O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI

OLIY TA'LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

JAHON TILLARI FAKULTETI

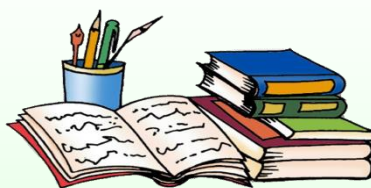**FAKULTETLARARO CHET TILLAR KAFEDRASI**

60230100 – FILOLOGIYA TILLARNI O'QITISH(INGLIZ TILI) YO'NALISHI

IV BOSQICH UCHUN

NAZARIY GRAMMATIKA VA TIL TARIXI

FANI BO'YICHA TAYYORLANGAN

O'QUV–USLUBIY MAJMUA

Ushbu o'quv uslubiy majmua O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy ta'lim,fan va innovatsiyalar vazirligi 2024 yil ___/-sonli buyrug'i asosida tayyorlandi.

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2024 -yil _26.08_ , /-sonli bayoni.

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2024- yil _28. 08._   /-sonli bayoni

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MUNDARIJA

№	MAVZULAR NOMI	SAHIFA
1	**O'QUV MATERIALLAR**	
	a) - Ma'ruza;	
	- reja;	
	- Tayanch so'z va iboralar;	
	- Asosiy matn.	
	b) **– Seminar:** **- topshiriqlar variantlari;** **- keyslar to'plami;** **- horijiy va mahalliy adabiyotlar ro'yhati.**	
2	**MUSTAQIL TA'LIM MASHG'ULOTLARI**	
3	GLOSSARIY	
4	ILOVALAR:	
	fan dasturi;	
	ishchi fan dasturi;	
	testlar;	
	tarqatma materiallar;	
	baholash mezonlarini qo'llash bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmalar;	

	o'quv-uslubiy majmualarini tayyorlash bo'yicha tavsiyalar	

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Lecture 1

Language and Speech Levels

The Grammatical Structure of a Language

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

Lexical and grammatical Meaning

Problems to be discussed

- language and speech levels

- primary and secondary levels

- units of levels

- the difference between language and speech

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and nonbasic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone

2. morphological level: morpheme/morph

3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex

4. Syntax - minor: sentence

5. Syntax - major: text

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non – basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function

have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".(12)

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means".(12)

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;

2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;

3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;

4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and

speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of "language levels" are

substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "ethic levels". Very

often these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics.

Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech

units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So,

the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is

called phone. As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means

Problems to be discussed

- the meanings of the notion of "Grammatical Structure"

- the lexical and grammatical meanings

- the grammatical structure of languages from the point of view of general linguistics

- the morphological types of languages and the place of the English language in this typology

- the grammatical means of the English language

a) the order of words

b) the functional words

c) the stress and intonation

d) the grammatical inflections

e) sound changes

f) suppletion

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional

words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words:
Woggles ugged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence

make us understand that "several actors acted upon some objects". This sentence which is a syntactic

signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor -

action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle

ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a

diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act

of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

"Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", "grammatical utterance". The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a

sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

 The man landed the jet plane safely N V A N D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a)

sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes. The first is syntax and the second -

morphology.

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are

spoken

3. Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various

functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant

morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes. One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones.

The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are

mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other

grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance.

The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine…) are of this type.

The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means -

order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of

reality only indirectly. Examples: desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d …

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like -s, -ed, -d are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g.

He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of shall, will considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of invite -invited - shall invite we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes -s,

-ed.

Lecture 2

The Morphemic Structure of the English Language

The Types of Morphemes

The Grammatical Categories.

Problems to be discussed:

- what operation is called "Morphemic analysis?

- language and speech levels and their corresponding units

- morpheme-morph-allomorph

- types of morphemes from the point of view of their:

a) function

b) number correlation between form and meaning.

There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris(27)

"The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in

the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as

occurrences of "the same" element".

The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:

Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will

be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are

discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not

recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The

division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.

Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they:

a) have the same meaning;

b) never occur in identical environments and

c) have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.

Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics

Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.

Ch. Hockett (28):

Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.

Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not

composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morphs or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.

Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.

Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping - requirements:

a) they have the same meaning;

b) they are in non-contrastive distribution;

c) the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.

Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities,

choice must be based upon the following order of priority:

a) tactical simplicity

b) morphophonemic simplicity

c) conformity to canonical forms.

Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that

have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are

speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of

language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There's a

notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical

meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme. There may be another definition of the allomorphs:

the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

Compare the above said with Harris's opinion. (27)

Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty

morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morphs must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur).

The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and

stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics.

In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if

resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.

The Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:

1. functional

2. number correlation between form and content

From the point of view of function they may be lexical and grammatical. The lexical morphemes are those that express full lexical meaning of their own and are associated with some object, quality, action, number of reality, like: lip, red, go, one and so on. The lexical morphemes can be subdivided into lexical - free and lexical - bound morphemes. The examples given above are free ones; they are used in speech independently. The lexical-bound ones are never used independently; they are usually added to some lexical-free morphemes to build new words like- friend-ship, free-dom, teach-er, spoon-ful and so on. Taking into account that in form they resemble the grammatical inflections they may be also called lexical - grammatical morphemes. Thus lexical - bound morphemes are those that determine lexical meanings of words but resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on lexical – free morphemes. The lexical - bound morphemes are means to build new words.

The grammatical morphemes are those that are used either to connect words in sentences or to form new grammatical forms of words. The content of such morphemes are connected with the world of reality only indirectly therefore they are also called structural morphemes, e.g., shall, will, be, have, is, - (e)s, -(e)d and so on. As it is seen from the examples the grammatical morphemes have also two subtypes: grammatical - free and grammatical - bound. The grammatical - free ones are used in sentences independently (I shall go) while grammatical - bound ones are usually attached to some lexical – free morphemes to express new grammatical form, like: girl's bag, bigger room, asked.

From the point of view of number correlation between form and content there may be overt, zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes.

By overt morpheme the linguists understand morphemes that are represented by both form and content like: eye, bell, big and so on.

Zero morphemes are those that have (meaning) content but do not have explicitly expressed forms. These morphemes are revealed by means of comparison:

ask – asks

high -higher

In these words the second forms are marked: "asks" is a verb in the third person singular which is expressed by the inflection "s". In its counterpart there's no marker like "s" but the absence of the marker also has grammatical meaning: it means that the verb "ask" is not in the third person, singular number.

Such morphemes are called "zero". In the second example the adjective "higher" is in the comparative degree, because of the "- er" while its counterpart "high" is in the positive degree, the absence of the marker expresses a grammatical meaning, i.e. a zero marker is also meaningful, therefore it's a zero morpheme.

There are cases when there's a marker which has not a concrete meaning, i.e. there's neither lexical nor grammatical meaning like: statesman. The word consists of three morphemes: state - s - man.

The first and third morphemes have certain meanings. But "s" has no meaning though serve as a connector: it links the first morpheme with the third one. Such morphemes are called empty. Thus empty morphemes are those that have form but no content.

In contemporary English there are cases when two forms express one meaning like:

He is writing a letter

Two morphemes in this sentence "is" and " - ing" express one meaning: a continuous action.

Such morphemes are called discontinuous.

Thus there are two approaches to classify morphemes: functional and number correlation between form and

content.

The first one can be shown in the following scheme:

Morphemes

lexical grammatical

free bound free bound

The second one can also be shown in the same way:

Morphemes

overt Zero empty discontinuous

form + - + ++

meaning + + - +

Problems to be discussed:

- what is categorization

- what linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?

- what is "opposition"?

- the types of grammatical categories.

Any research presupposes bringing into certain order the material being studied. The issue under

the consideration is also an attempt to generalize the grammatical means of language.

There are many conceptions on the problem today. According to B. Golovin (13) "a grammatical category is a real linguistic unity of grammatical meaning and the means of its material expression". It means that in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be a grammatical meaning and grammatical means.

M.Y. Blokh (6), (7) explains it as follows: "As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical "form", a unity of form (i.e. material factor), and meanings (i.e. ideal factor)

and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so - called "grammatical oppositions".

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features:

common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there's a logical category of possession. The meaning of possession can be expressed in all the languages, compare: My book (English) - Моя книга (Russian) - Менинг китобим (Uzbek).

As it is seen from the examples the meaning of possession in English and Russian is expressed, by the possessive pronouns (lexical means) while in Uzbek it can be expressed either by the help of a discontinuous morpheme (...нинг ...им) or by one overt morpheme (…им). This category is grammatical in Uzbek but lexical in the other two languages. Thus the universal logical categories can be expressed by grammatical and non - grammatical (lexical, syntactic) means. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means.

The doctrines mentioned above one - side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don't have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages.

According to his opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the

following features:

- general grammatical meaning;

- this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;

- the particular meanings must be opposed to each - other:

- the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category.

English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are

necessary for a grammatical category:

1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;

2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;

3. singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;

4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to

express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means. Schematically

this can be shown as follows: Number 0 (s), (z), (iz) singular plural

Another example. In English adjectives there's one grammatical category - the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?

1. It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison;

2. The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative;

3. They are opposed to each - other;

4. They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.

If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.

Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each - other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.

Lecture 3

The Parts of Speech

The Noun. (Morfological and syntactical characteristics).

Problems to be discussed:

- brief history of grouping words to parts of speech

- contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech

- structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)

- notional and functional parts of speech

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to

conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form

classes:

1. Pre - structural tendency;

2. Structural tendency;

3. Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to

their meaning, function and form. To this group of scientists H. Sweet (42), O. Jespersen (33), (34), O.

Curme (26), B. Ilyish (15) and other grammarians can be included.

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their

structural meaning, as per their distribution. The representatives of the tendency are: Ch. Fries (31), (32),

W. Francis (30), A. Hill (44) and others.

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words

in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To

this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya

(22), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (4) and others. (25)

One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

H. Sweet's (42) classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection

As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head - word and adjunct-word.

The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words,

while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of headwords.

O. Jespersen. (34)

According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin

grammarians with a few additions and modifications.

He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should he kept in view. He gives the following classification:

1. Substantives (including proper names)

2. Adjectives

In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns ".

3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)

4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")

5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions- coordinating and

subordinating - and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds

Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the

following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives.

Ch. Fries' (31), (32) classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1stclause), verb (2ndclause), adjective and adverbs, though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

1. Woggles ugged diggles

2. Uggs woggled diggs

3. Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words -

we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with

other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. So Fries comes to the conclusion

that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern.

1 All words that can occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

Frame C

The team went there Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

The concert was good food coffee taste.....

The words of this list he called class I words.

The word "was" and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words.

In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of

the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts

of speech.

Functional words are identified by letters

Class A Words

the concert was good

the a/an every

no my our

one all both

that some John's

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes

they are called "determiners".

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according

to the traditional terminology

 Compare: «the difference between nouns and verbs lies not in what kinds of things they stand for, but in what kinds of

frames they stand in: I saw Robert kill Mary. I witnessed the killing of Mary by Robert"

"Language processes" Vivien Tartter. N.Y., 1986, p.89

Group B - modal verbs Group I - interrogative pr-ns and adverbs

Group C - n.p.not Group J - subordinating conj-s

Group D - adverbs of degree Group K- interjections

Group E - coordinating conj-s. Group L- the words yes and no

Group F - prepositions Group M - attention giving signals look, say, listen

Group G - the aux-v. do Group N - the word please

Group H - introductory there Group O - let us, let in request sentences.

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.

2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from

the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is

usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which

these words signal.

3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the money.

The boys have given the money. (32)

Russian grammarians in classifying words into parts of speech keep to different concepts;

A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next

comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no

use. His word-groups are:

Notional words Function words

1. Nouns link - verbs

2. Adjectives prepositions

conjunctions

3. Numerals modifying function words

4. Pronouns (article, particle)

5. Adverbs only, even, not

6. Verbs

R. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria

1. Lexico - grammatical meaning of words

2. Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)

3. Grammatical categories of words.

4. Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)

5. Their function in a sentence.

Their Classification

1. Nouns

2. Adjectives

3. Pronouns

4. Numerals

5. Verbs

6. Adverbs

7. Adlinks (the cat. of state)

8. Modal words

9. Prepositions

10. Conjunctions

11. Particles (just, yet, else, alone)

12. Interjections

13. Articles

14. Response words (yes, no)

asleep, alive

As authors state the parts of speech lack some of those five criteria. The most general properties of parts of

speech are features 1, 4 and 5. B. A. Ilyish (15) distinguishes three criteria:

1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:

a) the method of combining the word with other ones

b) the function in the sentence.

a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure. B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of

speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

1. Nouns 7. Adverbs

2. Adjective 8. Prepositions

3. Pronoun 9. Conjunctions

4. Numerals 10. Particles

5. Statives (asleep, afraid) 11. Modal words

6. Verbs 12. Interjections

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling (4). Their classification of words are based on four principles. But the

important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning, grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).

