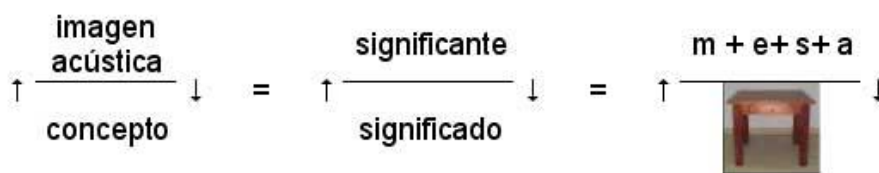
La Fonética es una disciplina lingüística que estudia los sonidos del lenguaje pero en su aspecto articulatorio, es decir, producción fisiológica del sonido humano, acústico, o sea, estructura física del sonido y auditivo, percepción del sonido. Se remite al plano del hablar concreto y determina lo que es habitual o común en la pronunciación de una lengua, dentro de un determinado ámbito geográfico y desde el punto de vista fisiológico, físico y perceptual de esta pronunciación. Para ello está estrechamente relacionada con tales disciplinas como la Geografía, Lingüística, Sociolingüística, Etnolingüística y otras. La Fonética toma en consideración todos los rasgos físico-fisiológicos del sonido, para lo cual suele apoyarse en la más variada gama de instrumentos de precisión y no establece ninguna consideración respecto a la función significativa de dichos rasgos. Sólo le interesa lo que se le presenta en el marco de la observación fónica. Su objeto es notablemente más extenso que el de la Fonología. Describe pronunciaciones, rasgos fisiológicos, acústicos, perceptuales, etc. que los hablantes no son capaces de descubrir sin la ayuda de un instrumento científico adecuado.

1.1. Lengua y habla. Significado y significante.

F. de Saussure consideró **el signo lingüístico** como un compuesto de un significado y un significante, que se interrelacionan como el haz y el envés de un todo indivisible.

$$\uparrow \frac{\text{significante}}{\text{significado}} \downarrow = \uparrow \frac{\text{expresión}}{\text{contenido}} \downarrow$$

La composición del signo como la suma de significante + significado (o también de expresión + contenido) se puede también expresar de la siguiente manera (Saussure, 1916):



Además del concepto de signo, hay que tener en cuenta la dicotomía saussureana de lengua / habla. El lenguaje tiene como finalidad principal la comunicación. Para que la haya debe existir un conjunto de signos con los que referirnos a la realidad extralingüística. En lingüística fue Saussure (1916) quien dotó de carácter científico al estudio del lenguaje. Definió la lengua como un sistema de signos arbitrarios. La obra que explica su teoría fue publicada por dos de sus alumnos (Ch. Bally y Sechehaye) con el nombre de Cours de Linguistique Generale. Su teoría se apoya en dos distinciones fundamentales **lengua** y **habla** que son dos aspectos de la facultad humana del lenguaje. La **lengua** es abstracta, social, independiente del individuo y el modelo que existe en la colectividad de los hablantes de una comunidad lingüística. El individuo no puede modificar su sistema supraindividual, interdependiente y estructurado, pero sí la comunidad. Es la faceta del lenguaje de la que se ocupa la lingüística directamente, un conjunto de normas abstractas que regulan los intercambios lingüísticos de una comunidad de hablantes. El **habla** es la parte individual de la lengua que incluye el acto de la fonación, es decir, que requiere de una actividad psicofísica. Es un soporte empírico de la lengua, la que le aporta datos reales de su uso, es decir, los actos concretos en los que se manifiesta ésta.

Lenguaje	LENGUA	- social
		- esencial
		- psíquica
	- sistemática,	- invariable
	- abstracta, valor puro	
	HABLA	- individual
		- accesorio
	- secuncadia,	- psicofísica
	- asistemática,	- variable
	- concreta, hecho material	

Si unimos los dos conceptos, obtenemos el siguiente esquema:

significante de la lengua FONOLÓGÍA

=

significado del habla FONÉTICA

De esta manera, hemos llegado a una distinción más precisa de Fonética y Fonología.

La Fonología trabaja en el plano del significante donde los rasgos distintivos se denominan fonemas. Los fonemas son, pues, los modelos mentales (o sonidos ideales) del sonido que caracterizan a cada lengua, aunque en el habla concreta aparecen realizados como sonidos diversos y se llaman variantes del mismo fonema. Para entender mejor, observemos la diferencia en los siguientes ejemplos.

La consonante nasal **ene** se puede pronunciar de muchas maneras distintas:

- la *ene* de *nata* se pronuncia con la lengua en los alveolos;
- la *ene* de *antes* se pronuncia con la lengua en la base de los dientes;
- la *ene* de *danza* se pronuncia con la lengua entre los dientes;

- la *ene* de *ancho* se pronuncia con la lengua en el paladar;
- la *ene* de *anca* se pronuncia con la lengua en el velo del paladar.

Todas esas enes son distintas, pero los hablantes no se dan cuenta, porque para ellos todas las enes son iguales. ¿Por qué? Porque todas ellas, a pesar de sus diferencias:

- a) tienen una serie de rasgos comunes.
- b) se oponen conjuntamente al resto de las consonantes (*cana* - *cama* - *caña*).

Cuando hablamos de ene como ese conjunto de rasgos comunes a todas las posibles realizaciones de ene, estamos hablando del fonema ene, que transcribimos entre barras: /n/

Cuando hablamos de cada una de las realizaciones articulatorias del fonema ene, estamos hablando del sonido ene, que transcribimos entre corchetes: [n].

Son fonemas y, no los sonidos, las unidades mínimas que se combinan para conformar el significante de las palabras, son unidades distintivas, o sea, elementos que distinguen los significados.

El fonema es una entidad abstracta del sistema, que necesariamente ha de realizarse en el habla. Cuando eso ocurre, el fonema (la invariante) tiene distintas manifestaciones o variantes.

A veces ocurre que, sin darnos cuenta, utilizamos un mismo sonido para diferentes fonemas. Cuando decimos *compás* [kompás] y *con pan* [kkompán], pronunciamos ante el sonido [p] un sonido [m] en los dos casos; y sin embargo, en el segundo “creemos” haber dicho [n]: /k/o/m/p/á/s/ - /k/o/n/p/á/n/.

Con frecuencia mucho mayor ocurre, inversamente, que para un mismo fonema utilizamos, sin darnos cuenta, sonidos que normalmente sirven para fonemas distintos. En la palabra *con* hay un sonido [n] cuando decimos *con agua*, y un sonido [m] cuando decimos *con pan*, aunque en uno y otro caso tenemos la idea de haber dicho [n]. Las distintas variantes o realizaciones de un fonema se llaman **alófonos** de ese fonema. Así, en el ejemplo *con pan*, el sonido [m] y el sonido [n] son alófonos del fonema /n/.

2.1. Teoría del fonema

Las diferencias fónicas que en una lengua dada permiten distinguir los significados son oposiciones fonológicas, distintivas, relevantes, pertinentes. Por el contrario las diferencias fónicas que no permiten esta distinción de significados son irrelevantes o no pertinentes. Por ejemplo, *dame* y *dime* tienen distinto significado (si se conmuta **a** por **i** cambia el significado) la oposición **a / i**, en español es fonológica, distintiva, relevante. En cambio *dame* y *da:me* (daame) (el alargamiento de la vocal marca mayor énfasis pero no diferencia en el significado intelectual). El alargamiento de las vocales en español no es pertinente. Otro ejemplo, la oposición /k/-/g/ permite distinguir pares de palabras (quiso-guiso, casa-gasa, pecar-pegar, etc.).

La **neutralización** se produce cuando una oposición deja de ser pertinente en ciertas posiciones de la cadena hablada. Por ejemplo:

- ere simple (transcrita /r/) y erre múltiple (transcrita /r̄/) se oponen en "pero"/"perro";
- /r / y /r/ no se oponen en "cortar" (cuyas erres pueden realizarse tanto simples como múltiples, sin que por ello se altere el significado de la palabra).

El resultado de una neutralización es un archifonema. El **archifonema** se define, por tanto, como el conjunto de rasgos comunes a los dos fonemas de la oposición neutralizada. Por ejemplo:

- /r/ es el archifonema de la neutralización de /r/ y /r/ en "cortar". Se define como consonante vibrante, pero no se especifica si es simple o múltiple, porque puede realizarse de las dos maneras. Su transcripción fonológica – que no fonética – es: /kortar/.

Fonema y variantes

Troubetzkoy define los fonemas de la siguiente manera: “Las unidades fonológicas que, desde el punto de vista de la lengua tratada, no pueden ser analizadas en unidades fonológicas aún más pequeñas y sucesivas, serán llamadas fonemas” (Troubetzkoy 1973: 32).

Un fonema es un segmento fónico que:

- 1) tiene una función distintiva: permite distinguir los significados intelectuales de las palabras;
- 2) no puede ser analizado en unidades sucesivas más pequeñas;
- 3) es un conjunto simultáneo de particularidades o rasgos fonológicamente pertinentes que lo diferencian, lo oponen, a los otros fonemas de la lengua.

Cada sonido del habla incluye rasgos pertinentes que hacen de él la realización de un fonema (dentro de un sistema, en cada lengua) y particularidades no pertinentes condicionadas por distintas causas. Todos los sonidos que realizan un fonema, es decir, que comparten los rasgos pertinentes, son **variantes** (fonéticas) de un fonema.

Si comparamos los sonidos presentados por las letras p y b, aunque en ambos entran en contacto los labios, en español /p/ es oclusivo bilabial sordo y /b/ es oclusivo bilabial sonoro, se distinguen entre sí, porque la diferente disposición de las cuerdas vocales se corresponde con significados también diferentes, y así, diremos que /p/ y /b/ son fonemas distintos: *beso* – *peso*, *coba* – *copa*, *comba* – *compa*. En este caso el rasgo pertinente que los diferencia es la sonoridad.

Reglas para la determinación de los fonemas.

Se trata de reglas prácticas, formuladas por Troubetzkoy, para distinguir un fonema de otro, y para distinguir las variantes fonéticas de un mismo fonema.

Dos sonidos pueden ser:

- la realización de dos fonemas;
- dos variantes facultativas o libres de un fonema;
- dos variantes combinatorias o contextuales de un fonema.

1^{ra} regla: Cuando dos sonidos de la misma lengua aparecen en el mismo contexto fónico (puede reemplazarse uno por otro) sin que cambie el significado intelectual de la palabra, esos dos sonidos son variantes facultativas de un fonema único.

2^{da} regla: Cuando dos sonidos aparecen en la misma posición fónica y no pueden ser reemplazados uno por el otro sin modificar el significado de la palabra, o convertirla en irreconocible, estos sonidos son realizaciones fonéticas de dos fonemas distintos. Ej.: pato y bato

3^{ra} regla: cuando dos sonidos emparentados (con similitud fonética) de una lengua no aparecen nunca en el mismo contexto deben ser considerados variantes combinatorias del mismo fonema. Ej. dame – ca□a

4^{ta} regla: Dos sonidos, aunque se ajusten a las condiciones de la regla 3, si se hallan contiguos (forman grupo fónico) en las posiciones en las que cada uno de ellos puede aparecer aislado, son dos fonemas. Por ejemplo la semivocal j en español sería una variante combinatoria de la vocal i ya que nunca aparecen contiguas (Alarcos Llorach: 1991).

2.2. El sistema fonológico de la lengua española.

Los fonemas de una lengua no funcionan de manera aislada, sino que forman un sistema fonológico, en el que el valor de cada elemento se define por la relación que guarda con el resto. Un sistema fonológico, por tanto, es un conjunto ordenado de oposiciones fonológicas.

Los fonemas se clasifican igual que los sonidos, aunque aquí lo que interesa son los rasgos distintivos dentro del sistema que dan lugar a oposiciones diferenciadoras de significado.

El fonema es una unidad compleja, que se descompone en rasgos distintivos, que son las verdaderas unidades básicas de la fonología. Un rasgo distintivo es "una señal fonética compleja capaz de

cambiar un fonema en otro por sustitución" (Dellatre: 1967). Los rasgos aparecen siempre combinados entre sí, formando un haz: el fonema.

El sistema fonológico de una lengua se manifiesta en una matriz de rasgos distintivos.

En español los fonemas son veinticuatro:

Fonema abierto: /a/.

Fonemas labiales: /b/, /p/, /f/, /m/.

Fonemas dentales: /d/, /t/, /θ/.

Fonemas alveolares: /l/, /r/, /ʎ/, /s/, /n/.

Fonemas palatales: /e/, /i/, /y/, /ç/, /ʎ/, /ñ/.

Fonemas velares: /o/, /u/, /g/, /k/, /x/.

Estos 24 fonemas corresponden al español estándar de España. Pero en el de América y en el de algunas variedades del de España, el sistema se lemeta a 22 fonemas, al reducirse /θ/ y /s/ a uno solo /s/, y /ʎ/ e /y/ a uno solo /y/.

En el cuadro precedente, se llama fonema *abierto* al que realiza sin contacto ni aproximación alguna entre dos órganos de articulación y con gran abertura de la boca. *Labiales* son aquellos fonemas en cuya realización intervienen los labios. En los *dentales* hay un contacto entre la punta de la lengua y los dientes. En los *alveolares* ese contacto de la lengua es con los alvéolos o encías superiores. Son *palatales* los fonemas en que la lengua se aproxima al paladar o lo toca. Y *velares* son aquellos que se realizan con aproximación o contacto de la lengua respecto al velo del paladar.

2.3. Fonémas y letras

El alfabeto de una lengua, las letras de la escritura corriente, tratan de representar los fonemas o sonidos ideales, no los reales, puesto que los fonemas son los que forman parte del significado. Pero la representación de los fonemas españoles por las letras del alfabeto no es perfecta, a pesar de que la correspondencia entre letras y fonemas en el español es mucho más estrecha que en la mayoría de los demás.

Grafémica se ocupa del grafema que es la unidad mínima de la escritura. Grafémica y Fonología tienen unidades distintivas con rasgos que inciden en el significado. Si el fonema es unidad mínima en el plano del significante y se realiza en sonidos, el grafema es unidad mínima en el plano de la escritura y se realiza en grafías. En español hay 29 letras, 24 fonemas y 26 grafemas.

Ch = c + h (letra+letra)

Ll = l + l

Ñ = n + grafema suprasegmental

➤ No son grafemas sino conjuntos grafemáticos

Así, vamos a ver desajustes entre fonemas y letras.