1. Nouns

2. Articles

3. Pronouns

4. Adjectives

5. Adverbs

6. Numerals

7. Verbs

8. Prepositions

9. Conjunctions

10. Particles

11. Modal words

12. Interjections

The Noun

Problems to be discussed:

- nouns as a part of speech

- the grammatical categories of nouns

a) number

b) case

- the meaning of gender in Modern English

- gender and sex.

In most cases in treating parts of speech in English we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency. It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians.

The noun is classified into a separate word - group because: 1. they all have the same lexical - grammatical meaning :substance / thing

2. according to their form - they've two grammatical categories:number and case

3. they all have typical stem-building elements: - er, - ist, - ship, - merit, -hood ...

4. typical combinability with other words: most often left-hand combinability

5. function - the most characteristic feature of nouns is - they can be observed in all syntactic functions

but predicate.

Some words about the distribution of nouns. Because of the fact that nouns express or denote substance / thing, their distribution is bound with the words which express the quality of substance, their number, their actions and their relation to the other words /nouns/ in English.

When the quality of nouns are described we make use of adjectives: big, red apple energetic crisis a long, dusty track and others. When the quantity and order of nouns are described the numerals are to be used:

the six continents 25 th anniversary but in Modern English there are some non-productive types of plural number, as for instance:

a) suffix - en : ox - oxen

b) variation of vowels in the root of a word:

tooth-teeth; goose-geese; mouse-mice; man-men,

c) variation of vowels of the root + suffix- "ren" children;

d) homonymous forms for both sing and plural:

sheep – sheep

deer – deer

swine – swine

This type of formation of plurality was a norm for the whole group of words in Old English, but in Modern English only some words have been preserved.

Non-productive type of number we find in some borrowed words from Latin and Greek, such as:

datum – data basis – bases /si:z/

memorandum – memoranda crisis – crises /si:z/

formula – formulae /i: / analysis – analyses /si:z/

These words form their plural as per the norms of Latin and Greek languages, though some

of them form their plural according to English: formulas, memorandums.

With regard to the category of number English nouns fall under two subclasses: countable and uncountable. The latter is again subdivided into those having no plural form and those having no singular. The former type is called Pluralia tantum: clothes, goods, the latter - singularia tantum: milk, water.

The lexical and grammatical morphemes of a word linked together so closely that sometimes it seems

impossible to separate them. The relation between foot and feet, goose and geese, man and men is similar to the relation between.

bag – bags; desk – desks

The examples above remind us the facts of the Arabic language. In this language lexical morphemes are usually consist of consonants. They are united with vocalic morphemes grammatical in character and occurring between consonants, e.g.,

Ktb

ktaab - a book

kutub - books

katab - he wrote

kaatib - clerk

kattab - he dictated.

In these examples consonants Ktb are lexical morphemes as well as English f...t, g...s, m...n and so on. But

there are two different things here to be distinguished. Arabic is a Semitic synthetic language while English is an Indo-European analytical one. If a discontinuous lexical morpheme is characteristic to the system of Arabic, for English it is an exception. English forms its plural forms by - /e/ s.

Some linguists consider the case as above as internal inflection inserted into a lexical one / -u- / and / - i : - // as it is in Arabic / and others think of vowel change / u > i: /.

To be consistent we'll regard nouns above as follows: sing. Man - pl /man + s/ = men

The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed on nouns which express things as objects consisting of two or more parts, e.g. trousers, scissors. Nouns like clothes, sweets must also be referred to pluralia tantum since they denote collective meaning. The - s, here is lexicalized and developed into an inseparable part of the stem. The suffix here is no longer a grammatical morpheme.

In compound nouns both the 1st and 2nd components may be pluralized: father-in-law / 1st /, suitcase / 2nd /, Manservant—menservants etc.

The Category of Case in Nouns

The problem of the number of cases in English has given rise to different theories which were based on the different ways of approaching the description of English grammatical structure.

Case is an indication of a relation in which the noun stands to some other word. H. Sweet's (42) conception of the number of cases in English doubtful. He is not sure whether in English there are five or two cases. He writes: "English has only one inflected case, the genitive /man's, men's/, the uninflected base constituting the common case / man, men /, which is equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative and dative of such a language as Latin".

As we see he is under a certain influence of the Latin grammar. If we treat the English language out of the facts of Latin, then we'll really have to acknowledge the existence of five cases. But the facts of English made Sweet identify only two. O. Curme (26) considers that of many case endings once used English has preserved only one, - 1 st of the genitive. Apart from the genitive relation, these grammatical relations are now indicated by the position of the noun with regard to the verb or prepositions which have taken the place of the old inflectional endings / He distinguishes four cases:

1. Nominative-performs 3 functions:

subject, predicate and direct object

2. Accusative - performs 3 functions: object, adverbial modifier, predicate.

The dog bit my brother /obj./

He stayed an hour /adverbial acc/

I believed to be him /predicate/

3. Dative: When an action directed toward smb:

He makes coat for John.

4. Genitive: girl's ...

O. Jespersen (33), (34) distinguishes two cases: common and genitive. M. Bryant (24) is of the same opinion:

H. Whitehall (43) distinguishes two cases in nouns on analogy with the pronouns which can substitute for

them: nominative and objective.

He says: "The so-called possessive case is best thought of as a method of transforming a noun into a

modifier" ...

Among the Russian grammarians we find different views on the problem of case system in Modern English

nouns.

B.A. Ilyish (15) considers that – 's is no longer a case inflexion in the classical sense of a word. Unlike

such classical inflections, -'s may be attached:

a) to adverbs: yesterday's events

b) to a word group: Mary and John's apartment

c) to a whole clause: the man I saw yesterday's son.

Ilyish concludes that the – 's morpheme gradually develops into a "form-word", a kind of particle serving to convey the meanings of belonging, possession".

G.U. Vorontsova (11) does not recognize -'s as case morpheme. She treats it as a "postposition", "a purely syntactical form - word resembling a preposition", used as a sign of syntactical dependence". Her arguments are as follows:

1. The use of-'s is optional /her brother's, of her brother/.

2. It is used with a limited group of nouns outside which it occurs very seldom.

3. -'s is used both in the singular and in the plural which is not incident to case morphemes. e.g. мальчик – а – мальчиков

4. It occurs in very few plurals, only those with the irregular formation of the plural member: oxen's, but cows 5. -'s does not make an inseparable part of the structure of word. It may be placed at some distance from the head-word of an attributive group.

To Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) -' s still function as a case morpheme, because:

1. The-'s morpheme is mostly attached to individual nouns, not noun groups /in 96 %/.

2. It's general meaning – "the relation of a noun to another word" - is a typical case meaning.

3. The fact that -'s occurs, as a rule, with a more or less limited group of words bears testimony to its not being a "preposition like form word". The use of the preposition is determined,

chiefly by the noun it introduces: on /in/ under the table ...

4. oxen's - cows' /z/, /θ/ and /of/ alternants: identical meanings and in complementary distribution.

5. –'s not a "preposition like word" since it has no vowel as it is found in other prepositions in English.

Gender in Modern English The term "gender" is opposed to the term "sex" (пол). The first term (gender) is a pure grammatical term which deals with the grammatical expression of grammatical gender, i.e. the expression of masculine, feminine and neuter genders. The second word (sex) is used as a common word for both male and female. Thus, it is often used to denote biological notions.

Speaking about the Modern English language we can say that the English nouns do not have a grammatical

category of gender. It is because that the nouns do not have constant grammatical means to express the gender distinctions. Such a grammatical category is found in Russian which is one the most important grammatical phenomenon in this language "категория рода существительного – это несловоизменительная

синтагматически выявленная морфологическая категория, выражающаяся в способности существительного в формах единственного числа относиться избирательно к родовым формам согласуемой (в сказуемом -координируемой) с ним словоформы: письменный стол, большое дерево; Вечер наступил; Девочка гуляла бы; Окно открыто; Ночь холодная. Морфологическая категория рода выявляется в формах единственного числа, однако она принадлежит существительному как слову в целом, во всей системе его форм. Категорию рода образуют три незамкнутых ряда морфологических форм, в каждый такой ряд входят формы разных слов, объединённых общим для них морфологическим значением рода – мужского, женского или среднего".

Морфологическое значение рода существительного – это такое значение, которое обуславливает

собою: 1) способность существительных определяться прилагательными со следующими флексиями в

форме именительного падежа единственного числа: - ой, -ий, ый - мужской род (большой стол, синий свет,

добрый человек), -ая, -яя – женский род (большая книга, синяя тетрадь); -ое, -ее – средний род (большое

окно, синее небо)…" (19)

It becomes clear that in Russian we find three grammatical genders -masculine, feminine and neuter as well

as in the personal pronouns in the 3

rd person singular – он, она, оно. These pronouns, as a rule, replace nouns in accordance with their gender. Nouns denoting persons may be either masculine or feminine - according to the sex of

the person usually denoted by them. Nouns denoting inanimate objects may be of masculine, feminine and neuter.

If nouns in the nominative case (им. падеж) singular form have no special ending, and no soft sign

(мягкий знак) at the end, they are included into the masculine gender: дом, семья.

If in the same case and form they have the endings -a or -я (ручка, станция), they are included into the

feminine gender.

If nouns have the endings -o or -e (радио, замечание) they are in neutral gender.

Nouns ending in "ь" (soft sign – мягкий знак) are either masculine (портфель - он) or feminine (тетрадь -она).

In the English language we do not find such phenomenon. Because of this fact the Russian and the most

other foreign grammarians think that English does not have the grammatical category of gender. "English has no gender: the nouns of English cannot be classified in terms of agreement with articles, adjectives (or verbs)". In old English there were three genders with their own markers. B.A.Ilyish writes the following in this respect: "Three grammatical categories are represented in the OE nouns, just as in many other Germanic and IndoEuropean languages: gender, number and case. Of these three gender is a lexical-grammatical category, that is, every noun with all its forms belong to gender (masculine, feminine or neuter).

But in Modern English the meaning of gender may be expressed by the help of different other means:

1. gender may be indicated by a change of words that is, by the help of lexic-semantic means: man –

woman, cock (rooster) – hen, bull-cow, Arthur, Ann, Edgar, Helen and so on.

2. gender may be indicated by the addition of a word that is, by syntactic means examples: Grandfather –

grandmother, manservant – maidservant, male cat – female cat or he cat – she cat and so on.

3. gender may be expressed by the use of suffixes, examples, host – hostess (хозяин – хозяйка), hero –

heroine (герой - героиня), tiger – tigress (тигр - тигрица). There are opinions according to which these suffixes are

morphological means, thus they are grammatical means and because of this fact one may consider that English has

the grammatical category of gender. But it can hardly be accepted.

Lecture 4 The Adjectives

Problems to be discussed:

- the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech

- the types of adjectives

- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison

- the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives

- substantivization of adjective Pronouns

- general characteristics of this class of words

- the difference between pronouns and other parts of speech

- the personal pronouns

- the possessive pronouns

- the reflexive pronouns

The characteristic features of the adjective as a part of speech are as follows:

1. their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things

/persons/;

2. from the morphological view point they have the category of degrees of comparison;

3. from the point of view of their combinality they combine with nouns, as it has already been stated above, they express the properties of things. The words that express things we call nouns. It seems to be important to differentiate the combinability of a word with other words and reference of a word of a part of speech to another part of speech. We put this because adjectives modify nouns but they can combine with adverbs, link verbs and the word "one": a white horse. The horse is white.

The sun rose red. The sun rose extremely red.

4. the stem-building affixes are: -ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ir, un-, -pre-, in-...;

5. their syntactic functions are: attribute and predicative

It is important to point out that in the function of an attribute the adjectives are in most cases used in pre-position; in post- position they are very seldom: time immemorial; chance to come.

The category of comparison of adjectives shows the absolute or relative quality of a substance.

The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison Not all the adjectives of the English language have the degrees of comparison. From this point of view they fall under two types:

1) comparable adjectives

2) non- comparable adjectives

The non-comparable adjectives are relative ones like golden, wooden, silk, cotton, raw and

so on.

The comparable ones are qualitative adjectives. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison is the

opposition of three individual meanings:

1) positive degree

2) comparative degree

3) superlative degree

The common or basic degree is called positive which is expressed by the absence of a marker. Therefore we say that it is expressed by a zero morpheme. So far as to the comparative and superlative degrees they have special material means. At the same time we'll have to admit that not all the qualitative adjectives form their degrees in the similar way. From the point of view of forming of the comparative and superlative degrees of comparison the qualitative adjectives must be divided into four groups. They are: 1) One and some two syllabic adjectives that form their degrees by the help of inflections - er and -est respectively,

short - shorter - the shortest

strong - stronger - the strongest

pretty - prettier - the prettiest

2) The adjectives which form their degrees by means of root-vowel and final consonant change:

many - more - the most

much - more - the most

little - less - the least

far - further - the furthest

(farther - the farthest)

3) The adjectives that form their degrees by means of suppletion

good - better - the best

bad - worse - the worst

Note: The two adjectives form their degrees by means of suppletion. It concerns only of the comparative

degree (good - better; bad - worse). The suppletive degrees of these adjectives are formed by root - vowel and final consonant change (better - the best) and by adding "t" to the form of the comparative degree (in worse - the worst).

4) Many - syllabic adjectives which form their degrees by means of the words "more" and "most": interesting - more interesting - the most interesting beautiful - more beautiful - the most beautiful

So far we have not been referring to the works of grammarians on the problem since the opinions of almost all the grammarians coincide on the questions treated. But so far as to the lexical way of expressing the degrees is concerned we find considerable divergence in its treatment. Some authors treat more beautiful, the most beautiful not as a lexical way of formation of the degrees of comparison but as analytical forms. Their arguments are as follows:

1. More and -er identical as to their meaning of "higher degree";

2. Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degree of

comparison.

Within the system of the English Grammar we do not find a category which can be formed at the same time by synthetic and analytical means. And if it is a grammatical category it cannot be formed by several means, therefore we consider it to be a free syntactic unit which consists of an adverb and a noun.

Different treatment is found with regard to the definite and indefinite articles before most: the most

interesting book and a most interesting book.

5) Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22): One must not forget that more and most are not only wordmorphemes of comparison. They can also be notional words. Moreover they are poly- semantic and poly-functional words. One of the meanings of most is "very, exceedingly". It is in this meaning that the word most is used in the expression a most interesting book".

As has been stated we do not think that there are two homonymous words: most - functional word; most - notional word.

There is only one word - notional /adverb/ which can serve to express the superlative degree by lexical

means and since it's a free combination of three notional words any article can be used according to the meaning that is going to be expressed. The difference in the meaning of the examples above is due to the difference in the means of the definite and indefinite articles.

Substantivization of Adjectives

As is known adjectives under certain circumstances can be substantivized, i.e. become nouns. B. Khaimovich (22) states that "when adjectives are converted into nouns they no longer indicate attributes of substances but substances possessing these attributes.

B. Khaimovich (22) speaks of two types of substantivization full and partial. By full substantivization he

means when an adjective gets all the morphological features of nouns, like: native, a native, the native, natives. But all the partial substantivization he means when adjectives get only some of the morphological features of nouns, as far instance, the

adjective "rich" having substantivized can be used only with the definite article: the rich.

B. Ilyish (15) is almost of the same opinion: we shall confine ourselves to the statement that these words are partly substantivized and occupy an intermediate position.

More detailed consideration of the problem shows that the rich and others are not partial substantivization. All the substantivized adjectives can be explained within the terms of nouns.

The Adverb

Issues to be discussed:

- what words are called adverbs

- the types of adverbs

- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison

- about the constituents of phrasal verbs like "give up"

The adverb is separated into a special part of speech because of the following facts:

1. Meaning: they express the degree of a property, property of an action, circumstances under which an

action takes place.

2. Form: they have the degrees of comparison.

3. Stem-building elements: - ly, -ways, -wards, ...

4. Combinability: bilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly

with adlinks: e.g. He was hard asleep.

5. Function: Adverbial modifiers.

According to the meaning adverbs fall under three subclasses:

1. qualitative

2. quantitative

3. circumstantial

Qualitative adverbs usually modify verbs.

Adverbs like: badly, quickly, slowly, steadily, comparatively may be referred to this type of adverbs.They denote the quality of actions:Ex: Clay collapsed on the sand beside Cathie, a wet arm playfully snatching her towel away.

I want to go home, she said determinedly.

The Qualitative adverbs are derived from the adjectives by the help of productive adverb forming suffix -

ly. Like adjectives the qualitative adverbs have distinctions of degree. These adverbs can both precede and follow the verbs.

Quantitative adverbs show the degree, measure, quantity of an action and state. To this subclass adverbs

like very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly may be referred. Ex. She had told herself before that it would be foolish to fall in love with Rob. And she had finally done it.

Her gaze trailed around the room again, stopping at the partially opened double doors that led into the parlour.

Some part of her was walking with him because of that strange, intimate look they had exchanged - a look

that Cathie would rather forget, but warmth was too fresh. J. Daiby.

If the combinability of the qualitative adverbs is bound with verbs only the combinability of the quantitative adverbs are more extensive: they can modify verbs, the words of category of state, adjectives, adverbs, numerals and nouns.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote in most cases local and temporal circumstances attending an action.

Accordingly they are divided into two groups:

a) adverbs of time and frequency /today, tomorrow, often, again, twice .../.

b) adverbs of place and direction: upstairs, behind, in front of, ... Ex. They stood outside

the door, giving me directions. Now and then they deliberately refused to jump up and find himself

something to do when the unpleasant sensations clutched at him.

c) She waited in front of the window and when he came down he thrust a small dark blue box into her

hands. L.Wright

Thus, circumstancial adverbs denote the time and place the action took place. Therefore unlike the previous subclasses the circumstantial adverbs can occupy any position in the sentence.Some circumstantial adverbs can have the degrees of comparison: often, late, near and so on.Special attention should be given to the fact that some circumstancial adverbs may be preceded by prepositions: from now on, up to now, from there and so on.

The So-Called Phrasal Verbs

One of the fundamental problems within the adverbs is the problem connected with such groups of verbs as: to give in, to get down, to dream about and so on. In most cases the meaning of such groups as above does not depend on the meaning of their components. The thing here is: are the second elements prepositions, adverbs or some other parts of speech? This problem has become acute in Modern English.

The prevailing view here is that they are adverbs. But there are other views like Palmer's - "prepositions

like adverbs"; Amosova's "postpositives" (1), Ilyish's "half-word, half-morphemes" (15) and so on. None of these suggestions can be accepted. They are not adverbs because other adverbs do not fulfill such functions, i.e. they do not change the meaning of the preceding word; they are not postpositives, because postpositives in other languages do not serve to build new words, and at last they are not grammatical morphemes and consequently the whole group can not be a word since in English no discontinuous word is found as, for instance, bring them up. The word them breaks the unity. The problem remains unsolved. For the time being, the most acceptable theory is the theory expressed by B.A. Ilyish in his latest grammar. He refers them very cautiously, with doubts, to phraseology and thus it should be the subject-matter of the lexicology.

Lecture 5 The Verb (Morfological and syntactical characteristics)

Problems to be discussed:

- the characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech

- verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech

- the types of verbs

- the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.

Verb as a Part of Speech

Words like to read, to live, to go, to jump are called verbs because of their following features.

1. they express the meanings of action and state;

2. they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority

most of which have their own grammatical means;

3. the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function

predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate;

they may be part of the predicate;

4. verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, with

some pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntactical

function of verbs in speech;

5. verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are:

postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify…)

-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize…)

-ate (activate, captivate…)

prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant…)

mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate…)

un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown…)

de- (depose, depress, derange…) and so on.

The Types of Verbs

The classification of verbs can be undertaken from the following points of view:

1) meaning

2) form - formation;

3) function.

I. There are three basic forms of the verb in English: infinitive, past indefinite and PII.

These forms are kept in mind in classifying verbs.

II. There are four types of form-formation:

1. affixation: reads, asked, going ...

2. variation of sounds: run – ran, may – might, bring – brought ...

3. suppletive ways: be – is – am – are – was; go – went ...

4. analytical means: shall come, have asked, is helped ...

There are productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in present-day English verbs.

Affixation is productive, while variation of sounds and suppletion are non-productive.

Notional and Functional Verbs From the point of view of their meaning verbs fall under two groups: notional and functional.

Notional verbs have full lexical meaning of their own. The majority of verbs fall under this group.

Function verbs differ from notional ones of lacking lexical meaning of their own. They cannot be used independently in the sentence; they are used to furnish certain parts of sentence (very often they are used with predicates).

Function verbs are divided into three: link verbs, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs.

Link verbs are verbs which having combined with nouns, adjectives, prepositional phrases and so on add to the whole combination the meaning of process.

In such cases they are used as finite forms of the verb they are part of compound nominal predicates and express voice, tense and other categories.

Modal verbs are small group of verbs which usually express the modal meaning, the speaker's attitude to the action, expressed by the notional verb in the sentence. They lack some grammatical forms like infinitive form, grammatical categories and so on. Thus, they do not have all the categories of verbs. They may express mood and tense since they function as parts of predicates. They lack the non-finite forms.

Besides in present-day English there is another group of verbs which are called auxiliaries.

They are used to form analytical forms of verbs. Verbs: to be, to do, to have and so on may be included to this group.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Verbs can also be classified from the point of view of their ability of taking objects. In accord with this we distinguish two types of verbs: transitive and intransitive. The former type of verbs are divided into two:

a) verbs which are combined with direct object: to have a book to find the address b) verbs which take prepositional objects: to wait for, to look at, talk about, depend on… To the latter type the following verbs are referred:

a) verbs expressing state: be, exist, live, sleep, die …

b) verbs of motion: go, come, run, arrive, travel …

c) verbs expressing the position in space: lie, sit, stand ...

As has been told above in actual research work or in describing linguistic phenomena we do not always

find hard-and-fast lines separating one phenomenon from the other. In many cases we come across an intermediate stratum. We find such stratum between transitive and intransitive verbs which is called causative verbs, verbs intransitive in their origin, but some times used as transitive: to fly a kite, to sail a ship, to nod approval ...

The same is found in the construction "cognate object": to live a long life, to die the death of a hero ...

The Grammatical Categories of Verbs

Grammatical categories of verbs

In this question we do not find a generally accepted view-point. B.A. Ilyish (15) identifies six grammatical

categories in present-day English verb: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number.

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling distinguish only the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, and

mood. Further they note, that the finite forms of the verb have special means expressing person, number and tense.

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (4): out of the eight grammatical categories of the verb, some are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids as well.

Two of them-voice (ask - be asked), order (ask - have asked) are found in all the verbids, and the third aspect (ask - to be asking) – only in the infinitive.

They distinguish the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, mood, posteriority, person, number.

The Category of Voice. By the category of voice we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object.

The majority of authors of English theoretical grammars seem to recognize only two voices in English: the active and the passive.

H. Sweet (42), O. Curme (26) recognize two voices. There are such terms, as inverted object, inverted

subject and retained object in Sweet's grammar.

The Inverted object is the subject of the passive construction. The Inverted subject is the object of the passive constructions.

The rat was killed by the dog. O. Jespersen (34) calls it "converted subject".

But in the active construction like: "The examiner asked me three questions" either of the object words may

be the subject of the passive sentence.

I was asked 3 questions by the examiner.

Three questions were asked by the examiner.

Words me and three questions are called retained objects.

H. Poutsma (39) besides the two voices mentioned above finds one more voice – reflexive. He writes: "It

has been observed that the meaning of the Greek medium is normally expressed in English by means of reflexive or, less frequently, by reciprocal pronouns". It is because of this H. Poutsma distinguishes in Modern English the third voice. He transfers the system of the Greek grammar into the system of English. He gives the following examples: He got to bed, covered himself up warm and fell asleep.

H. Whitehall (43)

This grammarian the traditional terms indirect and direct objects replaced by inner and outer complements

(words of position 3 and 4) consequently. The passive voice from his point of view is the motion of the words of position 3 and 4 to position one. The verb is transformed into a word-group introduced by parts of be, become, get and the original subject is hooked into the end of the sentence by means of the preposition by.

Different treatment of the problem is found in theoretical courses written by Russian grammarians The most of them recognize the existence of the category of voice in present-day English.

To this group of scientists we refer A.I. Smirnitsky (20), L. Barkhudarov, L. Steling (14), Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's (22) according to their opinion there are two active and passive voices. But some others maintain that there are three voices in English. Besides the two mentioned they consider the reflexive voice which is expressed by the help of semantically weakened selfpronouns as in the sentence:

He cut himself while shaving.

B.A. Ilyish (15) besides the three voices mentioned distinguishes two more: the reciprocal voice expressed

with the help of each-other, one another and the neuter ("middle") voice in such sentences as: The door opened.The college was filling up.

The conception reminds us Poutsma's view. (39) He writes: "A passive meaning may also not seldom be

observed in verbs that have thrown off the reflexive pronoun and have, consequently, become intransitive. Thus, we find it more or less distinctly in the verbs used in: Her eyes filled with tears ..."

We cannot but agree with arguments against these theories expressed by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: "These theories do not carry much conviction, because:

1) in cases like he washed himself it is not the verb that is reflexive but that pronoun himself used as a direct object;

2) washed and himself are words belonging to different lexemes. They have different lexical and grammatical meanings;

3) if we regard washed himself as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender, person, non-person (washed himself-washed itself), that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word-group washed himself;

4) similar objection can be raised against regarding washed each-other, washed one another as analytical forms of the reciprocal voice. The difference between "each other" and "one another" would become a grammatical category of the verb;

5) A number of verbs express the reflexive meanings without the corresponding pronouns: He always washes in cold water. Kiss and be friends.

The grammatical categories of voice is formed by the opposition of covert and overt morphemes. The active voice is formed by a zero marker: while the passive voice is formed by

(be-ed). So the active voice is the unmarked one and the passive-marked.