1. Fonemas que pueden ser representados por letras diferentes.

Fonemas	Letras	Ejemplos
/b/	b, v	bala /bála/; vaca /báka/
/θ/	c ante e, i; z	cena /θéna/; zumo /θúmo/
/k/	c ante a, o, u, consonante; qu ante e, i; k en palabras extrajeras	casa /kása/, cuna /kúna/, crema /kréma/; queso /késo/; kopék /kopék/
/g/	g ante a, o, u, consonante; gu ante e, i	ganso /gánsol/, goma /góma/, grado /grádo/; guerra /géfa/, guitarra /gitáfa/
/x/	g ante e, i;	geografía /xeografía/,

	j	cirujano /θiruxáno/
/i/	i,	cine /θíne/,
	y	cal y canto /kálíkánto/
/s/	s,	esquema /eskéma/,
	x ante consonante	texto /tésto/
/ř/	r,	rosa /řósa/,
	rr solo entre vocales	perro /péřo/

2. Fonemas diferentes que son presentados por una misma letra.

Fonemas	Letras	Ejemplos
/θ/, /k/	c	cena /θéna/, cosa /kósa/
/g/, /x/	g	paga /pága/, gente /xénte/
/i/, /y/	y	buey /buéi/, bueyes /buéyes/
/r/, /ř/	r	cara /kára/, risa /řisa/

3. Suma de dos fonemas, representada por una sola letra.

Fonemas	Letras	Ejemplos
/k s/	x	examen /eksámen/, relax /řeláks/

4. Fonemas simples, representados por la unión de dos letras.

Fonemas	Letras	Ejemplos
/l̞/	ll	calle /kále/
/ř/	rr entre vocales	perro /peřo/
/ç/	ch	ocho /oço/
/k/	qu ante e, i	quiso /kíso/
/g/	gu ante e, i	aguila /ágila/

Por último, la letra h se usa en la escritura, pero no tiene ningún valor, pues no representa ningún fonema: hombre /ómbre/, ahora /aóra/, ¡ah! /á/. La existencia actual esta letra obedece a razones puramente históricas. Su presencia o ausencia en la grafía de las palabras debe ser aprendida (lo mismo que la elección entre b y v, g (e, i) y j). Solo en un caso hay norma fija para su uso: se pone h siempre ante los grupos ue, ui en comienzo de la palabra: hueco, hueso, huesped, huir, huida.

Вопросы и задания

1. ¿Desde que tiempo se consideró la fonología como ciencia independiente?
2. ¿Cuáles son objeto y tarea de la fonología?
3. ¿Que definiciones tiene el término *fonema*?
4. Realice una comparación, lo más exhaustiva y lo más técnica posible, entre el sistema consonántico de su lengua nativa y el del español.
5. Investigue qué universales se han postulado en relación a las consonantes. Le avanzo uno: todas las lenguas tienen consonantes. Busque Ud. más.
- 6 Realice la transcripción fonológica del siguiente texto, que es un extracto de una entrevista realizada al escritor Ernesto Sábato reproducido en el libro de texto (Alcoba 2000, 69):

La lengua castellana que España impuso en el continente, uno de los grandes misterios, porque es un misterio de la conquista, conquista terrible, trágica y a veces bárbara, pero tan importante,

fijese usted, que, si fuera cierta solamente la leyenda negra de la conquista, no se explica por qué dos de los más grandes poetas de la lengua castellana, Rubén Darío y César Vallejo, descendían de indios.

Propuesta de ampliación:

1. Alarcos Llorac, E. Gramática de la lengua española. – Madrid: Espasa Calpe, S.A., 2004. – 508 pp.
2. Arenas, Paula. Hablar y escribir correctamente. ‘ Madrid: Edimat libros, S.A., 2005. – 192 pp.
3. Real Academia Española. Nueva gramática de la lengua española. Fonética y fonología - Madrid: Espasa, 2011. – 864 pp.
4. Real Academia Española y Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española . Ortografía de la lengua española. – Madrid: Espasa, 2010. – 864 pp.

Enlaces de Internet:

<http://www.rae.es> es sitio de la Real Academia Española.

<https://www.unprofesor.com> es sitio de la Lengua española para los alumnos.

<http://svr-www.eng.cam.ac.uk/%7Eajr/SpeechAnalysis/> - Un curso especialmente completo sobre el análisis del habla, aunque requiere un cierto grado de conocimiento previo de la cuestión, preparado por Tony Robertson, de la Universidad de Cambridge. En inglés.

Лабораторная работа4.

Тема 4. Фонética. Conceptos básicos de la Fonética

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

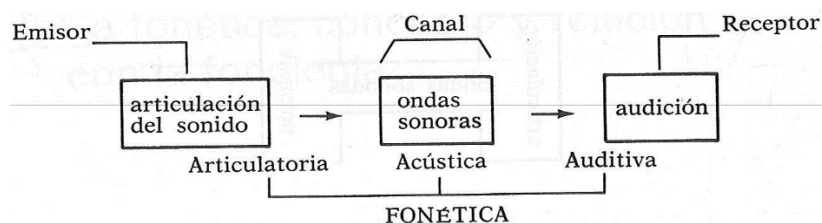
Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Objeto y tareas de la Fonética.
2. Fonética articuladora: realizaciones del fonema.
3. Clasificación articuladora de los sonidos del lenguaje.
 - 3.1. Sistema consonántico del español
 - 3.2. Clasificación de las vocales: el triángulo articulatorio.
4. Variantes de los fonemas: alófonos y archifonemas

Теоретическая часть

1. Si, como venimos diciendo, la fonética se ocupa del estudio del sonido usado en la lengua, podríamos establecer una clasificación sencilla atendiendo al esquema clásico de la comunicación, en el que siempre existe un emisor que produce un mensaje, un canal que lo transmite y un receptor que lo recibe e interpreta.



La fonética en la comunicación.

Ilustración 0 Clasificación de la fonética según el esquema clásico de comunicación

La Fonética según se centre en el estudio de cada una de estas fases de la comunicación se divide en tres ramas básicas según su relación con las etapas de todo acto de habla: la fonética articulatoria, la fonética acústica, la fonética perceptiva.

La fonética acústica estudia las propiedades físicas de los sonidos del habla (frecuencia, intensidad, tono, timbre, sonoridad, etc), lo cual permite distinguir unos de otros las ondas sonoras generadas por los órganos de fonación y propagadas por el aire. En este caso se analiza el producto del emisor que se transmite por el canal de comunicación empleado y que será capaz de estimular al receptor. Se centra, por tanto, en el canal de transmisión.

La fonética articulatoria, de la que nos vamos a ocupar, clasifica los sonidos del habla a partir del modo como son producidos por el aparato fonador. La mayoría de los sonidos del lenguaje se producen por el paso de una columna de aire que viene de los pulmones y atraviesa los resonadores: la faringe, la cavidad bucal, las fosas nasales. La presencia o la ausencia de obstáculos sobre el paso de la columna de aire modifica la naturaleza de los sonidos producidos. Clasificando esos obstáculos, la fonética articulatoria clasifica los diferentes sonidos; estudia los procedimientos articulatorios que producen los sonidos.

La fonética perceptiva estudia los mecanismos de audición y percepción del habla, y busca modelos de percepción del habla. Por un lado analiza el procesamiento auditivo de los sonidos del habla, es decir, cómo el receptor recoge la vibración del sonido y traduce sus características físicas en impulsos nerviosos que se dirigen hacia el cerebro. Y, por otro lado, cómo el cerebro interpreta esos impulsos para recuperar el mensaje de la onda sonora, proceso que constituye la percepción propiamente dicha. Esta última parte, mucho más compleja, está comparativamente poco estudiada y pertenece al ámbito de la neurofisiología.

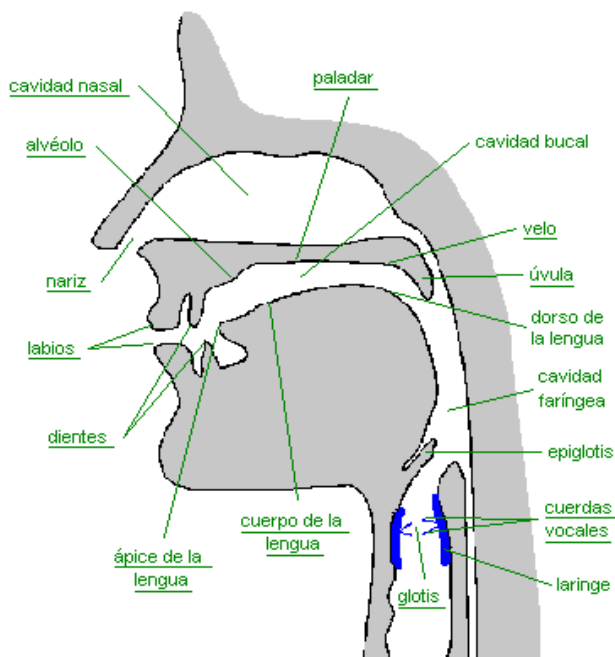
Es importante destacar que todas ellas son interdependientes, es decir, que no pueden entenderse ninguna sin tener en cuenta las propiedades acústicas de los sonidos que determinan la configuración del aparato fonador así como la recepción auditiva del mensaje.

2. Fonética articulatoria: realizaciones del fonema.

En este párrafo se va a tratar de la emisión o producción de los sonidos del habla.

Mientras los fonemas constituyen en cada idioma un sistema fijo, con un número limitado de elementos, los sonidos reales son infinitos.

Para comenzar, dado que tenemos que centrarnos en la función productora de sonidos en el ser humano, vamos a partir recordando que nuestro organismo está formado fundamentalmente por células que se estructuran en diferentes niveles de organización, constituyendo los órganos, como el corazón, riñón, pulmón, piel, arterias, ojos, etc. que se encuentran asociados con sus funciones individuales. En estas funciones naturales de nuestro ser no se encuentra la propiamente comunicativa. Es decir, no existen órganos específicamente diseñados para la producción del habla, pero, como conjunto de órganos que colaboran en la realización de una función, se le acostumbra a denominar



aparato fonador.

Ilustración 0 El aparato fonador del hombre

El aparato fonador consta de tres partes:

- a) aparato respiratorio está formado por los pulmones, los bronquios y la tráquea.
- b) laringe se encarga de la fonación. Está formada por las cricoides, tiroides y las dos aritenoides. Entre ellas están las cuerdas vocales y la abertura que queda se llama glotis.
- c) cavidades supraglóticas se encargan de la articulación. En ellas hay que distinguir tres partes, la faringe, la boca y las fosas nasales, que actúan como resonadores. En cuanto a la boca, consta de dos tipos de órganos, los móviles: maxilar inferior, lengua, paladar blando y labios y los fijos: dientes, alvéolos y paladar duro.

De ahí, en la génesis de los sonidos del habla se pueden distinguir tres momentos relevantes:

1. Respiración, que aporta la energía que se transmitirá en las ondas sonoras articuladas a través de la corriente espiratoria, pues es el aire forzado a salir de los pulmones el que tiene la energía cinética que se utilizará seguidamente para la producción de sonidos. Por tanto constituye la fuente de energía que se produce a través de mecanismos denominados subglóticos.
2. Fonación: consiste en la conversión de esta energía cinética en energía ondulatoria propia del sonido. En este momento se produce la voz con la intervención de las cuerdas vocales que tiene lugar en la laringe.
3. Articulación: tras la fonación los sonidos adquieren los matices que los diferencian en distintos timbres a través de fenómenos de resonancia que tienen lugar en las cavidades supraglóticas.

El proceso de fonación se produce a partir de que el aire originado en los pulmones pasa desde la tráquea a la laringe haciendo vibrar las cuerdas vocales. Las cuerdas vocales son dos tendones situados horizontalmente; por la parte anterior se unen las tiroides y por la parte posterior las aritenoides. El espacio entre las cuerdas vocales es la glotis, que está abierta en la respiración, pero se cierra cuando se lleva a cabo la fonación. En la laringe, el sonido adquiere sus cualidades físicas primarias.

El proceso de fonación se caracteriza por

Tono es vibración de las cuerdas vocales que producen una onda sonora, que se refiere al tono fundamental. En la compuesta, el tono fundamental se une a armónicos que se superponen.

Timbre es el tono fundamental más los armónicos filtrados en las cavidades de resonancia.

Intensidad es presión del aire sobre las cuerdas vocales; determina una mayor o menor amplitud de onda.

Duración es tiempo que tarda en extinguirse un sonido.

CLASIFICACIÓN DE LOS FONEMAS CONSONÁNTICOS

SEGÚN EL MODO DE ARTICULACIÓN (por efectos del aire)		SEGÚN EL PUNTO DE ARTICULACIÓN (por la relación de los órganos de la cavidad bucal)											
		BILABIALES		LABIODENTAL		DENTALES		ALVEOLARES		PALATALES		VELAR	
O R A L E S	OCCLUSIVAS	/p/	/b/			/t/	/d/					/k/	/g/
	FRICATIVAS			/f/				/s/			/y/	/x/	/θ/
	AFRICADAS									/ç/			
	VIBRANTE simple							/r/					
	VIBRANTE múltiple							/ř/					
	LATERALES							/l/		/ʎ/			
NASALES			/m/					/n/		/ɲ/			
SEGÚN CUERDAS VOCALES		SORDO	SONORO	SORDO	SONORO	SORDO	SONORO	SORDO	SONORO	SORDO	SONORO	SORDO	SONORO

Símbolos de los fonemas actualizados (RAE, 2010):

/θ/ → /z/ ; /x/ → /j/ ; /ɲ/ → /ñ/ ; /ʎ/ → /ll/ ; /ř/ → /rr/ ; /ç/ → /ch/

Clasificación de los fonemas según el modo y lugar de articulación

En el siguiente enlace, se pueden ver animaciones de diferentes consonantes según su punto de articulación. (Seleccionar “lugar”):

<http://www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics/spanish/frameset.html>

CLASIFICACIÓN DE FONEMAS VOCÁLICOS



	Anteriores	Centrales	Posteriores
Cerrados	/i/		/u/
Medios	/e/		/o/
Abiertos		/a/	

“Triángulo articulatorio” de las vocales españolas

Вопросы и задания

1. ¿Cuáles son objeto y tareas de la fonética en comparación con la fonología?
2. ¿Con qué partes integrantes cuenta el aparato fonador del hombre?
3. ¿Qué estudia la fonética articulatoria?
4. ¿A base de qué criterios la fonética articulatoria define los sonidos?
5. Describe el sistema consonántico del español.
6. ¿Que es tiángulo articulatorio?
7. ¿Qué pasa con los sonidos en el proceso de comunicación hablada?

Propuesta de ampliación:

1. Alarcos Llorach, E. Fonología española. Madrid: Biblioteca Románica Hispánica Gredos (4ª ed.), 1986.

Enlaces en Internert

En el siguiente enlace, se pueden ver animaciones de diferentes consonantes según su punto de articulación. (Seleccionar “modo”):

<http://www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics/spanish/frameset.html>

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2oYkR_FUnlM

<http://www.sil.org/mexico/ling/glosario/E005beOrganosArt.htm> en esa dirección se puede consultar un curso básico de fonética general, preparado en México para el Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL). En español.

<http://www3.unileon.es/dp/dfh/Milka/FyF.htm> - Milka Villayandre, de la Universidad de León, explica claramente las nociones fundamentales de fonética articulatoria y acústica. En español.

El Dr. John Maidment, del Departamento de Fonética y Lingüística del University College de Londres, mantiene en la red un *Speech Internet Dictionary*, es decir, un diccionario de términos fonéticos para tener a mano al describir y clasificar una consonante: <http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/home/johnm/sid/sidhome.htm>.

El profesor Maidment ofrece también tres cursos en la red muy útiles, sobre prosodia, en la dirección <http://www.eptotd.btinternet.co.uk/pow/powin.htm>. En inglés.

Лабораторная работа5.