Lecture 6

The Pronoun and functional parts of speech

Issues to be considered:

- the difference between the notional and functional words

- the different approaches of linguistics to this issue

- the ways of classifying of functional parts of speech

Now, when we have viewed all the notional words we may get down to the study of structural or functional parts of speech. To this group of words traditionally prepositions,conjunctions, articles and some auxiliary words are referred. Some scholars include adverbs, linkverbs, and even modal-verbs (Fries). It is important to consider the conceptions of some prestructural grammarians.

H. Sweet (42) in the sentence "The earth is round" differs two types of words: full words and form words or empty words: earth and round are full words while the and is are form words. He states that the and is are "form words because they are words in form only ... they are entirely devoid of meaning". Is does not have a meaning of its own but is used to connect subject and predicate. Thus though it has no meaning of its own, independent meaning, it has a definite grammatical function - it is a grammatical form-word. But "the" has not even a grammatical function and serves only to show that earth is to be taken as terrestrical globe and therefore it is a part of the word as the derivational prefix un - in unknown. In treating form-words by Sweet one of the most valuable point is the following his conception. He states that very often a word combines the function of a form - word with something of the independent meaning of a full word. To this type of words he includes words like become in he became a prime minister. As full word it has the meaning of "change" and the function of the form - word is. The above sentence consists of "He changed his condition + he is a prime minister". Now his conception schematically may be shown as follows:

full words - intermediate stratum - form - word.

Facts like these bear the proof that it is difficult to draw a definite line between full words and form words.

O. Jespersen (33), (34): suggests that adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections should be called

particles. He sees a parallel in the relation between an adverb and a preposition and the relation between intransitive and a transitive verb. According to his statement there is the same difference between the verbs in He sings, He plays and He sings a song, He plays the piano. "Yet in spite of these differences in verb no one assigns

them to different part of speech. Therefore why we should assign to different parts of speech words like on and since.

Put your cap on (adv.)

Put your cap on your head (preposition); and

I have not seen her since (adv.)

I have not seen her since I arrived (preposition)

Because of these facts they may be termed by one word, i.e. "Particles".

Function Words - 1

Some words in English have no inflectional or derivational ending.

They are simply tools for putting other words together. They perform a function in the system – outside the

system they have little or no meaning whatever. These words fall into categories determined only on the basis of their position in grammatical structures they enter into. They are referred to by the collective term function words.

The categories of function words are often called closed classes because new ones are rarely, ever, added to them.

The list of function words in English is firmly established.

The relationship of function words to form class is often linked to that of mortar and bricks.

Major Categories of Function Words – 1

1. Determiners: Function words which signal nouns.

They never appear except when followed by a noun and invariably signal its coming: a, the, an, possessive pr-ns

2. Auxiliary verbs: have and be. Modals are subcategories.

3. Qualifiers: work with both adj. and adv.: more and most, very, quite, rather, less (intensifiers)

Function Words – 2

4. Prepositions

5.Conjunctions: work as coordination of linguistic forms of syntactic units having equal value

6. Subordinators: Connect dependent clauses and include words like: because, after, as well as relative pronouns

7. Interrogatives: Operate in the formation of questions and include words like when, where, why, how and so on: as well as – the interrogative pronouns which, what, who

Lecture 7 Syntax. Word combination.

Problems to be discussed:

- subject - matter of syntax

- syntax-minor and syntax-major

- the types of syntactical relations

a) coordination

b) subordination

c) predication: primary and secondary predication

- the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents

a) agreement

b) government

c) collocation

- word-combinations and their types

The Subject – matter of Syntax

It has been mentioned above that the syntactic level is divided into two: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure.

The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also

called "sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of John's writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

The basic unit of syntax - minor i.e. sentence often consists of some word -groups (or word - combinations):

The roundness of the earth is known all over the world.

1 .The sentence consists of two distinct word - combinations: "the roundness of the earth" and "is known all over the world". The same word - combinations may be used without any change in other sentences. The teacher explained the pupils the roundness of the earth. This means that word - combinations can be studied as a separate unit.

2. In utterances there may be simple sentences like "It was dark", "It began to rain".

Sometimes they may be joined together, depending on the intensions of the speakers, as for example:

(a) It was dark, and it began to rain.

(b) When it was dark, it began to rain.

Though the structure of constituting sentences are identical when they are joined together the structure of joined units (a) and (b) are different. This means that such units (which are traditionally called composite or compound/complex sentences) may be also studied separately.

Thus syntax - minor deals with simple sentences, with a smaller unit than the simple sentence i.e. word combinations and with the bigger unit than the simple sentence – composite sentences.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both

language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeniously for both language and speech units.

The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words

There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence

of some certain common features, e.g.

a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common –ing ending);

b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem "ask" is common);

2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the

connected speech.

Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

Types of Syntactic Relations

One of the most important problems of syntax is the classification and criteria of distinguishing of different types of syntactical connection.

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination,

predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test. Example:

1) A tall boy came in.

2) A boy came in.

3) Tall came in.

This shows that the head-word is "a boy" while "tall" is adjunct, since the sentence (3) is unmarked from the English language view point. While sentence (2) is marked as it has an invariant meaning with the sentence (1).

Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:

4) Pens and pencils were purchased.

5) Pens were purchased.

6) Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are

independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the

components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

7) He came ...

8) *He ...

9) * ... came or

10) I knew he had come

11) * I knew he

12) * I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination.

Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens: and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

13) I see him, here "him" is in the objective case-form. The transitive verbs require the personal

pronouns in this case.

14) I thought of him. "him" in this sentence is governed by the preposition "of". Thus, "see" and

"of" are the words that governs while "him" is a governed word.

B. Ilyish (15) also distinguishes two types of relations between words: agreement by which he means "a

method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinated". Further he states: "the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small. It is restricted to two pronouns-this and that ..." government ("we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself-that is the difference between agreement and government")

e.g. Whom do you see This approach is very close to Sweet's conception.

I. Close group - when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. There may be verb groups like running quickly, to hear a noise and nouns groups: King Edward, my book

II. Loose group - when each element is comparatively independent of the other members: men and woman; strict but just and so on.

Thus, if we choose the terms suggested by Barkhudarov L.S., then we may say all grammarians mentioned

here are unanimous as to the existence in English the subordination and coordination bonds. In addition to these two bonds Barkhudarov adds the predication. So when speaking on the types of syntactic connections in English we shall mean the three bonds mentioned.

As one can see that when speaking about syntactic relations between words we mention the terms

coordination, subordination, predication, agreement and government. It seems that it is very important to

differenciate the first three terms (coordination, subordination and predication) from the terms agreement and government, because the first three terms define the types

of syntactical relations from the standpoint of dependence of the components while the second ones define the syntactic relations from the point of view of the correspondence of the grammatical forms of their components. Agreement and government deals with only subordination and has nothing to do with coordination and predication. Besides agreement and government there is one more type of syntactical relations which may be called collocation when head and adjunct words are connected with each-other not by formal grammatical means (as it is the case with agreement and government but by means of mere collocation, by the order of words and by their meaning as for example: fast food, great day, sat silently and so on).

Word-Combinations and Their Types

Word-combination (or phrase) is a syntactically connected group of notional words within the limits of

sentence but which is not a sentence itself. (3),

B. Ilyish (15) defines it as follows: "Phrase is every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word (as, for instance, the perfect forms of verbs)" and further Ilyish writes that "the difference between a phrase and a sentence is a fundamental one. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomenon or process, just as a word is.

Each component of a phrase can undergo grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it. Without destroying the identity of the phrase.".

"With a sentence things are entirely different. A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence".

But if one takes into consideration that any phrase is a constituent of sentences then it is difficult to accept Ilyish's concept of phrases. Any change in the structure of a phrase may result the change in the sentence to which this phrase refers. In this case that sentence will become another sentence as per the concept of the author.

Following L. Barkhudarov's conception we distinguish three types of word-combinations:

1. Subordinate phrases the IC of which are connected by a subordination bond: cold water, reading a book, famous detective, smoked fish, and so on.

Z. Co-ordinate phrases the IC of which are connected by a coordination bond: slowly but steadily; pen and

pencils.

3. Predicative phrases the IC of which are connected by a predication bond: for you to go; breakfast over...

When he turned his head the two behind could see his lips moving.

But phrases don't always consist of two elements; their IC may contain more than one

word, as e.g. three black dogs

In the same phrase we find 3 words. IC are connected by a subordination bond. When I C of two or more membered phrases are connected by a similar bond we'll call elementary phrase, e.g. mighty entertaining story; teaching English Grammar: men, women and children... But very often certain phrases in their turn fall under some other phrases, 1C of which are connected by different bonds, as it is in the phrase. Red and blue pencils. Here we find subordination and coordination. Such phrases are called compound phrases,

e.g. brought pens and pencils. Subordinate phrases may be of different types which depend on the part of speech the head word is expressed by The Types of Co-ordinate Phrases

The coordinate phrases may be of two types: syndetically connected (free and happy) and asyndetically connected coordinate phrases (hot, dusty, tired out). In the structure of the first type, there's always a word that connects the constituents of the phrase while in the second type there's no connector.

The Types of Subordinate Phrases The subordinate phrases are classified according to the head word. Thus there are noun phrases (cold water), verb phrases (saw a house), adjective phrases (extremely red) and so on.

The Types of Predicative Phrases

The predicative phrases fall under:

Infinitive predicative phrases: I asked him to stay.

Gerundial predicative phrases: I saw him running.

Absolute predicative phrases: Everybody stood up, glass in hand.

As it is seen from the examples the types of predicative phrases depend on what non-finite

form of the verb verbal part of them is expressed by.

Lecture 8 Sentence

Problems to be discussed:

- definition of sentence

- the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements

- the problem of one-member sentences

- the problem of elliptical sentences

There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit. Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

«Предложение – минимальная синтаксическая конструкция, используемая в актах речевой коммуникации, характеризующаяся предикативностью и реализующая определенную структурную схему» (14) "The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose" The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: "The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition" (15)

"A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it. "В отличие от слова или словосочетания, которые выражают лишь различные

понятия, предложения выражают относительно законченные мысли и тем самым используются как единицы общения между людьми; произнося (или изображая на письме) предложения, люди что-то сообщают, выясняют, побуждают друг другу к выполнению действия.

The train moved out of the city.

Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Для того чтобы сообщение о том или ином факте, явлении был полным, законченным, требуется

указать каким образом данный факт, явление, событие и т.д. относится к реальной действительности,существует ли оно на самом деле или же мыслится как возможное предполагаемое, воображаемое,

необходимое и т.д., т.е. необходимо выразить модальность сообщения. Модальность непременно имеется в любом предложении».«Важнейшим средством грамматического оформления предложения является законченностьинтонации». (15)

Thus, concluding the above mentioned conceptions, we can say that in any act of communication there are three factors:

1. The act of speech;

2. The speaker;

3. Reality (as viewed by the speaker).

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) state that these factors are variable since they change with every act

of speech. They may be viewed from two viewpoints:

1) from the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts of

communication;

2) they are variable because they change in every act of speech.

Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person and reality.

The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation is expressed by certain grammatical and lexical means.

Any act of communication presupposes existence of the speaker and the hearer. The meaning of person is expressed by the category of person of verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexico-grammatically by words: I, you, he...

Reality is treated differently by the speaker and this attitude of the speaker is expressed by the category of mood in verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexically (may, must, probably...)

According to the same authors the three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.

The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity.

Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it.

Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the predication.

My father used to make nets and sell them. My mother kept a little day-school for the girls. Nobody wants a baby to cry. A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world. You might say, it's a room filled with love. Thus, by sentence we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary predication and that has a certain intonation

pattern.

The Types of Sentences

There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some of them.

B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles:

1) types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences:

declarative, interrogative, imperative.

2) according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types of sentences: simple and composite.

Ch. Fries (31), (32) gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into Communicative and Non-communicative.

The Communicative utterances are in their turn divided into 3 groups:

I. Utterances regularly eliciting "oral" responses only:

A) Greetings. B) Calls. C) Questions.

II. Utterances regularly eliciting "action" responses, sometimes accompanied by one of a limited list of oral responses: requests or commands.

III. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse statements.

L. Barkhudarov (3) compares source (kernel) sentences with their transforms, he distinguishes several types of sentences from their structural view-point. His classification will represent binary oppositions where the unmarked member is the source kernel sentence and marked one is the transformed sentence.

The most important oppositions within the limits of simple sentences are the following two:

1. Imperative (request) and non-imperative sentences.

2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Summarizing the issue about the classification of sentences in the English language, we can say that this can be done from different points of view. But the most important criteria so are as follows:

1. the criterion of the structure of sentences

2. the criterion of the aim of the speaker

3. the criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.

From the point of view of the first criterion sentences fall under two subtypes: simple and composite.

The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one.

According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker sentences fall under declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence we differentiate elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Below we shall consider these types of sentence. Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker

The declarative sentences: This type of sentence may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin (kernel sentences). - they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.

- they usually have the falling an intonation

- usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.

Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences differ from the declarative or interrogative ones by some their specific features.

There are two structural types of interrogative sentences in Modern English – general questions (yes- or no- questions) and special (or wh-) questions. Both of them are characterized by having partial inversions:

Are we staying here? Where are we staying?

Lecture 9 Language families, English language origin

Language Families Modern Linguistic research has claimed that language can be grouped in families and many languages can be traced to a common ancestor in remote times. A large group of such related languages constitute what we call a 'language family'. The process of divergent development of a language gives rise to further languages, with common features of the parent language added to new features, resulting in a whole complex family of languages with various branches, some more closely and some distantly related to one another. There are about 250-300 distinctive language families in the world. The following are the major language families of the world: Indo- European Sino – Tibetan Niger – Congo Afro – Asiatic Austronesian Dravidian Austro Asiatic Altaic Uralic Caucasian School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 7 Indo – European Family of Language The Indo-European languages are a family of related languages that today are widely spoken in the Americas, Europe, and also Western and Southern Asia. Just as languages such as Spanish, French, Portuguese and Italian are all descended from Latin. Indo-European languages are believed to derive from a hypothetical language known as Proto-Indo-European, which is no longer spoken. It is highly probable that the earliest speakers of this language originally lived around Ukraine and neighbouring regions in the Caucasus and Southern Russia, then spread to most of the rest of Europe and later down into India. The earliest possible end of Proto-Indo-European linguistic unity is believed to be around 3400 BCE. It is generally believed that it was spoken by nomadic tribes which wandered in the regions around the Black Sea. They are said to have gone as far as the steppes of Siberia. Since the speakers of the Proto-Indo-European language did not develop a writing system, we have no physical evidence of it. The science of linguistics has been trying to reconstruct the Proto-Indo-European language using several methods and, although an accurate reconstruction of it seems impossible, we have today a general picture of what Proto-Indo-European speakers had in common, both linguistically and culturally. In addition to the use of comparative methods, there are studies based on the comparison of myths, laws, and social institutions. The Indo-European Family It

has been proved by the scholars that it is the parental languages of almost languages of Europe and some of the languages of Asia. It was split up into various sections and moved in different directions across the continent of Euro- Asia. Each section got isolated from the others. Each developed its parent language along its own lines. Gradually this resulted in the development of different dialects of the original language. It is believed that as a result of this two - fold process the original Indo-European was split up into eight distinct groups of dialects by 2000 B. C. or a little later. They were Eastern (Sanskrit), American, Greek, Albanian, Italic, Balto – Slavonic, Primitive Germanic and Celtic. Each of these in course of time sub divided and the process continued. According to G L Brook, the dispersal of the speakers of Indo European took place somewhere between 3000 and 2000 B. C. New research published today in the journal Nature, led by University of Adelaide ancient DNA researchers and the Harvard Medical School, shows that at least some of the Indo-European languages spoken in Europe were likely the result of a massive migration from Eastern Russia. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 8 Several attempts have been made to explain how the differences which characterize the various Indo- European languages came into existence. August Schleicher put forward his 'Pedigree Theory' in 1866. He said that the Indo-European languages developed as a result of a series of successive bifurcations. He expressed the relations of the various Indo-European languages to each other by means of a genealogical tree, though this theory is no longer accepted. Its influence is still seen in the terminology used by linguists. They speak of the Indo- European family of languages and discuss whether one language is descended from another. This theory is objected to on the ground that there are resemblances, like those between Germanic and Celtic which cut across any such classification. Johannes Schmidt propounded his 'Wave Theory' in 1872 to explain these. According to him the original speech spread over a wide area. Gradually dialectical differences arose. In course of time these differences became so marked that they led to the creation of distinct languages. The dialect area overlapped. It accounts for the resemblances which are shared by some Indo- European languages. Though this theory does not

explain all the problems involved, it provides a working hypothesis which can be modified in the light of additional theories. However, the theories about the splitting up of language tend to assume the homogeneity of the parent Indo – European language. Centum and Satem Groups The eight branches of the Indo European (IE) family have generally been divided into two groups, the Centum Languages (The Western Group) and the Satem Languages (The Eastern Group). This classification is based on the development of certain sound changes in some of the languages of the family, but not in all. In the Eastern branches certain consonants had differences in their development from those in the Western Group. The Indo – European velar plosive consonants /k/ and /g/ developed into alveolar fricative /sh/ or /s/ in the Eastern group. At the same time, in the Western group /k/ and /g/ were retained as velar plosives. For example, Kumtom the IE form for the word hundred developed into satem in Sanskrit, /k/ becoming /s/ and into centum in Latin, retaining the /k/ Based on this development, the Eastern group viz, Indo- Iranian, Albanian, Armenian and Balto- Slavic are called Satem languages and the Western group consisting of Hellenic, Italic, Celtic and Germanic are called Centum languages. Indo-Iranian This branch includes two sub-branches: Indic and Iranian. Today these languages are predominant in India, Pakistan, Iran, and its vicinity and also in areas from the Black Sea to Wstern China. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 9 Sanskrit, which belongs to the Indic sub-branch, is the best known among the early languages of this branch; its oldest variety, Vedic Sanskrit, is preserved in the Vedas, a collection of hymns and other religious texts of ancient India. Indic speakers entered the Indian subcontinent, coming from central Asia around 1500 BCE: In the Rig-Veda, the hymn 1.131 speaks about a legendary journey that may be considered a distant memory of this migration. Avestan is a language that forms part of the Iranian group. Old Avestan (sometimes called Gathic Avestan) is the oldest preserved language of the Iranian sub-branch, the "sister" of Sanskrit, which is the language used in the early Zoroastrian religious texts. Another important language of the Iranian sub-branch is Old Persian, which is the language found in the royal inscriptions of the Achaemenid dynasty, starting in the late 6th

century BCE. The earliest datable evidence of this branch dates to about 1300 BCE. Today, many Indic languages are spoken in India and Pakistan, such as Hindi-Urdu, Punjabi, and Bengali. Iranian languages such as Farsi (modern Persian), Pashto, and Kurdish are spoken in Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and Tajikistan. Albanian Albanian is the last branch of Indo-European languages to appear in written form. There are two hypotheses on the origin of Albanian. The first one says that Albanian is a modern descendant of Illyrian, a language which was widely spoken in the region during classical times. Since we know very little about Illyrian, this assertion can be neither denied nor confirmed from a linguistic standpoint. From a historical and geographical perspective, however, this assertion makes sense. Another hypothesis says that Albanian is a descendant of Thracian, another lost language that was spoken farther east than Illyrian. Today Albanian is spoken in Albania as the official language, in several other areas in of the former Yugoslavia and in small enclaves in southern Italy, Greece and the Republic of Macedonia. Armenian The origins of the Armenian-speaking people are a topic still unresolved. It is probable that the Armenians and the Phrygians belonged to the same migratory wave that entered Anatolia, coming from the Balkans around the late 2nd millennium BCE. The Armenians settled in an area around Lake Van, currently Turkey; this region belonged to the state of Urartu during the early 1st millennium BCE. In the 8th century BCE, Urartu came under Assyrian control and in the 7th School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 10 century BCE, the Armenians took over the region. The Medes absorbed the region soon after and Armenia became a vassal state. During the time of the Achaemenid Empire, the region turned into a Persian satrap. The Persian domination had a strong linguistic impact on Armenian, which mislead many scholars in the past to believe that Armenian belonged to the Iranian group. Balto-Slavic This branch contains two sub-branches: Baltic and Slavic. During the late Bronze Age, the Balts' territory may have stretched from around western Poland all the way across to the Ural Mountains. Afterwards, the Balts occupied a small region along the Baltic Sea. Those in the northern part of the territory occupied by the Balts were in close contact with Finnic tribes, whose

language was not part of the Indo-European language family: Finnic speakers borrowed a considerable amount of Baltic words, which suggests that the Balts had an important cultural prestige in that area. Under the pressure of Gothic and Slavic migrations, the territory of the Balts was reduced towards the 5th century CE. Archaeological evidence shows that from 1500 BCE, either the Slavs or their ancestors occupied an area stretching from near the western Polish borders towards the Dnieper River in Belarus. During the 6th century CE, the Slav-speaking tribes expanded their territory, migrating into Greece and the Balkans: this is when they are mentioned for the first time, in Byzantine records referring to this large migration. Either some or all the Slavs were once located further to the east, in or around Iranian territory, since many Iranian words were borrowed into pre-Slavic at an early stage. Later, as they moved westward, they encountered German tribes and again borrowed several additional terms. Only two Baltic languages survive today: Latvian and Lithuanian. Many Slavic languages survive today, such as Bulgarian, Czech, Croatian, Polish, Serbian, Slovak, Russian, and many others. Greek Rather than a branch of languages, Greek is a group of dialects: During more than 3000 years of written history, Greek dialects never evolved into mutually incomprehensible languages. Greek was predominant in the southern end of the Balkans, the Peloponnese peninsula, and the Aegean Sea and its vicinity. The earliest surviving written evidence of a Greek language is Mycenaean, the dialect of the Mycenaean civilization, mainly found on clay tablets and ceramic School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 11 vessels on the isle of Crete. Mycenaean did not have an alphabetic written system, rather it had a syllabic script known as the Linear B script. The first alphabetic inscriptions have been dated back to the early 8th century BCE, which is probably the time when the Homeric epics, the Iliad and the Odyssey, reached their present form. There were many Greek dialects in ancient times, but because of Athens cultural supremacy in the 5th century BCE, it was the Athens dialect, called Attic, the one that became the standard literary language during the Classical period (480-323 BCE). Therefore, the most famous Greek poetry and prose written in Classical times were written in Attic: Aristophanes,

Aristotle, Euripides, and Plato are just a few examples of authors who wrote in Attic. Italic This branch was predominant in the Italian peninsula. The Italic people were not natives of Italy; they entered Italy crossing the Alps around 1000 BCE and gradually moved southward. Latin, the most famous language in this group, was originally a relatively small local language spoken by pastoral tribes living in small agricultural settlements in the centre of the Italian peninsula.

Lecture 10. The Great vowel shift. Word formation

The Great Vowel Shift A major factor separating Middle English from Modern English is known as the Great Vowel Shift, a radical change in pronunciation during the 15th, 16th and 17th Century, as a result of which long vowel sounds began to be made higher and further forward in the mouth (short vowel sounds were largely unchanged). In fact, the shift probably started very gradually some centuries before 1400 and continued long after 1700. Many languages have undergone vowel shifts, but the major changes of the English vowel shift occurred within the relatively short space of a century or two, quite a sudden and dramatic shift in linguistic terms. It was largely during this short period of time that English lost the purer vowel sounds of most European languages, as well as the phonetic pairing between long and short vowel sounds. The causes of the shift are still highly debated, although an important factor may have been the very fact of the large intake of loanwords from the Romance languages of Europe during this time, which required a different kind of pronunciation. It was, however, a peculiarly English phenomenon, and contemporary and neighbouring languages like French, German and Spanish were entirely unaffected. It affected words of both native ancestry as well as borrowings from French and Latin. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 31 In Middle English (for instance in the time of Chaucer), the long vowels were generally pronounced very much like the Latin-derived Romance languages of Europe (e.g. sheep would have been pronounced more like "shape"; me as "may"; mine as "meen"; shire as "sheer"; mate as "maat"; out as "oot"; house as "hoose";

flour as "floor"; boot as "boat"; mode as "mood"; etc). Chaucer's 'a' in 'fame' sounded much like the 'a' in present day 'father'. His 'e' in 'see' like the 'a' in 'same'. The 'I' in 'fine' like 'ee' in 'fee'. William the Conqueror's "Domesday Book", for example, would have been pronounced "doomsday", as indeed it is often wrongly spelled today. After the Great Vowel Shift, the pronunciations of these and similar words would have been much more like they are spoken today, as in 'police', compare 'polite' which entered earlier. The Shift comprises a series of connected changes, with changes in one vowel pushing another to change in order to "keep its distance", although there is some dispute as to the order of these movements. The changes also proceeded at different times and speeds in different parts of the country. Thus, Chaucer's word lyf (pronounced "leef") became the modern word life, and the word five (originally pronounced "feef") gradually acquired its modern pronunciation. Some of the changes occurred in stages: although lyf was spelled life by the time of Shakespeare in the late 16th Century, it would have been pronounced more like "lafe" at that time, and only later did it acquire its modern pronunciation. It should be noted, though, that the tendency of upper-classes of southern England to pronounce abroad "a" in words like dance, bath and castle (to sound like "dahnce", "bahth" and "cahstle") was merely an 18th Century fashionable affectation which happened to stick, and nothing to do with a general shifting in vowel pronunciation. The effects of the vowel shift generally occurred earlier, and were more pronounced, in the south, and some northern words like 'uncouth' and 'dour' still retain their pre-vowel shift pronunciation ("uncooth" and "door" rather than "uncowth" and "dowr"). The word 'busy' has kept its old West Midlands spelling, but an East Midlands/London pronunciation; 'bury' has a West Midlands spelling but a Kentish pronunciation. It is also due to irregularities and regional variations in the vowel shift that we have ended up with inconsistencies in pronunciation such as food (as compared to good, stood, blood, etc.) and roof (which still has variable pronunciation), and the different pronunciations of the "o" in shove, move, hove, etc. Other changes in spelling and pronunciation also occurred during this period. The Old English consonant X - technically a "voiceless velar fricative", pronounced as in