Тема 5. Objeto de la lexicología y su correlación con otras disciplinas. Clasificación de los préstamos según el origen y el grado de la asimilación

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

АКТУАЛЬНОСТЬ: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Objeto de la lexicología y su correlación con otras disciplinas. Apartados de la lexicología y variedades de los estudios lexicológicos.
2. Problema de la definición de la palabra. Variantes de la palabra.
3. Distinción entre el lenguaje, la lengua y el habla.
4. Tipos de diccionarios.

Теоретическая часть

1. La **lexicología** (del griego *lexis* “palabra” y *logos* “ciencia”, “estudio”) tiene por cometido la clasificación, representación y estudio de la estructura léxica según relaciones sistemáticas y patrones recurrentes en la lengua. Es el apartado de la lingüística que se dedica al léxico y su funcionamiento en el habla. Entendemos por **léxico** el conjunto de términos que posee una lengua. Constituye un inventario abierto en constante evolución.

La lexicología no es la única disciplina que investiga la palabra. El aspecto material de la palabra lo investigan la fonética y la fonología. El aspecto significativo de la palabra (y la lengua entera) se estudia por la filosofía, la psicología, la lógica, la teoría de traducción. La estructura de la palabra, sus categorías y formas se analizan en la gramática. En la estilística se evalúan las posibilidades expresivas y emotivas de la palabra.

El objeto de la lexicología son las propiedades de la palabra no como elemento autónomo, sino en relación con el sistema léxico de la lengua. Nace como disciplina independiente de la lexicografía a partir de las aportaciones de Ferdinand de Saussure.

La lexicología no es homogénea. Consiste de diferentes **apartados** que forman relativamente independientes disciplinas. La **lexicografía** se dedica a la sistematización y explicación de varias palabras y a los principios teóricos para la elaboración de diccionarios en los cuales se ofrecen informaciones de orden etimológico, categorial, combinatorio, semántico y contextual sobre cada uno de los términos censados. A diferencia de la lexicología, la lexicografía se centra en una lengua particular, no pretende hacer generalizaciones sobre la estructura de léxico, las relaciones entre palabras y el modo en como la lengua representa ciertas áreas semánticas. La **semántica** es la parte de la lingüística que estudia el significado de las palabras. La **semasiología** es la parte de la semántica que, a partir de un signo lingüístico, llega a la determinación del concepto y se ocupa de la descripción del desarrollo histórico del contenido de una palabra. La **fraseología** estudia los modismos (expresiones estables de una lengua), como *media naranja*, *cabeza de turco*, *echar de menos*, *estar de monos*, *a gatas*, etc. La **onomástica** es el apartado de la lexicología que estudia y cataloga los nombres propios (de personas y lugares). La **etimología** se dedica al estudio del origen de las palabras y motivo de su existencia, de su significado y de su forma.

Según el carácter de los problemas que se estudian y los métodos de investigación se distinguen diferentes **variedades de la lexicología**. La **lexicología general** es el estudio de la palabra no relacionado con los rasgos específicos de cada concreta lengua; los fenómenos lingüísticos comunes en todas las lenguas se tratan como las nociones lingüísticas universales. La **lexicología especial** se dedica a la descripción de unas características que son propias del léxico de cierta lengua. La **lexicología histórica o diacrónica** estudia el origen de varias palabras, sus cambios y desarrollo, las fuerzas lingüísticas y extralingüísticas que modifican su estructura,

significado y empleo. La **lexicología descriptiva o sincrónica** trata el léxico de cierta lengua en cierta fase de su desarrollo, estudia las funciones de las palabras y sus estructuras específicas como características propias del sistema léxico.

2. Los signos lingüísticos (palabras) están relacionados con las nociones del lenguaje, la lengua y el habla.

En la lingüística moderna existen algunos términos básicos que debemos manejar para describir el sistema de comunicación verbal, como lengua y habla, sincronía y diacronía, relaciones sintagmáticas y paradigmáticas.

El **lenguaje** es una facultad que compartimos todas las personas para comunicarnos utilizando signos lingüísticos. La facultad del lenguaje se concreta en el uso de una o de varias lenguas.

Llamamos **lengua** al idioma concreto que comparte una comunidad de hablantes. Los signos que componen una lengua se relacionan según unas reglas. Por ejemplo, en castellano el artículo y el adjetivo deben concertar con el sustantivo en género y en número. Cada lengua es, pues, un código, es decir un sistema formado por un conjunto de signos relacionados entre sí y un conjunto de reglas que rigen la formación y la combinación de esos signos. Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), el padre de la lingüística moderna, en su *Curso de lingüística general*, establece la siguiente analogía entre el juego de la lengua y la partida de ajedrez:

- a. Cada jugada de ajedrez no pone en movimiento más de una sola pieza; lo mismo sucede en la lengua, los cambios no se aplican mas que a elementos aislados.
- b. Una jugada tiene repercusión en todo el sistema: lo mismo sucede en la lengua.
- c. El desplazamiento de una pieza es un hecho absolutamente distinto del equilibrio precedente y del equilibrio subsiguiente.

El sistema de la lengua está a disposición de todos los hablantes de un mismo idioma. Cuando un hablante quiere construir un mensaje, selecciona algunos de los signos que la lengua le ofrece para transmitir la idea que desea comunicar; en este caso el comunicante realiza el acto de habla. El **habla** es el uso de la lengua en un mensaje determinado. Por extensión, llamamos también habla a la manera de usar la lengua de una determinada comunidad: el habla propia de los jóvenes o el habla característica de Sevilla.

Pues, el lenguaje es una facultad universal. La lengua es un código social compartido por una comunidad. El habla es la utilización individual de una lengua. La lengua se ha producido a lo largo de muchos años, y de forma anónima por parte de toda una comunidad. En cambio, la combinación de palabras en grupos y estos en oraciones y párrafos sí son creaciones individuales, es decir, son atribuibles a un autor individual.

3. Entre los signos lingüísticos existen unas determinadas relaciones que ordenan su funcionamiento:

Relaciones sintagmáticas son las “en presencia”, es decir son las relaciones que se establecen entre unidades coexistentes en un mismo enunciado, en el mismo sintagma, como, por ejemplo, la relación de concordancia entre sujeto y predicado: *Juan juega en el patio*. Son relaciones del habla.

Relaciones paradigmáticas son las “en ausencia”, es decir las relaciones que se establecen entre unidades alternantes: entre los signos que podrían aparecer en un mismo lugar de un enunciado. Para esto los signos deben pertenecer a la misma categoría (parte de oración), formar un paradigma común. Por ejemplo, *jugaba* podría alternar con *juega* en el enunciado anterior. Son relaciones de la lengua.

La lengua tal y como la concebimos en un momento dado es siempre el resultado de una evolución y, al mismo tiempo, una etapa dentro de ella. De esta teoría, se deduce que la lengua se puede estudiar desde dos perspectivas distintas:

La sincronía (*synchronos*, al mismo tiempo) es el estudio de la lengua en su aspecto estático, en un momento determinado de su desarrollo. Examina las relaciones entre los elementos coexistentes de la lengua con independencia de cualquier factor temporal.

La diacronía (*diacronos*, a través del tiempo) es el estudio de la lengua desde el punto de vista de la evolución y transformaciones de los fenómenos a lo largo del tiempo. Se enfoca en el proceso evolutivo y se centra en aquellos fragmentos que se corresponden con ciertos momentos históricos.

Siguiendo a Saussure, lo sincrónico es más importante que lo diacrónico, pues es lo que conocen los hablantes. Sus métodos igualmente difieren: la sincronía se basa en el testimonio de los hablantes de un momento concreto en el tiempo; la diacronía responde a dos visiones, una que sigue el paso del tiempo, y otro que vuelve hacia atrás sobre éste. También lo hacen sus límites: lo sincrónico trata sólo aquello que está relacionado con la lengua, por lo que debería llamársele idiosincrónico; la diacronía utiliza términos que no tienen que estar necesariamente ligados a la lengua, si tienen un vínculo histórico.

Sincronía es la “relación de elementos simultáneos”, diacronía la “sustitución” de uno por otro en el tiempo. Si bien los hechos sincrónicos y diacrónicos son autónomos, existe una relación de interdependencia entre ambos. No es posible conocer el estado de una lengua si no analizamos los cambios que sufrió.

4. El **diccionario** es una obra de consulta de palabras que se encuentran ordenados alfabéticamente. De dichas palabras se proporciona su significado, etimología, ortografía y, en el caso de ciertas lenguas fija su pronunciación y separación silábica. Se considera que los primeros diccionarios aparecieron en Mesopotamia.

La disciplina que se encarga, entre otras tareas, de elaborar diccionarios es la **lexicografía**. La información que proporciona varía según el tipo de diccionario del que se trate. Se encuentran por lo general en la forma de un libro impreso, pero también en versión electrónica a través de un programa de cómputo que hace funcionar un PDA electrónico o de una computadora de fines generales.

En el diccionario cada una de las palabras es una **entrada**. El vocablo registrado como entrada puede tener un solo significado, y ser, por tanto, monosémico (*cardiólogo*, *balonmano*, *piscina*), o puede ser polisémico y tener varias significaciones: *balón*, *operación*, *puente*, etc. El diccionario registra cada una de estas significaciones como **acepciones del vocablo** que constituye la entrada. El conjunto de la entrada y de las acepciones se denomina **artículo**.

Todo diccionario incluye **marcas** que acompañan a cada entrada o a cada acepción, y que ayudan a precisar el significado. Veamos como ejemplo el artículo **bailar** tal como figura en el *Diccionario de la Real Academia Española* (2001): **bailar** (quizá de lat. tardío *bollare*, agitar, bailar). intr. Ejecutar pasos acompañados con el cuerpo, brazos y pies. U.t.c.tr. *Bailar una polca*. // 2. Dicho de una cosa: Moverse sin salir de un espacio determinado. *Le baila un diente*. // 3. Dicho de una cosa: Girar rápidamente en torno de su eje manteniéndose en equilibrio sobre un extremo de él, como hacen la peonza, la perinela, etc. U.t.c.tc // 4. Retozar de gozo. // 5. Dicho de la vista: Adquirir o tener viveza. // 6. Equit. Dicho de un caballo: Ejecutar movimientos irregulares y de índole nerviosa, ya estando andando, ya estando parado. // 7. Impr. Dicho de una línea, de una palabra, de un tipo o de

un espacio: Desplazarse a un lugar no adecuado. // 8. tr. coloq. Hond. matar // 9. prnl. Cuba. robar. // 10. El Salv. engañar. //MORF.V.conjug. modelo. //

Aunque los diccionarios acogen las palabras pertenecientes al idioma, en realidad, ningún diccionario recoge todas las palabras: buscaremos en vano vocablos como *quepo*, *fui*, *anduvimos*, y tantas más. Se supone que el consultante sabe que son formas de los verbos *caber*, *ir*, *andar* respectivamente. Es una imperfección que la lexicografía no ha resuelto en ninguna lengua, sino construyendo aparte diccionarios de la conjugación.

5. Se considera que los primeros diccionarios aparecieron en Mesopotamia. Los diccionarios que explican el significado o significados que una palabra tiene en una lengua no aparecen hasta el siglo XVII. Antes, ya a fines del siglo XV, se habían impreso en Europa los diccionarios bilingües, para traducir del latín a una lengua moderna, y a la inversa. En España, abrió el camino Antonio de Nebrija, con su *Diccionario latinoespañol* (1492) y el *Vocabulario español-latino* (1495). Pero la estima de la lengua propia que había traído el Renacimiento determina que surjan los diccionarios monolingües de las lenguas modernas.

Y fue un español, Sebastián de Covarrubias, quien dio a luz el primer diccionario monolingüe europeo: el *Tesoro de la lengua castellana o española* (1611). Lo ha compuesto, dice, para “dar noticia a los extranjeros del lenguaje español, y de su propiedad y elegancia, que es muy grande honor de la nación española”.

Existen **varios tipos de diccionarios**, según su función y su uso:

—**Diccionarios monolingües** son los que se utilizan para explicar brevemente el significado de las palabras de una lengua determinada. La explicación se da en la misma lengua. Por ejemplo, si en la crónica de una corrida de toros se dice que el toro *salió abanto*, el diccionario monolingüe del español dará la siguiente definición: “abanto. adj. Dícese del toro que al empezar la lidia parece aturdido”. Para la lengua española quizá el referente más común sea el *Diccionario de la lengua española* de la *Real Academia Española (DRAE)*, elaborado conjuntamente por las veintidós Academias de la *Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española*.

—**Diccionarios bilingües** son los diccionarios en que se indican las palabras equivalentes en otro idioma o en otros idiomas. Es habitual encontrar este tipo de diccionarios en un mismo tomo junto con el idioma inverso, de tal forma que pueden consultarse las palabras en ambos idiomas. Se utilizan al traducir de otra lengua. Por ejemplo, si un inglés ha ido a los toros, oye decir a su alrededor que el toro *ha salido abanto*, desconoce *abanto*, mira la palabra en su diccionario bilingüe, y halla: “abanto. adj. Skittish, shy, timid”.

—**Diccionarios de sinónimos y antónimos** relacionan palabras de significado similar y opuesto, para facilitar la elección de éstas al redactar textos. Los más sencillos se limitan a dar una lista de palabras para cada entrada, pero algunos más completos indican además las diferencias de matiz con la palabra buscada, sin llegar a ser un tesoro, comentado más adelante. Si deseamos, por ejemplo, hablar de la valentía, buscamos en un diccionario de sinónimos la palabra *valentía* y encontramos una lista de vocablos relacionados por el significado: *valor*, *intrepidez*, *arroyo*, *denuedo*, *temeridad*, *temple*, *audacia*, *heroísmo*, *bravura* y varias más. Entre ellas está el vocablo que necesitamos.

—**Diccionario ideológicos** localizan las palabras según su asociación a una idea. Se parte de ideas generales y se va concretando hasta llegar a una lista de palabras entre las que se encontrará la buscada. Se diferencia del tesoro en que en aquél las palabras se relacionan con palabras con alguna relación, mientras que en éste las palabras se agrupan con ideas. Por ejemplo, para localizar el nombre de un cierto color verde que no recordamos se busca en el grupo “naturaleza”; dentro de

éste, en el grupo “luz”; dentro de éste, en el grupo “color”, luego en el grupo “verde” y ahí, entre otros, se encuentra “glauco”, un tono específico de verde. En [<http://www.diccionarios.com>] podemos encontrar uno.

—**Diccionarios etimológicos** son los diccionarios en los que se facilita información sobre el origen de las palabras de una determinada lengua. Quizá el diccionario etimológico más prestigioso de la lengua inglesa es el *Oxford English Dictionary*. Quizá el diccionario etimológico más célebre (aunque ya no el más actualizado) de la lengua española es el *Tesoro de la lengua castellana o española* (1611), obra de Sebastián de Covarrubias y Orozco (1539-1613) que no es sólo diccionario etimológico, sino que aporta muchísimos datos históricos de la lengua utilizada en su época.

—**Diccionarios históricos** registran no solo la etimología de las palabras, sino también cómo estas han ido cambiando su significado. Por ejemplo, *azafata* significó durante siglos mujer sirviente de la reina, a quien preparaba los vestidos y alhajas que se había de poner y los recogía cuando se los quitaba. Hoy designa a la mujer encargada de atender a los pasajeros a bordo de un avión, tren, autocar, o de prestar otro tipo de ayudas en tierra.

—**Diccionarios terminológicos (o especializados)** son los diccionarios que están dedicados a palabras o términos que pertenecen a un campo determinado como, por ejemplo, la informática, la jardinería, la ingeniería, la computación, la genética, la heráldica, de términos militares, náuticos, artísticos, filológicos, el lenguaje SMS, pesos y medidas o abreviaturas, etc. Proporcionan breve información sobre el significado de tales palabras o términos. Pueden ser también diccionarios de idiomas en los que se indica la traducción a otra lengua o a otras lenguas de las palabras o términos que incluyen.

—**Diccionarios regionales y dialectales** explican el significado de las palabras particulares de una comunidad que no se usan en otras zonas del país o de los países que comparten la misma lengua; y así, hay diccionarios de americanismos, de argentinismos, de aragonesismos, de andalucismos, de voces canarias, etc.

—**Diccionarios inversos o de rimas** son diccionarios de la lengua que están ordenados alfabéticamente según las últimas letras de cada palabra, en vez de las primeras. Su uso principal es buscar palabras que rimen con otra, para la redacción de poesías y versos. Algunos diccionarios inversos reducidos no incluyen definiciones, sino sólo la lista de palabras ordenadas de esta forma.

—**Diccionarios de gramática** son los diccionarios en los que no se ordenan palabras, sino estructuras gramaticales. Su uso principal es para personas que están aprendiendo un idioma extranjero, ya que les permite buscar estructuras gramaticales de un texto y consultar en ellos su significado y construcción.

—**Diccionarios de uso práctico** recogen acepciones en las palabras que no son reconocidas por el órgano competente (como la Real Academia de la Lengua en España) pero que, sin embargo, siguen usándose ampliamente en la sociedad. Es el caso, por ejemplo, del *Diccionario de uso del español* de María Moliner.

—**Diccionarios de dudas** recogen palabras y frases cuyo significado se ha desvirtuado y no significan en la sociedad lo que un diccionario de la lengua indica. Estos diccionarios ayudan a un redactor o escritor a usar los términos correctos, sin dejarse llevar por el significado popular. A diferencia del diccionario de uso práctico anterior, su objetivo no es dar a conocer el uso vulgar de una palabra, sino advertir de éste, y proponer alternativas adecuadas para fines específicos.

—**Tesauro** son obras en las que se relacionan numerosas palabras que guardan una relación más o menos directa con la palabra objeto de consulta. No son, pues, diccionarios de sinónimos, ya que estos últimos incluyen únicamente palabras con un significado similar y equivalente.

—**Diccionario analógico conceptual** es una especie de tesauro. Sus características hacen que se presenten en formato electrónico (DVD o página web). Es un diccionario conceptual porque el acceso se realiza por medio de conceptos, no sólo por medio de palabras. Por ejemplo, *demasiado cansada para* es un concepto multipalabra. Esta característica hace que la accesibilidad sea fácil para el usuario común.

No debe confundirse un diccionario con una **enciclopedia**. Como se ha dicho, el primero facilita una información breve sobre el significado de una palabra. Por el contrario, la persona que consulta una enciclopedia espera encontrar una amplia información acerca de un concepto o tema, a fin de conocer con suficiente detalle todo lo relativo a éste. Wikipedia es ejemplo de un tipo específico de enciclopedia: la enciclopedia en línea que pueden modificar los propios usuarios.

Tareas

Comente el siguiente fragmento de la reseña de *La fascinante historia de las palabras* de Ricardo Soca. Consulte el diccionario.

Por Fernando A. Navarro

De igual manera que en una vida —lo aprendemos con los años— caben muchas vidas, también en una palabra caben muchas palabras. (...) Como sucede con otros milagros cotidianos, la fuerza de la costumbre hace que muchos hablantes hayan perdido ya la capacidad de asombro y fascinación ante el milagro del lenguaje. Un modo seguro de recuperar la fascinación por el lenguaje es pedir a las palabras que nos hablen de su origen y de su historia.

Y es que *La fascinante historia de las palabras* lo es de veras. Hojeando las páginas que siguen aprenderemos que el alcohol y la belladona guardan íntima relación con la historia de la cosmética y la belleza femenina; que nada menos que Pablo de Tarso, el apóstol de los gentiles, está en el origen mismo de la voz adefesio; que para los etruscos —y para nosotros con ellos—, los adivinos eran hombres divinos. Aprenderemos que el nombre del edredón, como su uso, nos vino de la fría Escandinavia, y, de modo parecido, el nombre del ajedrez, como el mismo juego, nos vino de la lejana India; la misma lejana India que nos ha dado también, más modernamente, palabras como champú o pijama.

¿Sabías acaso, lector, que un instrumentista vienés bautizó al acordeón, un químico alemán a la aspirina, un economista francés a la burocracia, un médico poeta italiano a la sífilis, y un navegante cartaginés al gorila?

Descubriremos docenas de otras historias notabilísimas más que las palabras llevan consigo: Aristóteles, casi cuatro siglos antes de Cristo, usó ya el término católico; el nombre de la cerveza lo tomaron prestado los romanos de los galos; los copistas medievales usaron ya en sus escritos el signo @, que hoy nos parece tan moderno e internético; el armiño tomó su nombre de Armenia, pese a que, como es bien sabido, en Armenia no hay armiños; la designación del tulipán procede no de Holanda, como cabría pensar, sino de Turquía; las Bahamas son en realidad las islas de la Bajamar; la hamburguesa, como su propio nombre bien claramente indica, no viene de los Estados Unidos. En el siglo XVII, los españoles llamaban corsarios a los filibusteros franceses y a los bucaneros ingleses, todos ellos piratas. Las afortunadas islas Canarias recibieron su nombre de un animal muy abundante en ellas, que no es el canario. Cuando hoy un niño se traba y dice, con su lengua de trapo, murciégalo en lugar de murciélago, o cocodrilo en lugar de cocodrilo, en realidad está llamando a estos animales por su verdadero y primitivo nombre.

El estudio del origen de las palabras nos depara, asimismo, sorpresas de lo más curioso. Según la etimología, una televisión es lo mismo que un telescopio; los varones somos, por definición, inmunes a las crisis de histeria; los soldados de infantería no pueden hablar jamás; el trabajo es siempre una tortura, e igual da un zar ruso, que un káiser alemán o un César romano. Desde el punto de vista etimológico, el hígado viene del higo, el rosario de la rosa, el salario de la sal, y el verdugo del color verde, sí, pero los coroneles, en cambio, nada tienen que ver con las coronas. Y las boticas, tan serias y farmacéuticas ellas, son, por su origen, primas hermanas no sólo de las borrachuelas bodegas, sino incluso de las finas y elegantes boutiques de moda.

Лабораторная работа 6.

Тема 6. Onomaciología

Procedimientos semántico y morfológico de formación de palabras en el español contemporáneo

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Tipos del cambio del significado de la palabra
2. Arbitrariedad (motivación) de la palabra y tipos de la motivación.
3. Significados recto y figurado, libre y fraseológico.
4. Procedimientos del cambio semántico: ampliación, restricción, alza y baja del significado.

Onomaciología investiga todas las posibilidades y recursos que ofrece un idioma para designar un objeto o fenómenos nuevos.

Del griego “onoma” significa “nombre”. Onomaciología trata de la palabra en su función nominal.

1. Las palabras que se utilizan en una lengua cambian con el tiempo y el uso. Se llama **cambio lingüístico** a la variación de significado que sufren las palabras a lo largo de su historia.

El cambio lingüístico puede afectar a la forma (cambio formal), al significado (cambio semántico) o a su uso (cambio pragmático).

El **cambio formal** se distingue el el cambio fonológico y en el cambio morfosintáctico. En el caso del cambio **fonológico** no cambia toda la palabra sino tan sólo su pronunciación, algunos de los sonidos que la componen. Lo sufrió, por ejemplo, la palabra *setmana* que ha adquirido la forma actual *semana*. Es el caso de la palabra *dixo* que pasó a pronunciarse como *dicho*. Otro ejemplo lo encontramos en la palabra *ferro* que evolucionó hasta diptongarse y perdió su sonido inicial, de este modo pasó a pronunciarse *hierro*.

En cuando al **cambio morfológico-sintáctico**, las lenguas en su evolución también pueden modificar el modo de formar sus palabras. De este modo hay decinencias que pueden desaparecer como ocurrió con aquellos que indicaban las declinaciones en latín. El único vestigio que queda de estas antiguas declinaciones en el castellano lo encontramos en los pronombres personales que según su función dentro de la oración adoptan una forma u otra. Otro ejemplo del cambio morfológicosintáctico es la posición de los pronombres átonos, lo que afecta la forma del verbo en la oración. En la actualidad se dice *lo vio* y no *violo*, que era como se decía antaño.

En el caso del **cambio semántico** (la alteración del significado) las palabras adquieren un nuevo significado o modifican su significado original. Por ejemplo, *pantalón* en el s. XVII significa calzón que llega hasta la rodilla, hoy significa calzón que llega a los pies; el verbo *recordar* significaba “despertar o estar alerta”; ahora significa “traer a la memoria”.

2. Si hay lenguas distintas es porque en cada lengua se asigna **un significante distinto (palabra)** a **un significado (objeto)** que puede ser común a todas ellas.

Por ejemplo, al concepto de “**ser humano adulto varón**”

en castellano el significante *hombre*,

en inglés el significante *man* y

en francés el significante *homme*.

Este hecho evidencia que la relación entre significante y significado es **inmotivada o arbitraria**: la relación entre significante y significado no obedece a ningún motivo (*árbol* en español, *tree* en inglés).

Hay **palabras motivadas**, en las que la relación entre significante y significado corresponde a una razón determinada; es decir, el significado se deduce según elementos compuestos.

Son los epónimos y las onomatopeyas.

Los **epónimos** son palabras que se han formado a partir de un nombre de persona. Por ejemplo, *pasteurización* a partir de *Louis Pasteur*, *Mauser* -hermanos constructores alemanes, *reglán*, *Kalashnikov*.

Las **onomatopeyas** son palabras que intentan reproducir un sonido de la realidad extralingüística, como *chichear* o *sisear* (*La conferenciante siseó para pedir silencio*), *guagua* (*Tengo un “guagua” de tres meses*). Pero incluso en las onomatopeyas hay variaciones de una lengua a otra que revelan la arbitrariedad del signo.

Por ejemplo, para representar el ladrido del perro, el castellano emplea *guau-guau*, mientras que el catalán utiliza *bup-bup*. Otros ejemplos coloquiales de las onomatopeyas son: “*tictac*” “*cliquear*”, “*runrún*”, “*quiquiriquí*”, “*bang*”, “*chuic*” “*zas*”, “*piar*”, “*guau*”, “*arf*”, etc.

Además, Al grupo de motivación relativa pertenecen palabras derivadas y compuestas, son motivadas por su estructura morfológica: los significados correspondientes del radical y los afijos. Así, el significado de la palabra estudiante comprende los significados del verbo *estudiar* y el sufijo *-ante* que designa la persona que realiza cierta actividad. *Casa* – *casita*, *pan* – *panadero*, *mediodía*,

sietemesino.

Siguiendo a Saussure, lo arbitrario puede serlo en distintos grados: **absoluto o relativo**. En todas las lenguas se dan los dos tipos de palabras: no existen las lenguas totalmente arbitrarias o totalmente motivadas. El grado absoluto se da sólo en algunos signos (ej: *cara*, *marco*, *pan...*); el relativo se da en todos los demás con distinta intensidad, pero sin llegar nunca a desaparecer.

Si analizamos las partes de las palabras, veremos que unas son “transparentes” (ej: *panadero*) y otras “confusas” (*enmarcar*; todos los verbos acaban en *-ar*, *-er*, *-ir*, pero el valor de estos sufijos gramaticales no es concreto).

3. Significados recto y figurado, libre y fraseológico.

A) El sentido original o primitivo de una palabra se denomina **significado recto o literal**. Por ejemplo, el significado recto de la palabra *morir* es “llegar al término de la vida”; el de *mesa* es “mueble compuesto por un tablero en posición horizontal sostenido por una o varias patas”; el de *gallina* es “tipo de ave”.

En ocasiones, las palabras desarrollan nuevos sentidos a partir de su significado recto. Esos nuevos significados son secundarios y nacen de usos expresivos o de asociaciones indirectas entre el significado primitivo y otra realidad con la que se puede relacionar.

De este modo el verbo *morir* también puede usarse con el significado de “sentir muy intensamente algún deseo, afecto, pasión, emoción...”: *Fuimos a cenar pronto porque Elena se moría de hambre*.

El sustantivo *mesa* desarrolla, por ejemplo, el significado de “comida o alimentos”: *Es amante de la buena mesa*.

El significado figurado de *gallina* es “cobarde”.

Este sentido desplazado de una palabra se llama **significado figurado**.

Basándose en las peculiaridades de combinación de cierta palabra con otras se distinguen **los significados libres y fraseológicos de la palabra**.

B) El funcionamiento de **los significados libres** es determinado por las correlaciones existentes entre objetos, fenómenos, indicios y procesos en la realidad extralingüística, por eso la combinación de las palabras con significados libres puede ser limitada solamente por esta realidad.

Por ejemplo:

El significado original del verbo *andar* —“ir de un lugar a otro dando pasos, caminar” — puede aplicarse a cualquier objeto que es capaz de este tipo del movimiento: hombre, hormiga, caballo, oso, pavo real, etc. : *¿Ha venido andando o en coche?*

El adjetivo *verde* puede formar frases (expresiones) con cualquier sustantivo cuyo referente puede ser verde: árbol, fruto, legumbre, rana, hierba, etc., por ejemplo: *Arranca los rosales que no son verdes*.

Pero las palabras pueden también tener los significados cuya combinación no se determinan por la realidad extralingüística, sino por la misma lengua. Estos son los **significados fraseológicos**. Su peculiaridad es que las palabras que los tienen pueden combinarse sólo con ciertas palabras y formar un **modismo**: expresión propia de una lengua, con un significado unitario que no puede deducirse de las palabras que la forman, y que no tiene traducción literal en otra lengua.

Por ejemplo, la expresión *no dar pie con bola* es un modismo que significa “equivocarse”.

El significado fraseológico del verbo *dar* se realiza en las siguientes expresiones: *dar miedo* (espanto, susto): *Pero si Doña Perfecta no se atreve a ordenar que se den sustos al ingeniero, yo tampoco*. (B. Pérez Galdós)

El verbo *poner* adquiere significados fraseológicos en las expresiones: *poner en olvido*, *poner en duda*, *poner en práctica*, *poner en ejecución*, *poner en marcha*, *poner en libertad* y algunas otras.

El adjetivo *bestial* realiza su significado fraseológico de “de tamaño, cantidad o calidad mayores de lo normal” en combinación con los sustantivos *apetito*, *talento*, *edificio* y algunos otros: *Es un edificio bestial con cien pisos y diez ascensores*.

Una combinación del significado libre y el significado fraseológico de la palabra puede crear un efecto humorístico: *Mi prima tiene un cuadro, pero un cuadro clínico*.

4. Las palabras que se utilizan en una lengua cambian con el tiempo y el uso. Se llama **cambio lingüístico** a la variación de significado que sufren las palabras a lo largo de su historia.