the "ch" of loch or Bach - disappeared from English, and the Old English word burx (place), for example, was replaced with "-burgh", "-borough", "-brough" or "-bury" in many place names. In some cases, voiceless fricatives began to be pronounced like an "f" (e.g. laugh, cough). Many other consonants School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 32 ceased to be pronounced at all (e.g. the final "b" in words like dumb and comb; the "l" between some vowels and consonants such as half, walk, talk and folk; the initial "k" or "g" in words like knee, knight, gnaw and gnat; etc.). As late as the 18th Century, the "r" after a vowel gradually lost its force, although the "r" before a vowel remained unchanged (e.g. render, terror, etc.), unlike in American usage where the "r" is fully pronounced. So, while modern English speakers can read Chaucer's Middle English (with some difficulty admittedly), Chaucer's pronunciation would have been almost completely unintelligible to the modern era. The English of William Shakespeare and his contemporaries in the late 16th and early 17th Century, on the other hand, would be accented, but quite understandable, and it has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer. Even in Shakespeare's time, though, and probably for quite some time afterwards, short vowels were almost interchangeable (e.g. not was often pronounced, and even written, as nat, when as whan, etc), and the pronunciation of words like boiled as "byled", join as "jine", poison as "pison", merchant as "marchant", certain as "sartin", person as "parson", heard as "hard", speak as "spake", work as "wark", etc, continued well into the 19th Century. We retain even today the old pronunciations of a few words like derby and clerk (as "darby" and "clark"), and place names like Berkeley and Berkshire (as "Barkley" and "Barkshire"), except in America where more phonetic pronunciations were adopted. Word Formation Around mid-seventeenth century the English language had emerged more or less in its present form, so far as grammatical structure, spelling and pronunciation are concerned, with only slight modifications later on. From the Restoration onwards the chief developments have been in the direction of an enlargement of the vocabulary on the one hand and changes in the meaning of words on the other. As knowledge grows, so language grows with it. The

English language is the richest of all the languages and has the most extensive vocabulary. New words have entered and enlarged the vocabulary of English. Dr. Johnson's Dictionary of 1755 contains some 48,000 entries while the 20th century Oxford Dictionary lists more than four hundred thousand words with the rapid progress of life and knowledge, new words became necessary to express and explain new ideas and concepts. A number of processes were responsible for the growth of vocabulary. The growth of English vocabulary has taken place mainly in the following ways: School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 33 Imitation or Onomatopoeia. This perhaps one of the oldest, is also the crudest, methods of word-making. Several words in our vocabulary today, especially those, which describe sound, are obviously imitative or onomatopoeic in character. The most representative examples are bang, pop, sniff, buzz, click, hiss, giggle, etc. The name of the cuckoo is clearly an attempt to represent its distinctive call. Quite often certain sounds seem to reflect certain ideas. For example, the consonants /p/,/t/, /k/ suggest quick action as in 'pinch, torrent, kick' etc. the combination of 'bl' suggests inflation as in 'blow, blast, blister, bloated, bladder, and 'st' often suggests stability as in 'stop, stay, station, still, stand, stable, statue . The word slithery has a slippery suggestion. ii) Extension. This method has been very extensively used in vocabulary building. Example: The word literary now means belonging to learning or pertaining to literature. Yet Dr. Johnson's Dictionary does not explain the word in this sense. At that time, it was used to mean "alphabetical". The word manufacture simply means to make by hand. But in modern usage, it means its opposite now manufacture means factory – made as opposed to handmade article. Extension of meaning is another way in which vocabulary has been enriched. Take the word, for example board. This most common everyday word originally meant a plank of wood. Now its meaning has been extended to mean (i) a table (ii) the food served on a table as in the expression to pay for directors. (iii) A group of people to sit around the table as in board of directors. (iv) A smooth wooden surface as in notice board, black board. (v) The deck of a ship. (vi) Then, there are the various meanings of the verb to board, as in boarding a train, ship or a plane. iii) Derivation/ Affixation This is a very ancient

method of word formation, to be found in almost every language. Here, a simple root word is taken, and a suffix is added to it. Example: -dom as in kingdom, freedom. -ship as in workship, fellowship. In the present, modern age prefixes are used more intensively than suffixes. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 34 Example: Ambi- as in ambivalent Pre- as in premature, pre-Raphaelite. Post- as in postgraduate Inter- as in international, interracial. Extra – as in extraordinary, extracurricular. Super- as in supersonic, superfast iv) Conversion It is one of the characteristics of the English language that it is possible to use the same word as noun, verb, adjective and many other parts of speech. Example: 1.The Noun Park means an open place for keeping cars. From this noun is coined the verb to park meaning to drive a car to the carpark. Example: 2. From the Noun pocket we have the verb to pocket. Example: 3. Similar to the above examples, we elbow through a crowd, eye a person with suspicion, we stomach insults, we face danger and so on. Sometimes an adjective gain the sense of a noun by the omission of the substantive which is originally qualified. Example: 1 Submarine meaning a submarine vessel or a submarine boat. Example: 2. The noun wireless means wireless telegraphy. v) Abbreviation/Shortening/Clipping The contracted form of a word, by and by becomes recognized as a word replacing the full form word and the full form are no more used. Zoo for zoological garden. Bus for omnibus. Exam for Examination

Lecture 11 Semantic changes

Semantic Changes All words have a meaning, but since English first appeared from its base language of Anglo- Saxon, the meanings of words have undergone changes. These changes include a broadening of meaning, a narrowing of meaning or a complete shift in meaning altogether. Another semantic change in English would be a change in connotations, referred to as either elevation or deterioration. 1.Broadening. /Generalization /Widening or extension of Meaning Broadening is the change in the meaning of a word by expansion, so that the word is applicable in more contexts than it previously was and means more than it previously did. An

example of broadening is the word "business", which originally meant "a state of being busy, careworn or anxious", but has now broadened to include all kinds of work occupations. Companion and comrade: The former originally meant "one who eats bread with another person" and the latter meant "one who shares a room" School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 40 Journey: originally referred to a day's walk or ride. Now it can be any kind of travel of any duration of time. A common form of generalization is to extend the name of the material to the object made from it. Thus, we speak of iron, a steel, a copper (a coin and also a vessel for boiling clothes), a tin, a paper, a glass etc. 2. Specialization (Restriction/Narrowing) Narrowing refers to the opposite of broadening and is defined as a reduction in the contexts in which a word can appear. In simple terms, the meaning of the word has gotten more specific. For example, the world 'girl', which originally meant a child of either gender, rather than a female child. The word has evolved to mean what was only part of its original definition, and this is semantic narrowing. Fowl meant any bird in Chaucer and the Bible, but now it is restricted to domestic birds, and that too of a special kind. Deer: originally meant any wild animal, but today a species of animal. Wed: in Old English, any kind of pledge or promise, but now restricted to matrimonial pledge alone and hence means marriage. Wife: in Old English any woman, but now woman of a status, as counterpart of husband. Doom: meant judgment in general, but now it has the negative connotation. Doctor meant a learned person, but now mainly of medical profession 3. Shift. Broadening occurs when over time the meaning of a word has grown to be applicable in contexts that it previously wasn't, and to mean things it previously didn't - it's meaning has simply expanded. Examples of this include brand names, a person may ask for a Kleenex instead of a tissue, or refer to a mouldable, coloured clay for children as Playdough, despite it being made by another company entirely, therefore the meaning of Kleenex has expanded from simply being the name of a brand, to being used in context as the name of the product. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 41 A shift in meaning differs completely from broadening and narrowing in that the word now retains none of its

original definition and has come to mean something else entirely. A good example of a semantic shift is the word 'gay'. Originally meaning "lighthearted", "joyous" or "happy", the word has undergone a complete shift in meaning to now refer to a homosexual person. 4. Elevation. Elevation refers to a change in the connotations of a word, occurring in one of two ways. A word that loses its negative connotations is an example of elevation, but elevation can also occur when, rather than losing bad connotations, a word gains positive ones. One example of elevation through loss of negative associations is intensifying expressions like 'terribly' and awfully'. These words have lost their negative stigmas and now mean little more than 'very', this is evident in that we can now use expressions such as 'terribly good.' An example of a word gaining positive connotations would be "sick". It has obvious negative connotations of illness that are still connected to the word today, but it has also become a popular slang term for something cool. for example, "that's sick!" 5. Deterioration. Deterioration occurs when a word gains association with a negative stimulus, to then hold negativeconnotations. Deterioration is shown clearly in the word "accident". Once simply meaning "a chance event" the word now has associations with misfortune and injury, so we assume that when someone has "had an accident" it was not a positive experience. 6. Extension or Transference Some words become extended in meaning, but at the same time retain their original basic meaning also. Although it is still only one word, it has the original meaning and the newly acquired one also. Examples are, a) To send a 'wire' means to send a message through telegram where 'wire' has an extended meaning, but it also retains the original meaning of a metallic filament. b) To give a 'ring' means "to telephone" where 'ring' has an extended meaning. It is used in the original sense also School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 42 c) To drop a 'line' means "to write a letter" where 'line' is used in the extended sense. There are cases where the differentiation in meaning develops so much that are difficult to recognize any common idea behind them. The extended meaning sometimes becomes more common. For example a) 'Fast' originally meant to remain firm and extended meaning is quick movement. b) 'Brand' originally meant a burning piece of wood

taken from the fire and later on such a piece of iron used for marketing or branding wine casks to indicate its quality. When the brand represents that is uppermost in our minds and the word thus come to signify quality. In certain cases where extension was followed by differentiation, the difference in meaning came to be indicated by a distinctive spelling. For example, 'flour' and 'flower', 'curtsy' and 'courtesy' , 'human' and 'humane'. 7. Association of Ideas Often there is gradual shifting of emphasis from the original basic meaning of a word to some characteristics associated with the referent and the word assumes that meaning. Examples, Vulgarity comes from the Latin root 'vulgus' (a crowd), its basic meaning 'being' such behavior as would be expected from the 'crowd' Villain comes from Middle English 'villein' which meant a farm hand or labourer, neutral in meaning. Because of the coarseness, uncouth behavior and total lack of refinement of such people, the word acquired its present meaning by association. Traffic had the original meaning 'trade' or 'commerce' which involves a lot of vehicles passing to and fro through the street. Through this association with transportation the word gradually developed its present meaning. 8. Euphemism Euphemism is the figure of speech where we use a less offensive name to hide the real nature of something unpleasant or repugnant. Many words have changed their meaning, being frequently used in this way. For example a) Pass away for die b) Insane for mad c) Executed for hanged School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 43 9. Prudery: Several euphemistic expressions are traceable to prudery, a false sense of delicacy and refinement. Examples are, a) Paying guest for boarder b) Financier for money-lender' c) Sanitary engineers for plumbers d) Comfort station for toilet e) Serviette for table napkin 10. Polarisation/ colouring A word sometime acquires a definite "colouring" or emotional significance for which there is no etymological justification. In some cases, the colouring fades away, but in others it persists, so that a modification of meaning occurs. Examples are, a) Gothic which literary meant "pertaining to the Goths" from the middle to the end of the 18th century was used in a derogatory sense, meaning 'barbarous, uncouth etc. In Modern English it has regained its original neutral sense. b) Enthusiasm in the same age meant fanaticism.

Now it means great interest in or feeling for something c) Amateur was originally colourless, referring to a person who did something for love of it, but now it has colouring and means "unskilled people" as opposed to professionals. 11. Depolarisation (Loss of Distinctive Colouring) A limited number of words in English, generally words with a religious or political significance, especially those which in the beginnings were applied to minorities or to unpopular views, lost their distinctive colouring. They became depolarized, as the controversy died down or the suspicion subsided. For example, a) Christian was originally a term of contempt but later it became depolarized. b) Brave meant boastful in the 17th century and when applied to inanimate things it meant gaudy c) Policy, Politics and Politician were terms suggestive of dishonesty and trickery. All three have become depolarized and become respectable, at least nominally. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 44 12. Metaphorical Application Almost any word can be used metaphorically but there are some words which are so frequently used metaphorically that we take them for their literal sense and fail to recognize them as metaphorical. There are two classes of such words: (1) those where the literal use is preserved along with the new metaphorical meaning and (2) those where the metaphorical sense has gained precedence over the literal one. Examples of the first category are, a) Bright was originally associated with light. Metaphorically we have bright face, bright idea etc. Other examples are dull, sharp, volatile etc. b) Sad originally meant full and through a metaphorical application of the term denoting "full of thought or seriousness" and by extension of the metaphor, "full of sorrow" c) Silly originally meant happy, gradually use in the sense of simple and innocent and then came the transition from simple to stupid. In such cases the literal sense has long since been forgotten. 13. Reversal of Meaning Some words changed so much as to bring about a reversal of their meaning. For example, a) Grocer which one meant a wholesaler now means a retail trader b) Scan originally was "to read through carefully" but now it is used to mean "to read through rapidly" 14. Popular Misunderstanding (Corruption) Misunderstandings are sometimes responsible for a change of meaning. For example, a) Demean originally meant 'to conduct 'but

owing to a mistaken idea that it related to the adjective 'mean' acquired its modern sense. b) Undulating means 'uneven surface' as of a hilly place. People mistook –un for a negative prefix and used 'adulating' in the sense of 'flat' or ' level' surface .