El cambio lingüístico puede afectar a la forma (cambio formal), al significado (cambio semántico) o a su uso (cambio pragmático).

En el caso del **cambio semántico** (la alteración del significado) las palabras adquieren un nuevo significado o modifican su significado original.

Por ejemplo,

pantalón en el s. XVII significa calzón que llega hasta la rodilla, hoy significa calzón que llega a los pies;

el verbo *recordar* significaba “despertar o estar alerta”; ahora significa “traer a la memoria”.

Los cambios semánticos se reducen a: ampliación, restricción, alza y baja del significado.

La **ampliación o extensión del significado** es el uso de una palabra de significado especial en un sentido más general,

por ejemplo: *armarium* designaba un lugar para guardar armas, actualmente es “un mueble para guardar ropas u otros objetos”;

alameda significó primero “paseo de álamos o lugar poblado de ellos”, se aplica ahora a “todo paseo de árboles de cualquier clase”.

La palabra *idioma* significaba la forma de hablar de un individuo, y en la actualidad hace referencia a la lengua de un país.

El sustantivo *salario* procede de sal: se pagaba con el sal;

El sustantivo *tío* que se refería solo a una relación de parentesco —“hermano de mi padre”— ha adquirido otros significados —“compañero, camarada, amigo”.

El adjetivo *bárbaro*, que se aplicó a quien chapurreaba un idioma, amplió su sentido al de extranjero y, más tarde, al de salvaje, cruel, no refinado, etc.

El origen de este proceso se encuentra también en el empleo habitual de una palabra en su sentido figurado. Así, el sustantivo *tacto* ha añadido a su significado primitivo de “sentido corporal con el que se perciben sensaciones de contacto” el de “prudencia para proceder en situaciones delicadas”: *actuar con tacto*.

La ampliación del significado también ocurre cuando una palabra que pertenece a un grupo social restringido pasa a ser usada por un grupo amplio. Es el caso de *azar* que pasó de significar “lanzamiento de los dados” a su significado actual “suerte u oportunidad”.

La ampliación del significado es uno de los procedimientos más comunes de formación de términos científicos. Por ejemplo, las palabras *ratón* y *ventana* han adquirido recientemente una acepción nueva relacionada con la informática.

La **restricción o especialización** del significado original se produce cuando una palabra reduce su campo semántico.

Por ejemplo,
el verbo latino *venire* significaba “ir” y “venir”; en español solo significa “venir”.
En latín *appetitus* tenía el significado “deseo” ”; en español obtuvo el significado de apetito.

El sustantivo latino *peregrinus* “viajero” se transformo en español en *peregrino*;
cuñado antiguamente era “pariente de cualquier clase”, luego se especializó en “pariente político”.

La palabra *retrete* que proveniente del catalán significó cuarto pequeño en la casa o habitación, destinado para retirarse, y ha pasado a significar aposento dotado de las instalaciones necesarias para orinar y evacuar el vientre.

La **baja, desvalorización o empeoramiento del significado** es un proceso contrario: la palabra pierde sus connotaciones positivas y adquiere nuevas connotaciones negativas.

Por ejemplo, *el tío* llegó a designar a “persona extraña o estafalaria”;

ponzoña (veneno) antiguamente significaba “brebaje”, “bebida”.

La palabra *puta* proviene del sustantivo latino *putta* “niña”.

El adjetivo latino *imbecillis* “débil” se transformó en español en *imbécil*, pero para hablar suavemente de un retrasado mental se usa *débil*. Los prejuicios de clase o grupo social determinan también importantes cambios semánticos. Al desprecio que merecían los *villanos* o *rústicos* (“habitantes de una villa”) a los aristócratas y a los ciudadanos se debe el sentido peyorativo de tales voces (“toscos, groseros, indignos e indecorosos”). Ser un *gitano* o *carretero* o *gañán* o *judío* obedece también a tales prejuicios.

El **alza, ennoblecimiento o mejoramiento del significado** es un fenómeno menos común que ocurre cuando una palabra pierde las connotaciones negativas que anteriormente tenía.

Así, el adjetivo *inocente* tuvo el significado de “libre de culpa”, actualmente se aplica a personas cándidas;

bravo (“violento, cruel, salvaje, inculto”) llegó a significar “valiente”;

perro en la Edad Media se empleaba solo como término peyorativo y popular, frente a *can*, vocablo tradicional, hoy está falto de este valor.

El sustantivo *tortuga* procede del lat. tardío *tartarūchus*, “demonio”, y este del gr. tardío *ταρταροῦχος*, “habitante del Tártaro o infierno”, porque los orientales y los antiguos cristianos consideraban que este animal, que habita en el cieno, personificaba el mal. Ahora denota un reptil marino o terrestre.

Comúnmente una palabra puede sufrir varios cambios a la vez, por ejemplo: el sustantivo *disco* (de origen griego) se introdujo en el español a través del latín como “teja de piedra, metal o madera que se utilizaba en los juegos olímpicos”, luego paso a significar por extensión “objeto plano y circular” (un disco de porcelana), que especializó en: a) señal que en ferrocarriles indica si la vía está libre o no; b) señal luminosa para el tráfico; por el desplazamiento del significado hoy se aplica para placas circulares de materia plástica en las que se graba y reproduce el sonido, y gracias a la desvaloración del significado la misma palabra quiere decir “rollo (избитая тема), lata (скучный разговор), cosa pesada”. Ser un disco quebrado – повторять одно и то же.

Вопросы и задания

1. Amplie el significado de las siguientes palabras:

1. Navegar. Antes: por el agua. Nuevo: en... 2. Ratón. Antes: animal. Nuevo: 3. Importar. Antes: de que no me importa. Nuevo: el contrario de... 4. Cabo. Antes: de la vela. Nuevo: del... 5. Portal. Antes: ...a un edificio o casa. Nuevo: página de acceso a un conjunto de paginas en la web. 8.

Cuello. Antes: parte del cuerpo. Nuevo: ... 9. Bajo. Antes: de poca altura. Nuevo: una... 10. Cabeza. Antes: parte superior del cuerpo. Nuevo: de... (planta, condimento). 11. Rabia. Antes: enfermedad que se produce entre algunos animales. Nuevo: enojo... o cólera.

2. Analice los procedimientos del cambio del significado (ampliación, restricción, baja o alza) en los siguientes ejemplos:

1. pastor “ministro religioso” < “persona que guía y cuida al ganado, generalmente el de ovejas”; 2. servicio “beneficio o favor que se hace a otra persona” < lat. *servitium* “servo” “esclavitud”; 3. polémica “discusión de dos o más personas sobre cierta materia, esp. si se hace por escrito” < gr. *polemon* “guerra”; 4. feo “que carece de belleza y hermosura” < *foedus* “espantoso, horripilante” (se decía de un monstruo); 5. chulo “guapo” < “hombre que trafica mujeres” (primera acepción); 6. caballo (en general) < lat. *caballus* “tipo de caballos fuertes usados en el ámbito rural”; 7. bárbaro “salvaje, cruel, no refinado” < “extranjero” < “quien chapurreaba un idioma”; 8. castigar “imponer un castigo (una pena o un daño) por un delito o una falta” < “aconsejar”; 9. maestro “persona que ha adquirido gran experiencia, habilidad o conocimiento en un arte, en una actividad o en una materia” < “maestro de escuela”; 10. república “sistema de gobierno en el que la jefatura del estado está en manos de un presidente elegido por los ciudadanos” < “cualquier forma de estado o de gobierno”; 11. artista “persona que destaca o sobresale en alguna actividad” < “persona que se dedica a alguna de las bellas artes (incluye actores, cantantes y artesanos)” < “persona que se dedica profesionalmente a actuar para un público”; 12. atuendo “conjunto de ropas que viste una persona” < “el conjunto de muebles, ropas... que llevaba el rey en sus desplazamientos”; 13. trabajo “realización de una actividad o de un oficio” < lat. *tripalium* “tres palos: un instrumento de tortura”; 14. lidiar “referido a un toro, esquivarlo siguiendo las reglas del toreo, hasta darle muerte” < “combatir”; 15. romántico “que es muy sentimental o que da mucha importancia a los sentimientos y las emociones” < “un estilo del siglo XIX”; 16. banderilla “en tauromanía, palo delgado y adornado que los toreros clavan en la cerviz del toro en una de las suertes del toreo” < “cualquier bandera pequeña”.

3. ¿Sabría decir el nuevo significado de estas palabras? ¿De qué cambios semánticos se trata?

1. Caballero. Antes: soldado. 2. Ruina. Antes: bancarrota. 3. Dama. Antes: mujer noble. 4. Misil. Antes: objeto arrojado. 5. Problema. Antes: cuestión. 6. Artificial. Antes: hecho por el hombre. 7. Coche. Antes: carruaje. 8. Tienda. Antes: de acampar. 9. Azafata. Antes: criada al servicio de la reina. 10. Retrete. Antes: habitación íntima. 11. Idioma. Antes: forma de hablar de un individuo. 12. Lóbrego. Antes: engañoso y pecaminoso. 13. Mariscal. Antes: el criado que cuidaba de los caballos. 14. Ministro. Antes: una especie de guardián o portero.

4. Analice los cambios en la estructura semántica de la palabra *doctor* que han conducido a formación de nuevos significados a partir del significado primario:

1. Persona que ha recibido el último y preeminente grado académico que confiere una universidad u otro establecimiento autorizado para ello. 2. Persona que enseña una ciencia o arte. 3. Título que da la Iglesia con particularidad a algunos santos que con mayor profundidad de doctrina defendieron la religión o enseñaron lo perteneciente a ella. 4. coloq. Médico, aunque no tenga el grado académico de doctor.

5. Discuta los siguientes tabúes y los procedimientos de formación de los eufemismos correspondientes. Defina en cada caso el tema de los tabúes y los medios de formación de eufemismos: prohibir —desaconsejar insulto — agresión verbal suegra — madre política cárcel — centro o establecimiento penitenciario, preso — interno o recluso carcelero — funcionario

de prisiones deficiencia — discapacidad
enfermo — paciente, enfermero — auxiliar clínico cáncer — mortal o larga enfermedad
cadáver — cuerpo, muertos en un accidente — víctimas
anormalidad — excepcionalidad, alucinaciones — alteraciones perceptivas loco — subnormal,
locura — discapacidad psíquica retrasado mental — persona de desarrollo tardío
manicomio — casa de salud drogarse — autoestimularse suicidio — muerte voluntaria
aborto — interrupción voluntaria del embarazo recesión económica — crisis, despido masivo —
regulación de empleo pobres, necesitados — económicamente débiles, personas con menos recursos
gente sin techo — mendigos, vagabundos país pobre — país en vías de desarrollo terrorista —
activista, víctimas civiles — daños colaterales guerra — intervención militar, conflicto bélico,
conflicto armado aplastamiento militar — pacificación matanza racista — limpieza étnica, tortura —
métodos de persuasión adulterio

Лабораторная работа7.

Тема 7. Materia de la Gramática Teórica. Sistema de nociones generales de la Gramática teórica. Partes de la oración

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. Los objetivos y tareas de la Gramática teórica.
2. Nociones generales de la Gramática teórica:
 - significado gramatical;
 - forma gramatical;
 - categoría gramatical.
3. Paradigma gramatical. Relaciones paradigmáticas.
4. Sintagma. Relaciones sintagmáticas.
5. Norma y el uso.

Теоретическая часть

La gramática tiene dos clases principales: *teórica y práctica*.

La gramática **teórica** parte de unos principios metodológicos precisos, compara el sistema formal de un idioma con el sistema formal de otros idiomas, tiende a determinar el tipo lingüístico general del idioma dado, observa las tendencias nuevas de su desarrollo, fija las relaciones entre la gramática y otros aspectos del idioma (fonético, léxico, estilístico).

El objetivo de la gramática teórica es la fijación, sistematización y depuración de las normas del idioma.

Morfología y sintaxis

La gramática se subdivide en *morfología* y *sintaxis*. La **morfología** es la ciencia que estudia el accidente (cambio) gramatical. El término procede del griego *morphē* forma y *lógos* ciencia. La palabra *sintaxis* procede del griego *syntaxis*, que significa con orden. Esto quiere decir, que enseña a coordinar y unir las palabras para formar las oraciones.

A la **sintaxis** corresponde estudiar el contexto como tal, es decir, las agrupaciones de palabras conexas o relacionadas entre sí. La sintaxis estudia todo lo que está ligado a la oración, las relaciones de las palabras en la oración, el orden de las palabras.

Pero no siempre fue así. A principios del siglo XIX se estudió en general la morfología, la sintaxis se desarrolló más tarde. Entonces la morfología estudiaba solamente las formas, mientras que la sintaxis se dedicaba al estudio del significado de esas formas y la oración en general. Así, los tiempos gramaticales, porejemplo, se estudiaban en distintas partes de la gramática: sus formas en la morfología y sus significados en la sintaxis.

La morfología actual estudia no sólo las formas gramaticales, sino sus significados también.

No todos los lingüistas consideran lógica la división de la morfología y la sintaxis. F. de Saussure no las separaba en su estudio.

Resumiendo lo dicho subrayemos que la morfología estudia las palabras y sus formas, la sintaxis las relaciones entre estas palabras. Pero aquí hay muchas exclusiones. Por ejemplo, la declinación del sustantivo ruso expresa las relaciones entre las palabras pero se estudia en la morfología. Al mismo tiempo, algunas formas temporales (*voy a leer*) se estudian en la morfología aunque se trata también de las relaciones entre las palabras. Así se considera que en la morfología se analizan todos los tipos de las formas de las palabras y hasta las formas que están ligadas a la expresión de las relaciones entre las palabras. La morfología extrae las palabras de su contexto para clasificarlas en diferentes grupos según las funciones de que son capaces.

A pesar de todas las dificultades la división entre la morfología y la sintaxis es justa y es fundada en la conveniencia metódica para examinar el lenguaje desde diferentes puntos de vista. Cuando la morfología clasifica las palabras como partes de la oración, se vale a menudo de conceptos funcionales o sintácticos. Cuando la sintaxis establece las reglas de la concordancia, no hace más que ajustar el sistema de formas gramaticales estudiado en la morfología. Estp nos muestra una penetración recíproca de las dos partes en que se divide la gramática.

Concepto de las partes de la oración

El problema de las partes de la oración es uno de los principales de la gramática del idioma español. Pero al mismo tiempo este problema se caracteriza por el mayor número de contradicciones.

En la gramática española suele emplearse el término *partes de la oracion*, aunque no es exacto, pues ha do tomarse en su significado más bien sintáctico. Se han ofrecido otras nominaciones: *clases de palabras*, *partes del discurso*. Pero es de notar que el término *clases de palabras* es demasiado amplio y se caracteriza por cierta ambligüedad, pues las palabras pueden dividirse en clases a base de cualquier criterio. El término partes del discurso, que se emplea en

varios idiomas, tampoco se ha adoptado en la gramática española, pues la palabra *discurso* en la lengua española se refiere también al arte oratorio.

A pesar de todos los inconvenientes el término *partes de la oración* se mantiene en la gramática española debido a su larga y fuerte tradición.

Algunos gramáticos renuncian a la clasificación de las partes de la oración. Una de las causas consiste en que las diferencias entre las partes de la oración pueden neutralizarse en ciertas posiciones sintácticas. Por ejemplo, en la función de atributo, después del verbo *ser* se quita la diferencia entre el sustantivo y adjetivo: *Soy ruso; Es española*.

A este problema se añade también la transposición de las partes de la oración: *deber* (verbo)— *deber* (sustantivo), *rápido* (adjetivo)— *rápido* (adverbio), etc. La dificultad en este caso consiste en numerosas vacilaciones y en la existencia de numerosos casos intermedios, cuando una misma unidad lingüística se caracteriza por los rasgos propios de diferentes categorías: *¿Donde vives?; La casa donde vivo; Voy a donde no me llaman*.

Por otra parte, ¿a qué clase de palabras podemos referir las unidades *aun, pues, no, si, mismo, que*, etc.?

Sin embargo, tradicionalmente se viene considerando la existencia de las partes de la oración, que son las más grandes clases de palabras. Dichas clases de palabras se caracterizan por sus rasgos semánticos y formales muy específicos y se unen a base de tres características esenciales: concepto que expresan (objeto, proceso, cualidad), comunidad de categorías gramaticales (género, número, persona, tiempo, modo, etc.); identidad de funciones sintácticas (sujeto, predicado, complementos).

Si partimos de estos criterios, podemos dividir el vocabulario español en dos dominios gramaticales:

Palabras significantes o conceptuales, que son independientes formal y semánticamente: sustantivo, verbo, adjetivo, adverbio, numeral. Indican uno de los conceptos del entorno: objeto, proceso, cualidad, etc.

Palabras auxiliares, que se representan por las palabras de relación sintáctica y sirven para indicar diferentes relaciones entre los conceptos (de dirección, lugar, tiempo, modo, cualidad, causa, fin, etc.). Son preposiciones y conjunciones. El segundo grupo lo constituyen las palabras que construyen diferentes categorías morfológicas: artículos, partículas, verbos auxiliares.

2. Ojeada histórica

El problema de clasificar las partes de la oración tiene una historia bastante larga. Aristóteles dividió todas las palabras del idioma griego en cuatro partes: nombre, verbo, miembro (artículo), cópula (conjunción). Mas tarde fueron clasificadas ocho partes de la oración: nombre, verbo, preposición, conjunción, pronombre, participio, adverbio, artículo. La gramática romana no tiene artículo, pero distingue la interjección.

En la edad media no se diferencia el sustantivo del adjetivo en la categoría del nombre en general. Largo tiempo el participio no se diferenció del verbo, la interjección del adverbio.

Había existido también la opinión que las verdaderas partes de la oración son sólo dos: nombre y verbo, las demás son morfemas.

La Academia española en el transcurso de muchos siglos ofreció distinto número de las partes de la oración. Hoy la Gramática de la Academia clasifica las siguientes: nombre sustantivo, nombre adjetivo, pronombre, artículo, verbo, adverbio, preposición, conjunción, interjección.

3. Criterios seguidos en la clasificación

Los gramáticos al distinguir las partes de la oración ofrecen diferentes principios de clasificar las palabras del idioma – semánticos y formales – atendiendo a la forma de la palabra, a su función sintáctica, a su conceptualidad.

El criterio morfológico se basa en determinar la morfología de las palabras. Este criterio se consideró el básico en la clasificación tradicional. Distingue entre las palabras variables y las invariables, pues se basa en el accidente gramatical. variables son las palabras que poseen morfemas flexivos con las diferencias aspectuales, temporales, modales en el verbo o en las diferencias entre los morfemas del singular o plural, del masculino o femenino en el nombre. Las demás palabras son invariables y según este criterio se refieren a las partículas. De lo dicho vemos que este criterio no es suficiente, aunque sí, es bastante importante. La Gramática de la Academia se atiene al criterio morfológico siempre que sea posible.

El criterio sintáctico o funcional consiste en clasificar las palabras según su función sintáctica. En la gramática española este principio fue formulado por A. Bello. Así, pues, a los sustantivos se refieren todas las palabras que pueden ser sujeto, al verbo se refieren las que pueden interpretar el oficio del predicado.

Pero este criterio tampoco es suficiente para clasificar las partes de la oración. Cada palabra analizada fuera de la oración, aisladamente, puede ser clasificada como sustantivo, verbo, adjetivo, etc. Además la significación sintáctica del sustantivo no consiste sólo en ser sujeto, sino el sustantivo puede ser cualquier complemento: directo, indirecto, circunstancial, modificador.

El criterio lógico parte de que cada parte de la oración corresponde a algo en el entorno y se correlaciona con las categorías lógicas. Así, el sustantivo corresponde al concepto de substancia, adjetivo a la cualidad, verbo al proceso, etc. Pero el sustantivo puede expresar no sólo la substancia, sino también la cualidad (*blancura, bondad*), proceso (*llegada, ida, corrida*), número (*centenario, docena*). El verbo, por ejemplo, puede significar no sólo la acción, sino el estado (*yacer*), la cualidad (*blanquear*), etc.

El criterio psicológico lo ofrecieron en su clasificación A. Alonso y P. Henríquez Ureña. Aquí se confunden las palabras como tales y las categorías de nuestro pensamiento y también las formas de expresarlas. Así, los sustantivos son palabras con la ayuda de las cuales determinamos los objetos que son independientes, mientras que los verbos y adjetivos son palabras dependientes con las cuales determinamos la conducta de estos objetos. Confrontemos dos ejemplos: sol esplandeciente y resplandor solar. En la primera expresión el concepto independiente es sol, que es sustantivo, en el segundo ejemplo la palabra resplandor es independiente, desempeñando la función de sustantivo, y solar expresa un concepto que depende de resplandor convirtiéndose en el adjetivo.

Si partimos del criterio psicológico muchas palabras quedan fuera de la clasificación. Por ejemplo, verbos copulativos, verbos unipersonales, artículos, pronombres, etc., pues no revelan la conducta de los objetos.

El criterio semasiológico clasifica las palabras según qué significan: substancia, cualidad, proceso. Pero al mismo tiempo se toman en consideración sus características formales: accidentes del número, género, modo, tiempo, aspecto, voz, etc. Es un criterio mixto y se considera el más perspectivo, pues no se basa en un solo principio, sino en el conjunto de principios significantes y formales.

4. Transposición de las partes de la oración

La *transposición* es el empleo de una palabra representante de una parte de la oración en la función de otra. Tiene mucha importancia en el idioma, pues sirve para ampliar las posibilidades nominativas del idioma. Existen los siguientes tipos de la transposición.

Según el resultado de la transposición

Sintáctica: se considera eventual o ocasional, pues se realiza sólo en el proceso de hablar. La palabra no cambia su pertenencia a la determinada parte de la oración, sino ocasionalmente cambia su oficio sintáctico: *Ella se despidió con un sí y un beso sonámbulos; Con cuidado de no herirle, evitando el no, Inés dio largas al asunto; No quiero admitir ningunos peros.*

Los casos de la sustantivación de adjetivos y participios con el artículo neutro también se han considerado como transposición sintáctica: *lo malo, lo trágico, lo vivido*, etc. Dichas palabras no adquieren los accidentes del sustantivo, sino quedan a medio camino entre el sustantivo y adjetivo (o participio),

Morfólogo-sintáctica: es regular, porque son formas no personales del verbo (infinitivo, gerundio, participio). Cada infinitivo es la transposición del verbo en el sustantivo. La forma del gerundio combina los rasgos sintácticos y morfológicos del verbo y del adverbio, mientras que el participio los rasgos verbales con los del adjetivo.

Morfológica: se realiza cuando la palabra adquiere las características morfológicas de otra parte de la oración: *deber* (verbo) – *el deber* (sustantivo); *bajo* (adjetivo) — *bajo*. (adverbio) – *bajo* (conjunción); *ayer* (adverbio) — *el ayer* (sustantivo).

La transposición siempre empieza con la transposición sintáctica, es decir, cambian sólo las funciones de la palabra en la cadena hablante. Cuando el proceso afecta a las características morfológicas de la palabra, se realiza otra etapa, que es la transposición morfológica. Pues sólo en esto el proceso se considera realizado hasta el final.

Según el método de la realización

Afijación, que es la formación de una nueva palabra por medio de afijos: *verde* (adjetivo) — *verdura* (sustantivo); *pie* (sustantivo) — *piedal* (adjetivo); *lento* (adjetivo) — *lentamente* (adverbio); *obligar* (verbo) – *obligación* (sustantivo).

Conversión, que es la traslación de la palabra a otra parte de la oración sin cambiar su forma: *poder* (verbo) – *poder* (sustantivo); *claro* (adjetivo) — *claro* (adverbio); *hecho* (participio – *hecho* (sustantivo), etc.

Según la parte de la oración

Según la parte de la oración la transposición está representada por la sustantivación (*el andar, el callar, el enfermo, la vista*); adjetivación (*el alumno modelo, el color rosa, el médico poeta, muy amigo mío*); adverbialización (*hablar bajo, andar lento*), etc.

En los casos cuando todo un sintagma se somete a la traslación, se trata de la transposición sintagmática: *Vendrá no importa quien; Siempre me cuenta no sé que*. Es un fenómeno histórico, pues así se formaron los pronombres *nosotros, vosotros, cualquiera. cualquiera* o los sustantivos *hidalgo, correveidile*, etc.

Preguntas para discutir

1. ¿Qué estudia la Gramática como ciencia?
2. ¿A qué están destinadas las gramáticas descriptivas?
3. ¿Qué diferencia hay entre las descriptivas y las normativas?
4. ¿Qué deficiencias son características de la gramática normativa?
5. ¿Qué condiciones debemos tomar en cuenta, echando la vista a la gramática práctica?
6. ¿Para qué sirven las gramáticas históricas?
7. ¿En qué consiste el enfoque de las gramáticas estructurales?

8. Qué corriente moderno nació a base de las ideas de la escuela estructural fundada por Noam Chomsky?
 9. ¿Qué ciencia está vinculada a la escuela funcional?
 10. ¿Qué clase de gramáticas es más útil?
 11. ¿Qué es la categoría gramatical?
 12. ¿Qué condiciones indispensables deben existir para la categoría gramatical?
- Nombre datos esenciales del desarrollo histórico de las teorías de partes de la oración?
13. ¿Qué clasificación propuso Antonio de Nebrija?
 14. ¿Cómo evolucionaron las ideas lingüísticas de la RAE vinculadas a la problemática de la clasificación de las palabras?
 15. ¿Qué principios toman en cuenta los gramáticos para hacer una clasificación de las palabras digna de crédito?
 16. Analice los principios a base de los cuales los gramáticos elaboran sus clasificaciones. Explique sus logros y deficiencias.
 17. ¿En qué grupos se dividen las palabras a base del criterio semántico y funcional?
 18. ¿Qué posición ocupan las interjecciones?

Лабораторная работа8

Тема 8. Categoría gramatical del tiempo. Sistema temporal del español

Цель: развитие умения аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические знания в области иностранного языкознания и применять их на практике, дать критический анализ лингвистических теорий.

Формируемые компетенции:

УК-1 - Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач.

ОПК-1 - Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях

ОПК-5 - Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач.

Актуальность: необходимость формирования комплекса знаний, умений и навыков в области современного иностранного языка, позволяющих сформировать языковую компетенцию в объеме, необходимом для профессиональной деятельности лингвиста и специалиста по межкультурной коммуникации.

Вопросы для собеседования:

1. El tiempo objetivo y el tiempo verbal: los tiempos absolutos y relativos.
2. Categoría gramatical del tiempo:
 - a) sistema paradigmático de formas temporales;
 - b) el tiempo presente y sus valores gramaticales;
 - c) los tiempos con valores del pasado;
 - d) los tiempos con valores del futuro, su semántica y funcionamiento;
 - e) los tiempos del subjuntivo.

Теоретическая часть

Тiempo

1. El tiempo verbal señala en qué momento se produce la acción que el verbo designa. Partiendo del **momento de hablar** la acción verbal refleja la simultaneidad (presente), posterioridad (los futuros), anterioridad (los pretéritos). La temporalidad puede expresarse también por medios léxicos (por ejemplo, los adverbios *antes*, *ahora*, *después*) pero sólo el verbo posee morfemas gramaticales de tiempo.
2. Los tiempos verbales pueden designar acciones independientes con un valor fijo absoluto, señalando sólo una época precisa de su realización. Son tiempos **absolutos**: presente, pretérito perfecto, pretérito indefinido y futuro simple de indicativo. Los demás tiempos son **relativos**, pues designan acciones dependientes de otras acciones: pretérito imperfecto, pretérito pluscuamperfecto, pretérito anterior, futuro perfecto, potencial (simple y compuesto) y todos los tiempos de modo subjuntivo.
3. Finalmente, el español distingue entre los tiempos **perfectos e imperfectos**. Los perfectos expresan la acción como acabada o consumada. Los imperfectos expresen la acción como no terminada todavía, incompleta en su ejecución.

Significación de los tiempos del indicativo

PRESENTE

Es un tiempo que abarca un lapso de tiempo muy considerable:

El presente puntual o instantáneo supone la coincidencia exacta con el momento de la enunciación: *Os declaro marido y mujer*.

El presente actual es el uso más común del presente. Designa la acción que tiene lugar en el momento del discurso, implicando a veces su duración anterior o posterior: *Te amo hace muchos años*.

El presente habitual indica acciones habituales, acostumbradas: *Todas las mañanas tomo chocolate*.

El presente descriptivo corresponde a la descripción de una persona, de la naturaleza o de una situación: *Tiene algo de decaído, de irremediablemente cansado. En el rostro, los surcos son más profundos*.

El presente atemporal o gnómico no sitúa la acción en ningún momento concreto sino que refleja hechos que se consideran universalmente válidos. Es propio del discurso científico y de proverbios y refranes: *Los planetas describen órbitas elípticas. Quien mucho abarca, poco aprieta*.

Usos traslaticios.

El presente histórico tiene valor de pasado. Su uso lleva matices estilísticos: *César se resuelve, pasa el Rubicón y avanza con sus tropas amenazando a Roma*.

El presente pro futuro implica una acción sentida como próxima y segura: *El año que viene me marcharé de Alicante*.

El presente coloquial se emplea en vez del pretérito perfecto o indefinido en el habla coloquial: *¿A qué vienes?*

El presente de mandato sustituye el imperativo o el subjuntivo de mandato con varios matices (orden, petición, prohibición): *¡No lo haces!; Mañana vas a la peluquería*.

El presente interrogativo se emplea para pedir aprobación o permiso: *¿Me lo explicas?; ¿Me quito el abrigo?; ¿La mato o la perdono?*

El presente de estilo indirecto se emplea en el estilo coloquial y en la prensa en vez del imperfecto: *Nos comunicaron que en la Dogaresa decoran las paredes*.

El presente irreal sustituye los tiempos pasados del subjuntivo o potencial compuesto en el habla familiar: *Si no hubiera venido, no pasa nada.*

FUTURO

En su **significado temporal** denota acciones que siguen al momento de la enunciación: *Te prometo que les visitaré lo más pronto posible; Cuando vengas ya habremos puesto la mesa.*

Usos traslaticios.