Lecture 12 Foreign Influences on English in the 17th 18th and 19th Centuries

English is not at all a pure language. It has borrowed many words from different foreign languages. Borrowing has considerably enriched the English vocabulary. Those words which have been adopted from foreign tongues are known as Loan Words. According to F T Wood, Loan – words have come into English by three chief means: viz., a) Foreign invaders who settled in England brought in their words. For example, Scandinavian words after the Scandinavian invasion and French words after the Norman Conquest. b) Foreign contacts through trade, voyages, exploration etc., bring in new words. For e.g. Italian and Spanish words. c) Through scholarship, learning and culture, several foreign words have come in. For e.g., Latin and Greek words during the Renaissance period. Apart from these, several historical events such as the migration due to various reasons, the vastness of the British Empire, the spread of certain religious and political movements, the development of trade and commerce with foreign countries, colonial invasions of Britain, scientific discoveries, and the revolution in international transport and communication have been responsible for such borrowings. Let us examine the various foreign influences on the English language and the Latin, Greek, French and Indian words found in it at present. The Latin Influence The influence of Latin has been a continuous nature and it is considered as the earliest and the greatest influence on English language. It has enriched English vocabulary and helped to make it a varied and heterogeneous one. The Latin words in English may be divided into the following groups, according to the manner and time in which they were borrowed. During the time of Roman occupation of Britain (55 BC – 410 BC) many Latin words related to military and administration, names of commodities and articles of food were passed into English. Examples: Camp (bottle) segn (banner) mil (mile) win (wine), weall (wall) etc. Latin

words which came in with the Anglo- Saxons. Eg: deofol(devil) niht(night), engel (angel) etc. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 46 ● Words associated with church Church, bishop, candle, alms, angel, anthem, minister epistle, hymn, daily mass, psalm, pope, priest, shrine, nun, monk, disciple etc. ● Words relating to household affairs and domestic life Cap, chest, dish, fan, fever, linen, kitchen, mat, pole, plaster, silk, Tunic, radish, oyster etc. ● Names of trees, plants and herbs Beef, box, pine, aloes, garden, sword, grass, lily, palm, pea, pepper, plum, poppy, mallow and plant. ● Words associated with Education and bearing School, master, grammatical, verse, metre, notary, talent etc. ● Names of animals and birds Capon, doe, lobster, phoenix, trout, turtle, elephant ● Many Latin words relating to religion, medicine, law, alchemy, etc were introduced during the Middle English period. But these came through French and therefore regarded as French loan words. During the Renaissance, there was a flood of Latin words into the English language. The scholars and writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries seemed to be intoxicated by the newly awakened interest in Latin. Many English writers like Bacon and Moore wrote their works in Latin. The new words from Latin were at first part of the learned vocabulary, though in course of time many of them became popular and passed into the spoken language. But some of them were confined to the vocabulary of scholars and scientists. For example, 'genius', 'exit', medium' 'curriculum', axis', 'specimen', species', census', etc. ● Words associated with law Conspiracy, custody, homicide, incumbent, legal, malefactor, minor, notary, prosecute, remit, testify, testimony. ● Words related to literature Allegory, genius, index, intellect, summary, ornate, prosody School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 47 ● Words related to theology Incarnate, incubus, limbo, pulpit, rosary, scrip, scripture, supplicate, missal, tract. ● Words related to science and medicine Gesture, immune, lunatic, mechanical, nervous, rational, solar, stupor, ulcer, zenith, zephyr. Those Latin words and expressions which never have become part of the ordinary language and which have a limited use. This group may be further divided into a) Latin words and expressions found in the learned language like 'apex, radius, dictum, quantum etc. b) Latin words and

phrases which have a specialized use and which sometimes have a touch of pedantry, like, 'prima facie, ex – cathedra, vice versa, ipso facto, veto, credo, recipe quorum . c) Latin words and expressions which had been taken to form names of patent medicines, tonics, and foods, for example, Ovaltine, Sanatogen, Wincarnis etc. d) Latin compounds and hybrid words are frequently used in science and technology. For example, locomotive, motor, radiator, tractor, Dictaphone, television, automobiles etc. The Latin influence is seen in the use of prefixes and suffixes. Most prefixes in English are drawn from Latin. For example, pre-, ex-, inter-, extra-, super-, post-, ante- etc., and suffixes like – ic, -al, -ate etc. Latin has also influenced English spelling, pronunciation and syntax. But in the Renaissance period few words were modified by the scholars. The style of using participle was the result of Latin influence. E. g. "The train being late I could not reach on time". The shifting of stress from the initial syllable was another effect of Latin influence. Sometimes the pronunciation of certain words was also changed consequent upon the changes in spelling. For example, in 'debt' and 'doubt' only spelling was affected by the insertion of the 'b' but in words like 'perfect', fault', verdict', advantage', admiral and assault spelling and pronunciation were affected. The zeal of the Renaissance scholars is seen in the incorrect modification of the spelling of words like 'island', scissors etc. Latin influence has enriched English language in many ways. As A C Baugh has pointed out Latin verbs can be considered the most important acquisitions of the English. Latin gifted several synonyms to English, and this helped the writers to express their thoughts subtly in their literary works. There have been certain disadvantages also due to the Latin influence on English. It has made English language inharmonious. The main problem lies in the pronunciation. Many of the Latin words have no fixed pronunciation. The Latin influence also resulted in the use of obscure School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 48 words and long involved sentences. It has inhibited the growth of native formations. All these factors were considered by Jespersen when he said that the Latin influence was 'something between a hindrance and a help". The Greek Influence Even before the period of Renaissance, the English language contained a few Greek words. E.g.

geography, theology, logic, etc. these words came though Latin. But most of the Greek words that passed into English during the period of Renaissance. The revival of the Greek learning in Western Europe at the beginning of the 16th century was one of the main reasons which speeded up the process of borrowing from Greek. The following are some of the words adopted since the 16th century: irony, alphabet, drama, elegy, dilemma, chorus, basis, larynx, epic, theory. During the 17th century the following Greek words came into English. Orchestra, pandemonium, museum, hyphen, dogma, clinic The following words were adapted from Greek during the 18th century: bathos and philander The 19th and 20th centuries brought a wealth of scientific and technical terms. There has also been a great deal of coining and adaptation. Words like 'psychology, neurology, oxygen, hydrogen, halogen, geography, photography, orthography, telegraph, microscope, telephone, microphone etc. It is modern medical science that is full of Greek terms, perhaps because of the pioneering work and reputation of the Greek physicians Hippocrates and Galen. Greek has contributed many suffixes and prefixes to English language. These are found in hybrid words. E. g. a – apathy, amoral, Anti – anticongress di- disyllabic hyper - hypersensitive by - bicycle poly – polygamy tele – telephone - Phone – telephone - Gram – telegram School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 49 - Ism – communism Greek also has been the source of a few trade names and patent medicines. Glaxo < Gk galaktos = milk, Optrex < GK optios = eye. During the 17th century the following Greek words came into English, Orchestra, pandemonium, museum, hyphen The following words were adapted from Greek sources in the 18th century Bathos and philander During 19th century the following words were coined from Greek Phase, acrobat, therm, agnostic. The French Influence We have already discussed the influence of French on English vocabulary during the Old and Middle English periods. Even after the Middle English period French loan words continued to find their way into the English language. Most of the French words adopted during the Middle English period became an integral part of English. The following French words came into English during the 16th century. Pilot, sally, rendezvous, partisan, cache, corsair, volley, moustache, promenade,

machine etc. Charles II who had long lived in the French Court ascended the throne in 1660. This intensified the French influence on English. The following words were borrowed from French during the 17th century. dragoon, parole, reprimand, ballet, burlesque, chagrin, champagne, coquette, liaison, par excellence, native, rapport, forte, muslin, soup, group, penchant etc. Towards the close of 18th century the following French words were adopted into English. The French Resolution was responsible for the adaptation of some of these words. Regime, crops, maneuvre, espionage, depot, fusillade, salon, bureau, canteen, nuance, belles – letters, brochure, picnic, etiquette, ennui, police, coup. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 50 The following words were borrowed from French during the 19th century. It was considered as the richest of all periods in French loan words since Middle English times. 1. Words relating to Food Restaurant, menu, chef, fondant, etc. 2. Words relating to dress. Rosette, fichu, profile, crepe 3. Words relating to literature and art Literature, cliché, renaissance, baton, matinee, motif, macabre 4. Diplomatic words Attaché, prestige, impasse, charged' affaires, debacle, raison d' etre, rapprochement, etc. 5. Military words Barrage, communiqué, chassis, etc. The two world wars in which England and France were allies have helped the process of borrowing French words during the 20th century. E, g. garage, vers libre, fuselage, hanger, limousine, camouflage, etc. Italian and Spanish During the Middle English period, quite a number of words borrowed from Italian and Spanish. Words borrowed from Italian during the Renaissance period were mostly connected with fine arts and warfare. E. g. opera, sonnet, stanza, canto, piano, cameo, cornice, cupola, replica, gondola, grotto, fresco, studio, parapet, alarm, bandit, traffic, contraband, etc. Later borrowings were miniature, vendetta, arcade, prima donna, macaroni, carnival, niche, Madonna, portfolio. The most recent words are fascism and fascist. ● Most of the Spanish words came though trade and commerce and war. Armada, cargo, canyon, renegade, cannibal, spade, bravado, siesta, escapade, stampede, cocoa, potato, cockroach, cigar, and cafeteria are some of the examples. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 51 The bulk of the Spanish words came into English from the mid-16th to the mid-17th century. It may

be noted that American English contains more Spanish words than British English. E. g. booby, ranch, stevedore, bonanza, mustang, etc. Dutch Influence In the Renaissance period, many loan words from Low German from which we have Dutch, Flemish and the dialects of North Germany came to English. These regions had close commercial contacts with England ever- since the Norman Conquest and many of the words relate to sea faring and trade. E. g. skipper, yacht, clock, smack, sloop, cruise, trek, buoy, spool, smuggle, etc. German Influence We can find very few German words in English. The common words are Kindergarten, poodle, zeitgeist, dachshund, carouse, leitmotif, waltz, yodel, weltan schaunge, etc. Many words relate to mineralogy and other sciences, paraffin, cobalt, quartz, nickel, zinc, etc. Words relating to military sphere are blitzkrieg, plunder, rucksack, zeppelin, Gestapo, Nazism, Third Reich, etc. Russian Influence Many borrowings from Russia were in the last 50 years owing to the very great importance of the new Soviet civilization. E. g. Mammoth, Cossack, steppes, Bolshevik, Menshevik, kopek, troika, vodka, samovar, pogrom, nihilism, commissar, robot, sputnik, Tsar, etc. Words from Arabic It was by way of Arabs or moors of Spain and of Arabic speaking great medieval centers of science and culture that important technical terms came into English in the later Middle Ages. We have orange, lemon, fakir, imam, harem, Allah, hookah, madrasah, alkali, algebra, purdah, almanac, elixir, alchemy, Moslem, Islam, camphor, mosque, giraffe, sherbet, minaret, etc. Hebrew words Hebrew has contributed many religious terms such as Jehovah, Amen, cherub, seraph, jubilee, Sabbath, manna, Messiah, rabbi, etc. Indian Influence Indian words are found in English as early as the 17th century. E.g. Begum, Bungalow, cot, etc. But it was in the 19th century when British imperialism was in its peak in India; large number of Indian words came into English. E, g. Calico, curry, pyjamas, puttees, sahib, nabab, chutney, School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 52 gunny, loot, jungle, maharaja, shampoo, bangle, chit, moksha, bhakthi, avatar, karma, yoga, swastika, etc. Words from other countries Malay: sago, bamboo, raffia, ketchup, gutta-percha, bantam, caddy, amok, etc Japan: Kimono, geisha, mikaao, harakire, karate, judo China: Mandarin, rickshaw, silk, tea Australia: boomerang, kangaroo,