El futuro modal expresa la probabilidad, suposición en el presente (futuro hipotético: *¿Por qué será? ¿Con quién hablará? Se habrán ido todos ya.* Puede expresar también la indignación, sorpresa, incompresión (futuro de sorpresa): *¿Qué se habrá imaginado usted?*

El futuro de mandato se emplea en vez del modo imperativo en el habla coloquial o en el estilo oficial para formular órdenes, instrucciones: *¡No matarás!; Los candidatos entregarán las instancias debidamente cumplimentadas.*

El futuro atemporal o gnómico en el estilo científico o en refranes, proverbios expresa acciones generalizadas sin referirlas a ningún momento concreto: *Dos y dos serán cuatro; Casarás y amansarás.*

El futuro de cortesía aparece en fórmulas hechas; es equivalente al imperfecto con dicho valor: *¿Querrá usted hacerme el paso?*

El futuro histórico se emplea con matices estilísticos para expresar acciones pasadas representadas como futuras respecto al plan pasado: *Colón descubrirá América en 1492.*

PRETERITO PERFECTO

Indica acciones pasadas y acabadas que mantienen cierta relación con el presente. Esta acción perfectiva puede ser recién acabada al momento de hablar o realizada en un período de tiempo no terminado todavía o realizada en todo su volumen en un lapso de tiempo concreto (con los adverbios *siempre, nunca, más de una vez*, etc.): *El niño se ha caído de la silla; Hoy han desfilado los soldados frente a nuestra casa; Nunca han sonado tan dulces palabras en los oídos de Esteban.*

Usos traslaticios.

Se emplea **en vez del indefinido** para subrayar la vinculación afectiva con el presente: *Mi vecino ha muerto el año pasado.*

En vez del pluscuamperfecto se emplea en la prensa o en el habla familiar: *Te dije que han prolongado la sobremesa más que de costumbre.*

En vez del futuro se emplea con fines expresivos para denotar una acción futura y no pasada: *Si eres tan feroz con él, hemos perdido todo.*

PRETERITO INDEFINIDO

El pretérito indefinido denominado también pretérito perfecto simple tiene, frente al imperfecto, valor aspectual perfectivo. Denota acciones acabadas cuyo comienzo, fin, límites tienen importancia para el que habla.

El indefinido puntual denota acciones momentáneas: *Uno de los presos saltó de su petate.*

El indefinido inicial indica el inicio de la acción: *Y la música sonó.*

El indefinido de **acciones sucesivas**: *Llegaron los dos, se acercaron a Estéban y echaron a andar a su lado estirándose, estirándose.*

El indefinido puede expresar **acciones repetidas** tomadas en todo su volumen (*Muchas veces le despertó la sacudida del tren al hacer alto*) o **acciones durativas** pero con límites (*Durante todo el tiempo Joaquín esperó ávido otra visión*).

Usos traslaticios.

Puede emplearse en vez de otros tiempos:

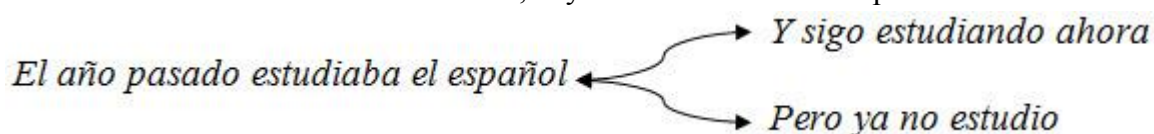
En vez del pretérito Perfecto: *No me fui al monte hoy.* El español de América ha eliminado el pretérito perfecto sustituyéndolo por el indefinido: *¡Qué bueno que viniste!*

En vez del pluscuamperfecto en diferentes estilos: *Me preguntaron por qué pedí perdón a aquel mastodonte; Comprendí que se resignó a su emigración forzosa.*

En vez del futuro se emplea con varios matices expresivos: *Si sigues levantando castillos en el viento, me fui.*

PRETÉRITO IMPERFECTO

Su valor aspectual es imperfectivo, como señala nombre: no se indica si la acción ha acabado o no. Pero suele denotar acciones no acabadas, cuyos límites no tienen importancia.



El imperfecto coexistente indica acción simultánea a otra acción imperfectiva del pasado (*Cuando paseábamos por la ciudad contemplábamos los antiguos edificios*) o acción imperfectiva del pasado que se interrumpe por otra perfecta, por lo cual se llama también co-pretérito (*Se preguntó en casa mientras cenábamos*).

El imperfecto habitual indica acciones acostumbradas, repetidas del pasado: *Llevaba a su madre alguna chuchería, intentaba animarla sin conseguirlo y se despedía hasta el día siguiente.*

El imperfecto descriptivo sirve para la descripción de la naturaleza o del personaje: *Bajo los ojillos mbríos, que parecían mirar hacia dentro, el promontorio nasal casi sepultaba los labios bailones.*

Usos traslaticios.

El imperfecto estilístico o pintoresco sustituye el pretérito indefinido en los textos literarios, históricos: *Se llevó las manos a la cara y exclamaba: ¡Cuánto se parece ella a su madre!*

El imperfecto se emplea también **en vez del pretérito perfecto** en el habla familiar (*¿De qué hablabais hoy?*) y **en vez del pluscuamperfecto** en todos los estilos (*Me escribieron en la carta los tíos que conocían a Vicente en la pensión*).

El imperfecto de estilo indirecto sustituye el presente conforme a la concordancia de los tiempos: *Comprendí que le faltaban ganas de vivir.*

El imperfecto de cortesía o desiderativo refleja la atenuación cortés en ciertas fórmulas: *¿Qué deseaba el señor? Yo quería una taza de café.*

El imperfecto de conato expresa el empeño, intento y refleja acciones que estaban a punto de realizarse: *Yo ya me iba cuando sonó el teléfono; Juan moría ya pero lo salvó el amor y la compasión de Mariluz.*

El imperfecto irreal sustituye a veces al potencial en el habla coloquial: *Con ese tipo no me casaba yo ni a tiros.*

El imperfecto lúdico (del latín *ludus*: juego) en el habla infantil designa realidades fingidas que se proponen como materia de juego: *Yo era un pirata y tú venías y me atacabas.*

PRETÉRITO PLUSCUAMPERFECTO Y PRETÉRITO ANTERIOR

Ambos tiempos indican una acción anterior a otra acción también pasada. A. Bello los denomina antepretéritos.

El pretérito anterior, que es en desuso, a diferencia del pluscuamperfecto expresa la anterioridad inmediata a un momento del pasado: *Cuando hubo terminado, me llamó.*

El pluscuamperfecto puede sustituir el pretérito perfecto y el indefinido con fines expresivos: *Había advertido el pasmo en el cara de Valdés; Ya está bien en hacer el idiota: ya habías comprendido todo.*

El pluscuamperfecto irreal sustituye el potencial compuesto en el habla familiar: *Si lo hubieras visto aquel momento, te habías muerto.*

A veces el pluscuamperfecto puede sustituirse en el estilo libresco por **el imperfecto de subjuntivo** en su forma en *-ra*, que históricamente no es subjuntivo sino indicativo: *A falta de una vivienda adecuada, dormían en el cuartito de la escuela que en otro tiempo ocupara el maestro don Silvestre.*

LOS TIEMPOS DEL SUBJUNTIVO

Los tiempos del subjuntivo, a diferencia de los del indicativo, no relacionan la acción con un momento concreto del eje temporal. En este sentido no son verdaderos tiempos y son en realidad tiempos relativos respecto a los tiempos del indicativo. Su valor temporal es muy borroso. Si el presente de subjuntivo puede expresar acción presente o futura, los tiempos del pretérito pueden referirse al pasado, al presente y al futuro: *No creo que pueda decir la verdad; Cuando hayas hecho los deberes te permitiré salir; Me miras como si dijera tonterías; Dudo que ayer confundieran un vagón de ferrocarril con una cochiguera; Si fueses a Alemania, aquellos terminaría pronto; etc.*

Con frecuencia la selección de uno u otro tiempo establece el grado de probabilidad que el hablante atribuye a lo dicho: *¡Ojalá esté aquí! ¡Ojalá estuviera aquí.*

Вопросы и задания

1. Complete las frases poniéndolas en el pasado:

1. Entraron en la sala después de que
2. Cuando....., ya habíamos terminado.
3. He sabido que..... .
4. Me han dicho que..... de casa.
5. ¿Ha sido usted el que?
6. Le habían contado que
7. Haré lo que
8. Mientras trabajaba en aquella compañía
9. Se enfadó tanto que
10. que pintasteis la habitación de blanco.
11. Cuando era niño
12. Se bañaba en la playa los días cuando
13. No tenía ni idea de que vosotros
14. La profesora recogía los exámenes a medida que
15. Apenas dijo que y perdió el conocimiento.

2. Traduzca al español, prestando la atención a la concordancia de los tiempos

1. Пришел господин, который позвонил Вам вчера.
2. К настоящему времени мы продали двадцать пар обуви из той партии, что получили месяц назад.
3. Меня спросили: в какой книге я это прочитал, и я не мог вспомнить, пока мне не помог брат.

4. Бедная женщина рассказала, что *чуть не* умерла от страха, когда увидела, что на корабле был поднят пиратский флаг.
5. Он потерял те самые часы, которые мечтал купить долгое время, и ради которых проработал три месяца грузчиком в порту.
6. На высоком берегу реки стоял город, который был построен в 13-ом веке людьми, покинувшими родные места из-за нашествия (*invasión*) татар.
7. В декабре 2000 года в селе Михайловское (Псковская область) был установлен памятник обычному зайцу; под памятником написано: «Спасителю Пушкина-солнца русской поэзии». Известно, что, узнав о решении декабристов выступить на Сенатской площади, А.С. Пушкин немедленно отправился в Петербург, чтобы быть вместе с друзьями, но, когда сани (*trineo*) уже выехали со двора, дорогу перебежал заяц — это считалось плохой приметой, и Пушкин решил вернуться домой.
8. Раньше она училась в театральной студии, но в последнее время увлеклась живописью.
9. Светофор сломался, и на перекрестке собралось много машин, которые не могли выехать из пробки.
10. Когда ему предложили поднять тост за именинницу, он не был готов и сказал что-то такое нелепое, что покраснел и замолчал.
11. Мы были уверены, что она уже уехала из города, но оказалось, что она передумала (*cambiar de idea*).
12. Он никогда не был в Лас Вегасе, хотя много слышал об этом городе-казино.
13. Я никогда прежде не читал Варгаса Льосу и впервые взял в руки его книгу в прошлом году.
14. Когда донна Роза познакомилась с доном Педро поближе, она открыла для себя, что Педро — очень многогранная (*polifacética*) личность: раздражительный, как капризная дама, настойчивый, как баран, и глупый, как пробка.
15. Урожай кукурузы оказался больше, чем крестьяне предполагали, когда засеяли поле.

3. Transforme los infinitivos en algún tiempo de pasado:

Moyano (emigrar) a América cuando (ser) ... un chiquillo y (emplearse) ... en el almacén de comestibles de Rómulo Cussi.

El patrono (ser) ... un hombre tiránico y de feroz tacañería que (explotar) ... implacablemente a su servidor. Para ver si (cambiar) ... en protector al despiadado patrono, el pobre muchacho le (pedir) ... la mano de su hija. Si le hubiera pedido una lata de salmón en conserva, don Rómulo (reírse) ... cruelmente de sus pretensiones; pero como su hija no le (servir) ... para nada, se le (ceder) Desde entonces Moyano (tener) ... que vestir y alimentar a la joven y todo (ser) ... peor. La situación (llegar) ... a ser insostenible y el dependiente (dedicar) ... las pocas horas que se le (conceder) ... para el sueño a buscar un recurso para vengarse de su suegro. (Haber) ... que proceder con tanto cuidado, que otro que no hubiera estado tan desesperado como Moyano, (desistir) ... de sus propósitos.

Pero Moyano (hacer) algo singular: (comprarse) ... un coche aprovechando las facilidades que se (conceder) ... para ese tipo de compras, (adiestrarse) ... en su manejo y (esperar)

Un domingo, de madrugada, cuando el señor Cussi (salir) ... del casino, Moyano, que le (aguardar) ... en las inmediaciones, (poner) ... en marcha su coche y (avanzar) ... hacia él. Puede que D. Rómulo estuviera ya sobresaltado, puede que obedeciera a una corazonada del momento.

El caso es que apenas (ver) ... que (aproximarse) ... el coche de su yerno, (calarse) ... el sombrero y (apretar) ... a correr.

El automóvil de Moyano (poder) ... hacer 80 km a la hora, pero D. Romulo lo (mantener) ... mucho tiempo detrás, zigzagueando, corriendo alrededor de las farolas y apelando a otros trucos que, en la carrera normal, (ser) ... suficientes para descalificarlo. Aun así, (llegar) ... a desarrollar una media de cuarenta. Moyano (poder) ... llevarlo hacia ... una avenida, donde D. Rómulo no (tener) ... más remedio que correr en línea recta. Entonces (empezar) ... a perder terreno. (Deber) ... de darse cuenta porque (exclamar) ... en tono dolorido: «¡Y yo que he salido con mi sombrero nuevo! Y poco después:

— Si escapo de ésta, los zapatos por lo menos no servirán para nada. Al tomar una curva se le (escapar) el sombrero, un sombrero carísimo, su único lujo y su único amor; y no (poder, él) ... recogerlo.

El coche de Moyano se lo (aplantar)

— Bueno, ¡esto ya (ser) ... el colmo! — (gruñir) ... el señor Cussi y se (dejar) ... atropellar sin hacer el menor esfuerzo.

Moyano lo (heredar) ... todo y como su coche (estar) asegurado para esta clase de accidentes, la compañía le (pagar) ... un buen puñado de dinero.

W. Fernández Flórez El hombre que compró un automóvil

МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ И ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ
Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение
высшего образования
«СЕВЕРО-КАВКАЗСКИЙ ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

**МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ УКАЗАНИЯ ДЛЯ СТУДЕНТОВ ПО ОРГАНИЗАЦИИ
САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ
ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ
ОСНОВЫ ТЕОРИИ ВТОРОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА**

Направление подготовки	<u>45.03.02 Лингвистика</u>
Направленность (профиль)	<u>Теория и методика преподавания иностранных языков и культур</u>
Год начала обучения	<u>2026</u>
Форма обучения	<u>очная</u>
Реализуется в семестре	<u>7</u>

Ставрополь, 2026 г.

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4. Методические рекомендации по изучению теоретического материала
5. Методические рекомендации (по видам работ, предусмотренных рабочей программой дисциплины)
6. Список литературы, использованной при составлении методических рекомендаций

1. Введение

Методические указания по организации самостоятельной работы студентов по дисциплине «Основы теории второго иностранного языка» разработаны в соответствии с рабочей программой дисциплины по направлению подготовки 45.03.02 – Лингвистика.

Основной формой работы студента является не только работа на лекции, изучение конспекта лекций, их дополнение рекомендованной литературой, но и внеаудиторная деятельность, которая позволит хорошо усвоить изучаемый материал, заложить основы лингвистических знаний.

Цель самостоятельной работы студентов в процессе изучения дисциплины дисциплине «Основы теории второго иностранного языка» – научить студента работать: 1) с учебным материалом по дисциплине, 2) с научной информацией, актуальными исследованиями в области теории английского языка.

2. Общая характеристика самостоятельной работы студента при изучении дисциплины

Самостоятельная работа студента в рамках дисциплины «Основы теории второго иностранного языка» понимается как планируемая учебная работа, выполняемая во внеаудиторное (аудиторное) время по заданию и при методическом руководстве преподавателя, но без его непосредственного участия.

Организация самостоятельной работы студентов заключается в создании психолого-дидактических условий развития интеллектуальной инициативы и теоретического мышления студента.

Самостоятельная работа направлена на формирование следующих компетенций:

Код, формулировка компетенции	Код, формулировка индикатора	Планируемые результаты обучения по дисциплине (модулю), характеризующие этапы формирования компетенций, индикаторов
УК-1 Способен осуществлять поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применять системный подход для решения поставленных задач	ИД-1 УК-1. выделяет проблемную ситуацию, осуществляет ее многофакторный анализ и диагностику на основе системного подхода ИД-2 УК-1. осуществляет поиск, отбор и систематизацию информации для определения альтернативных вариантов стратегических решений в проблемной ситуации ИД-3 УК-1. определяет и оценивает риски возможных вариантов решений проблемной ситуации, выбирает оптимальный вариант её решения	Осуществляет поиск, критический анализ и синтез информации, применяя системный подход для решения профессиональных задач

ОПК-1 Способен применять систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях, орфографии и пунктуации, о закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностях	ИД-1 ОПК-1. идентифицирует основные явления и процессы, отражающие функционирование языкового строя изучаемого иностранного языка в синхронии и диахронии ИД-2 ОПК-1. демонстрирует умения использовать иностранный язык на фонетическом, лексическом, грамматическом, синтаксическом и стилистическом уровне	Применяет систему лингвистических знаний об основных фонетических лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлениях и закономерностях функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка
ОПК-5 Способен работать с компьютером как средством получения, обработки и управления информацией для решения профессиональных задач	ИД-1 ОПК-5. корректно использует профильные информационные ресурсы информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», рациональные приемы поиска и применения программных продуктов лингвистического профиля ИД-2 ОПК-5. понимает принципы поиска и обработки необходимой информации, содержащейся в специальной литературе, энциклопедических, толковых, исторических, этимологических словарях, словарях сочетаемости, включая профильные электронные ресурсы	Эффективно применяет компьютер как средство получения, обработки и управления информацией для достижения задач в области лингвистики и межкультурной коммуникации

Задачи самостоятельной работы:

- формировать навыки самостоятельной работы с учебной и научной литературой;
- расширить лингвистический кругозор студентов;
- повысить уровень подготовленности к лабораторным работам за счет овладения дополнительным материалом из источников, как рекомендованных преподавателем, так и найденных самостоятельно.

Таким образом, самостоятельная работа развивает навыки научно–исследовательской деятельности в избранной профессиональной области.

1. План–график выполнения самостоятельной работы

Коды реализуемых компетенций, индикатора(ов)	Вид деятельности студентов	Средства и технологии оценки	Объем часов, в том числе		
			СРС	Контактная работа с преподавателем	Всего
7 семестр					
УК-1 ОПК-1,5	Самостоятельное изучение литературы по темам 1-7, написание конспекта, подготовка к лабораторной работе.	Собеседование	22,5	2,5	25
	Подготовка к собеседованию по темам 1,3	Собеседование	22,5	2,5	25
	Подготовка к дискуссии по темам 2,4, 5, 6,7	Собеседование	27	3	30
Итого за 7 семестр			72	8	80
Итого			72	8	80

Для выполнения самостоятельной работы необходимо пользоваться литературой, которая предложена в списке рекомендуемой литературы, Интернет-ресурсами или другими источниками по усмотрению студента.

Выполнение самостоятельной работы позволит приобрести не только знания, умения и навыки, но и выработать свою методику подготовки, что очень важно в организации всей научно–учебной деятельности.

При изучении дисциплины предусматриваются следующие формы самостоятельной работы студента:

- работа с конспектом лекций;
- самостоятельное изучение основной и дополнительной литературы по дисциплине с конспектированием по разделам;
- работа с электронными ресурсами в сети Интернет;
- конспектирование и реферирование первоисточника и научно-исследовательской литературы;
- подготовка доклада и мультимедийной презентации.

Контроль самостоятельной работы проводится преподавателем в аудитории.

Предусмотрены следующие виды контроля: собеседование, оценка доклада, оценка презентации, оценка участия в круглом столе.

4. Методические рекомендации по изучению теоретического материала

Работа с конспектом лекций

Работа с конспектом лекций по дисциплине «Основы теории второго иностранного языка» заключается в том, что студент в период между лекционными занятиями изучает материал конспекта формулирует вопросы по неясным положениям изученного материала и задает их во время, отведенное учебным планом на контроль самостоятельной работы студента или во время лабораторных работ.

Чтение основной и дополнительной литературы по курсу с конспектированием по разделам

Самостоятельная работа при чтении учебной литературы начинается с изучения источников по соответствующей теме учебной программы. При изучении нового материала составляется конспект, которым студент пользуется затем во время лабораторных работ.

Работа с электронными ресурсами в сети Интернет

Для повышения эффективности самостоятельной работы студент должен уметь работать в поисковой системе сети Интернет и использовать найденную информацию при подготовке к занятиям. Поиск информации можно вести по автору, заглавию, виду издания, году издания или издательству. Также в сети Интернет доступна услуга по скачиванию методических указаний и учебных пособий, подбору необходимой научной литературы.

Конспектирование и реферирование первоисточника и научно-исследовательской литературы

Конспект представляет собой дословные выписки из текста источника. При этом следует помнить, что конспект – это не полное переписывание чужого текста. При написании конспекта текст источник следует прочитать, выделить в нем основные положения, подобрать примеры, перекомпоновать материал (при необходимости), а уже затем оформлять текст конспекта. Конспект может быть полным, когда работа идёт со всем текстом источника, или неполным, когда интерес представляет какой-либо один или несколько вопросов, затронутых в источнике.

Реферирование — сложный творческий процесс, в основе которого лежит умение выделить главную информацию из текста первоисточника. Реферирование заключается в анализе первичного документа, нахождении значимых в смысловом отношении данных (основных положений, фактов, доведите день, результатов, выводов) и имеет целью сократить физический объем первичного документа при сохранении его основного смыслового содержания. Оно используется в научной, издательской, информационной и библиографической деятельности.

5. Методические указания (по видам работ, предусмотренных рабочей программой дисциплины)

Подготовка мультимедийной презентации

Презентация, согласно толковому словарю русского языка Д.Н. Ушакова: «... способ подачи информации, в котором присутствуют рисунки, фотографии, анимация и звук». Для подготовки презентации рекомендуется использовать: PowerPoint, MS Word, AcrobatReader. Самая простая программа для создания презентаций – Microsoft PowerPoint. Для подготовки презентации необходимо собрать и обработать начальную информацию.

Последовательность подготовки презентации:

1. Четко сформулировать цель презентации: вы хотите свою аудиторию мотивировать, убедить, заразить какой-то идеей или просто формально отчитаться.
2. Определить, каков будет формат презентации: живое выступление (тогда, сколько будет его продолжительность) или электронная рассылка (каков будет контекст презентации).
3. Отобрать всю содержательную часть для презентации и выстроить логическую цепочку представления.
4. Определить ключевые моменты в содержании текста и выделить их.
5. Определить виды визуализации (картинки) для отображения их на слайдах в соответствии с логикой, целью и спецификой материала.
6. Подобрать дизайн и форматировать слайды (количество картинок и текста, их расположение, цвет и размер).
7. Проверить визуальное восприятие презентации.

К видам визуализации относятся иллюстрации, образы, диаграммы, таблицы.

Иллюстрация – представление реально существующего зрительного ряда.

Образы – в отличие от иллюстраций – метафора. Их назначение – вызвать эмоцию и создать отношение к ней, воздействовать на аудиторию. С помощью хорошо продуманных и представляемых образов, информация может надолго остаться в памяти человека.

Диаграмма – визуализация количественных и качественных связей. Их используют для убедительной демонстрации данных, для пространственного мышления в дополнение к логическому.

Таблица – конкретный, наглядный и точный показ данных. Ее основное назначение – структурировать информацию, что порой облегчает восприятие данных аудиториями.

Практические советы по подготовке презентации

- готовьте отдельно: печатный текст + слайды + раздаточный материал;
- слайды – визуальная подача информации, которая должна содержать
- минимум текста, максимум изображений, несущих смысловую нагрузку, выглядеть наглядно и просто;
- текстовое содержание презентации – устная речь или чтение, которая
- должна включать аргументы, факты, доказательства и эмоции;
- рекомендуемое число слайдов 10-12;
- обязательная информация для презентации: тема, фамилия и инициалы
- выступающего; план сообщения; краткие выводы из всего сказанного; список использованных источников;
- раздаточный материал – должен обеспечивать ту же глубину и охват, что и живое выступление: люди больше доверяют тому, что они могут унести с собой, чем исчезающим изображениям, слова и слайды забываются, а раздаточный материал остается постоянным осязаемым напоминанием; раздаточный материал важно раздавать в конце презентации; раздаточный материалы должны отличаться от слайдов, должны быть более информативными.

Доклад, согласно толковому словарю русского языка Д.Н. Ушакова, представляет собой «... сообщение по заданной теме, с целью внести знания из дополнительной литературы, систематизировать материал, проиллюстрировать примерами, развивать навыки

самостоятельной работы с научной литературой, познавательный интерес к научному познанию».

Тема доклада должна быть согласована с преподавателем и соответствовать теме учебного занятия. Материалы при его подготовке, должны соответствовать научно-методическим требованиям вуза и быть указаны в докладе. Необходимо соблюдать регламент, оговоренный при получении задания. Иллюстрации должны быть достаточными, но не чрезмерными.

Работа студента над докладом-презентацией включает отработку умения самостоятельно обобщать материал и делать выводы в заключении, умения ориентироваться в материале и отвечать на дополнительные вопросы слушателей, отработку навыков ораторства, умения проводить диспут.

Докладчики должны знать и уметь: сообщать новую информацию; использовать технические средства; хорошо ориентироваться в теме всего семинарского занятия; дискутировать и быстро отвечать на заданные вопросы; четко выполнять установленный регламент (не более 10 минут); иметь представление о композиционной структуре доклада и др.

Структура выступления

Вступление помогает обеспечить успех выступления по любой тематике. Вступление должно содержать: название, сообщение основной идеи, современную оценку предмета изложения, краткое перечисление рассматриваемых вопросов, живую интересную форму изложения, акцентирование внимания на важных моментах, оригинальность подхода.

Основная часть, в которой выступающий должен глубоко раскрыть суть затронутой темы, обычно строится по принципу отчета. Задача основной части – представить достаточно данных для того, чтобы слушатели заинтересовались темой и захотели ознакомиться с материалами. При этом логическая структура теоретического блока не должны даваться без наглядных пособий, аудиовизуальных и визуальных материалов.

Заключение – ясное, четкое обобщение и краткие выводы, которых всегда ждут слушатели

6. Список литературы, использованной при составлении методических рекомендаций

Перечень основной литературы:

1. Кругликова Е.А. Лексикология английского языка [Электронный ресурс]: учебное пособие/ Кругликова Е.А.— Электрон. текстовые данные — Красноярск: Сибирский федеральный университет, 2018.— 162 с.— Режим доступа: <http://www.iprbookshop.ru/84368.html>.
2. История, культура и литература стран изучаемого языка (испанский язык): учебное пособие : Направление подготовки 45.03.02 – Лингвистика. Профиль подготовки «Теория и методика преподавания иностранных языков и культур». Бакалавриат / сост. М. К. Гусаренко ; Сев.-Кав. федер. ун-т. – Ставрополь : СКФУ, 2019. – 222 с.
3. Теоретическая грамматика (французский язык): учебное пособие / Министерство образования и науки РФ, Федеральное государственное автономное образовательное учреждение высшего образования «Северо-Кавказский федеральный университет» ; авт.-сост. Н.Н. Дюмон, Е.А. Головкин. - Ставрополь : СКФУ, 2019. - 198 с. - Библиогр. в кн. ; То же [Электронный ресурс]. - URL: <http://biblioclub.ru/index.php?page=book&id=467400>

4. Теоретическая фонетика (испанский язык): учебное пособие : Направление подготовки 45.03.02 (035700.62) – Лингвистика. Профиль подготовки «Теория и методика преподавания иностранных языков и культур». Бакалавриат / сост.: А. С. Калашова, Е. Н. Красикова ; Сев.-Кав. федер. ун-т. – Ставрополь : СКФУ, 2019. – 175 с.

Перечень дополнительной литературы:

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка: учебное пособие. 2-е изд. М.: Флинта, 2012. 376 с. Доступно: http://e.lanbook.com/books/element.php?pl1_cid=25&pl1_id=3330
2. Викулова, Е.А. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка: учебное пособие / Е.А. Викулова ; Министерство образования и науки Российской Федерации, Уральский федеральный университет имени первого Президента России Б. Н. Ельцина. - Екатеринбург : Издательство Уральского университета, 2014. - 89 с. : ил. - Библиогр. в кн. - ISBN 978-5-7996-1172-9 ; То же [Электронный ресурс]. - URL: <http://biblioclub.ru/index.php?page=book&id=276564>
3. Виноградов В.С. Лексикология испанского языка: Учебник / В.С.Виноградов. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – М.: Высш. шк., 2014. – 244 с. 4. Волкова Г.И., Дементьев А. В. Учебный испанско-русский лингвострановедческий словарь-справочник. Учебное пособие. – М.: Высш. шк., 2016. – 656 с., с илл.
4. Волкова Г.И., Дементьев А. В. Учебный испанско-русский лингвострановедческий словарь-справочник. Учебное пособие. – М.: Высш. шк., 2016 – 656 с., с илл.
5. Евстифеева, М.В. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка: лекции, семинары, упражнения : учебное пособие / М.В. Евстифеева. - 2-е изд., стер. - Москва : Флинта, 2017. - 168 с. - ISBN 978-5-9765-1115-6 ; То же [Электронный ресурс]. - URL: <http://biblioclub.ru/index.php?page=book&id=93443>
6. Курчаткина Н.Н., Супрун А.В. Фразеология испанского языка: Учебное пособие. Изд. 2-е. – М.: «ЛИБРОКОМ», 2009. – 144 с. (Языки народов мира).
7. Морозова, Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка=Practice Makes Perfect : учебное пособие / Н.Н. Морозова. - Москва : Прометей, 2013. - 102 с. - ISBN 978-5-7042-2484-6 ; То же [Электронный ресурс]. - URL: <http://biblioclub.ru/index.php?page=book&id=240149>
8. Наер Н.М. Краткий стилистический лексикон. – М.: МПГУ, 2013. – 72 с. Режим доступа: http://biblioclub.ru/index.php?page=book_view_red&book_id=240492
9. Основы теории второго иностранного языка. (Французский язык) : учебное пособие : Направление подготовки 035700 – Лингвистика. Профиль подготовки «Теория и методика преподавания иностранных языков и культур». Бакалавриат / сост.: Н. Н. Дюмон, И. Е. Городецкая ; М-во образования и науки РФ, ФГАОУ ВПО «Сев.-Кав. Федер. Ун-т», Ч. 2. – Ставрополь : СКФУ, 2014. – 140 с.
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**Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет»,
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