budgerigar. Pidgins and Creoles A pidgin is a restricted language which arises for the purposes of communication between two social groups of which one is in a more dominant position than the other. The less dominant group is the one which develops the pidgin. Historically, pidgins arose in colonial situations where the representatives of the colonial power, officials, tradesmen, sailors, etc., encountered natives. The latter developed a jargon when communicating with the former. This resulted in a language based on the colonial language in question and the language or languages of the natives. Such a language was restricted in its range as it served a definite purpose, namely basic communication with the colonists. In the course of several generations such a reduced form of language can become more complex, especially if it develops into the mother tongue of a group of speakers. This latter stage is that of creolisation. Considering the following examples: The British begins a business in China. He does not know any Chinese to communicate with his customers, and his customers do not know any English either to communicate with the businessman. So a Chinese - English pidgin originates. Example (II) An American begins a business in Africa. He does not know the local language, and the people do not any English, An African- Pidgin takes birth. Creoles are much expanded versions of pidgins and have arisen in situations in which there was a break in the natural linguistic continuity of a community. This occurred when two individuals speaking the same pidgin united, and their children were reared by both. These creoles may remain as ordinary languages till they are in the similar environment. They may gradually lose their identity by the process of decreolization. The interest of linguists in these languages has increased greatly in the last few decades. The main reason for this is that pidgins and creoles are young languages. In retracing their development, it may be possible to see how new languages can arise. Furthermore, the large School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 53 number of shared features among widely dispersed pidgins and creoles leads to the conclusion that creoles at least show characteristics which are typical of language in the most general sense, the features of older languages, such as complex morphology or intricate phonology, arising due to the action of various forces over a long period of time after the birth of

these languages. In type, creoles are all analytic and generally lack complexity in their sound system. There have been several theories / hypotheses explaining the development of Creoles and Pidgins. 1. Monogenesis hypothesis (Taylor,1960): Modern Pidgins and Creoles had all evolved either from the Mediterranean lingua franca used for trade since the Middle Ages or the Portuguese lingua franca used on the West African coast from the 16th to the 17th century. 2. Nativization (Schuchardt, 1914): Creoles emerged from Pidgins by Nativization. It refers to the acquisition of the Pidgins as mother tongues and vernaculars and the ensuing complexification and stabilization of their structures. 3. Substrate hypothesis: It refers to the basilectization process where the Modern Creoles are changed under the selective influence of the languages previously spoken by their speech community. 4. Superstrate hypothesis: It explains the origin emphasizing the influence of the non – standard varieties of the lexifier. 5. Bioprogram hypothesis (Bickerton, 1981): It assumes that children, who appropriate the lingua francas of their parents as vernaculars, would have assigned them a grammar inspired by Universal Grammar. This common kind of genesis would account for structural similarities among Creoles. 6. Imperfect second language learning: This often happens in the learning of L2. Very often it happens due to the imperfect planning of the system of teaching a second language.

Lecture 13 Contribution of Major Writers

Shakespeare's contribution Shakespeare is one of the makers of English language, a fearless experimenter, whose language reflects the freedom and freshness and the energy and exuberance of the Elizabethan age. According to Otto Jespersen (The Growth and Structure of English Language), "Shakespeare's contribution in English philology is the richest ever employed by any single man." There is incredible potency of vocabulary used by Shakespeare in the dialogues of his plays. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 54 The most striking factor about Shakespeare's vocabulary is its amplitude. The number of words used by him

is roughly approximated at 21000. His plays portrayed the vast variety of the English society in which he lived and his language reflects the tendencies current in his time. He himself experimented with all kinds of innovations, dialectical adaptations and archaism. Many of the common phrases and expressions used by Shakespeare have become household terms. (even the word household is Shakespeare's coinage). E. g. "We have tower of strength, seamy side of life, primrose path, the stricken deer, milk of human kindness, salad days, life's fretful fever, to be or not to be, a foregone conclusion, yeoman service, more sinned against than sinning, single blessedness, a sea change, a Romeo and Sir Oracle" Shakespeare sometimes makes a dramatic use of certain dialectical words, e. g. in "blood – bolstered Banquo (Macbeth), the dramatist makes use of the West Midland dialectical word "bolter" with superb dramatic effect. In "As You Like It" and "King Lear" Shakespeare incorporates provincialisms very effectively. In "Henry V", we find a successful attempt at the dialect of the Scots, the Irish, the Welsh and the English army. A more significant achievement is the rustic dialect of Edgar disguised as a peasant in King Lear. Shakespeare makes use of a modified South Western dialect. His native Warwickshire dialect might have suggested the idiomatic phrase to "to speak within door". Shakespeare has coined several new words with prefixes like, -em, en-, un- etc, enkindle, enrapt, embattle, unavoided, enmesh etc. Many words make their first appearance in Shakespeare e.g., dwindle, lonely, auspicious, etc. this does not mean that he coined them, might have introduced them from the spoken or learned languages. All the words and phrases coined by Shakespeare have not stood the test of time. Some words have been rejected by later generations and certain others have been discarded in the natural progress of the language. Shakespeare uses double comparatives and double negatives frequently in his works. E.g., nor hath not, braver, worser, morehotter, morelarger, mostunkindest and most heaviest, etc. Similarly, he did not always use the words where they should be according to the rules of grammar, as I "we send to know that willing ransom he will give for" what ransom he will willingly give", "the whole ear of Denmark" for "the whole of Denmark", "Lovers absent loves" for " loves when lovers are absent. Shakespeare

adds new colours to ordinary words. E. g., air is used in the sense of aspect, manner, melody. They include 'capable (having ability, gifted), censure (adverse judgment) cheap(costing little effort) cloud (v) (overspread with gloom), common (vulgar tongue), condolement School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 55 (tangible expression of sympathy) conveyance (vehicle), dateless (endless) directly (at once) discharge (emission, payment, performance) distemper (illness, intoxication) drown (to make completely drunk) and dull (tedious)The freedom with which Shakespeare altered the parts of speech is remarkable. E. g., verbs are used as adjectives, adjectives as verbs, and nouns as verbs. Shakespeare had an indifferent attitude towards English Grammar. He focused mainly on phrasal verbs rather than grammatical correctness. We can find an irregularity and a freedom in his use of grammar as in his use of words. Besides these, we can see many constructions which are archaic in character and, here and there, a construction which are ungrammatical. Chaucer and the English Language Chaucer employed in his work the East midland dialect, and by casting the enormous weight of his genius balance decided once for all which dialect was going to be the standard literary language of the whole of the country for all times to come. None after him thought of using any dialect other than the East Midland for any literary work of consequence. Though it contains a large number of French words, he naturalized these words in the language. All the great writers of England succeeding Chaucer are, as John Speirs says, "masters of the language of which Chaucer is, before them, the great master." Chaucer's language shows Modern English grammar in its making. The Old English inflections have been simplified. The plural suffix is -s, though the -en form (sometimes as –ne) is also seen. E. g., eyen. The genitive case ending is mostly -s, though there are a few –s-less genitives e.g. Lady Grace church door. The adjective is nearer to Modern English, Chaucer having done away with the elaborate Old English inflectional system. To denote the plural and the feminine, Chaucer sometimes has the –e form eg. "his horse was goode or vogue sonne. The comparatives and superlatives of adjectives have –er and –et as in Modern English. The definite article in Chaucer is the indeclinable "the". Pronouns are mostly as in

Modern English, though the genitive and dative cases are still "here" and "hem". Verbs have the weakened -en ending in the infinitive –to seken, seken, to seke (to seek). –th or- ith the normal descendant of Old English suffix is still retained for 3rd person present singular. The Modern English -es ending is seen only thrice in the whole of Chaucer -eth form is now considered archaic. His syntax is loose and conversational, perhaps because the English language was in a transition and hence there is no rigidity or formalization. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 56 Edmund Spenser Though "poet's poet", Spenser doesn't rank high among the makers of English. In the late 16th century, he tried some linguistic experiments in his masterpiece "The Shepherd's Calendar". For his "Fairy Queen" he tried out various kinds of archaism in style, accidence and vocabulary. He experimented with dialectical words found in early authors and rustic provincial terms heard among his contemporaries. The words and forms of Spenser's poetic diction were partly drawn from the language of an older generation, partly from provincial speech and partly invented by him. As Ben Jonson remarks 'Spenser writ no language' because the artificial dialect of his poetry was not a form of language actually spoken by anyone at that time s, it was no mere affectation or fondness for the use of philogical novelties that made the poet choose a kind of pseudo-archaic language for his poetry. He chose this artificial dialect because it was the only suitable medium for expressing his peculiar tone of thought and feeling. Though a large number of words which he invented or revived have already become obsolete, the literary vocabulary of English still retains some traces of his influence. We owe to him the word 'braggadocio' (empty boasting) which is the name of the vainglorious knight of the Faerie Queene. The phrase 'squire of dames' also occurs in the same work, though most users of the expression now have no idea of its source. The adjective 'blatant'(loud and noisy) is first recorded in Spenser and as it has not been traced to any other source, is believed to be his coinage. Another word which has in all probability been invented by the poet is 'elfin'(fairy like). The compound word 'derring do' (daring to do), which Scott borrowed from Spenser and popularized is a favorite word of modern chivalric romance. In the making of the

language of romantic English poetry the 'Faerie Queene' has had a considerable part. Spenser took the phrase 'lond of Faerie' for his own poem, embellishing the word 'faerie' with all kinds of new romantic connotations, so that it has become through his influence a especially productive word in later English poetry. This 'faerie' with so much romantic poetic suggestiveness, has become through Spenser a separate term from the ordinary word 'fairy'(of the same origin) which exists along with it. John Milton John Milton is undoubtedly one of the greatest poets of England. Milton stands beside Shakespeare in many ways. He too coined new terminologies in English and created new metaphor like epic similes. He too borrowed the words from other foreign languages into English. Many of his coined words are still active. Words coined by him are: 'embellishing', 'slow-motion', 'reforming', 'besotted', 'padlock', 'disregard', 'enjoyable', 'chastening', 'defensively', etc. Most School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 57 famous of his original coinage is "Pandemonium", a hybrid word. Certain other words which make their first appearance in Milton (according to Oxford Dictionary) are "Anarch (chaos), gloom (darkness), irresponsible, consolidate and adjectives "Titanic, Olympian etc.". Milton's love of Latin makes him use the Latin syntax in many of his poems. Certain words are used in the primary Latin sense. E. g., Virtue, argument etc. Archaisms and dialectical terms are used by him to give special effect, e.g.: clomb, frore etc. The word "dingle" (a dialectical word) is used in the sense of "dell". Though he was not a spelling reformer, he was concerned with the problem of spelling. He attempted to make the spelling conform to pronunciation. E. g., 'Sovran, artic (arctic) iland (island) dropt, etc. He tried to distinguish between the stressed and unstressed forms of the personal pronoun, "mee, shee, hee, their", for the emphatic forms, and "e, she, he, their" for the weaker ones. Though many of his spelling devices did not have any lasting influence on the language, they show his sensitiveness to the existing problem

Lecture 14 Discrepancy between Spelling and Pronunciation

There is an apparent discrepancy between the spelling and pronunciation in Modern English. This is because English is not a phonetic language. Certain languages like Malayalam are phonetic languages. In these languages' words are spelt as they are written. A letter of the English alphabet represents different pronunciations. Let us take first letter of the English alphabet. It is pronounced differently in different words: 'A' is pronounced /a:/ in 'father'; / æ/ in 'cat'; /ɒ/ in 'what'; /ei/ in 'chamber'; /e/ in 'any'; /ɔ:/ in 'all';/ ə/ in 'above' and so on. The letter 'c' is pronounced /k/ in 'cat', and /s/ in 'centre'. The combination of 'ch' has different pronunciation such as [tʃ] in 'child' /k/ in 'character' [ʃ] in 'machine'. There are only 26 letters in the English orthographic alphabet, but there are 44 phonemes. So naturally the same letter must represent different pronunciations, for example, the letters c, q and x. They are a waste as these can be represented in other ways. Change in Pronunciation In English, pronunciation goes on changing from time to time. But spelling remains fixed. Words were pronounced in a particular way in Chaucer's time but in Shakespeare's time they were pronounced differently. Modern English pronunciation is different from the pronunciation at the time of Daniel Jones. Conventions in the system of spelling The English spelling system has been developed in different time period. Some of the spelling systems go back to Old English and others were introduced during the period of Norman School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 59 and French ascendancy which followed the Norman Conquest. This may be the reason for the difference between the spelling of the sound /s/in 'mouse' and /c/ in 'mice'. The 's' is a native spelling, but the 'c' is the French spelling. The influence of the Latin spelling conventions had also contributed to this confusion. It is natural that the influence of foreign spelling conventions should be more strongly marked in loan words, especially because many of them were borrowed from the medium of literature. The earliest loan words into English like 'chalk' and 'chase' were borrowed, are followed. Thus, in English there is 'ph' for 'f' in many words of Greek origin such as 'telephone' and 'philosophy'. 'c' as a spelling for 's' before front vowels in words such as 'cede', 'receive' came from French. Some modern English words have two pronunciations because they reached

Modern English by way of more than one root. Take for example, the words 'cinema' and 'Celtic'. The 'k' follows the pattern of words taken directly from Greek or Latin but 's' is found in words that were borrowed directly from French. Spelling Reforms in English Many attempts have been made to reform English spelling over years. The concept of correct spelling might be emerged partly after the advent of printing press and partly from the Renaissance interest. It was only gradually, over centuries, that the availability and example of dictionaries and the pressures of formal systems of education led individuals to strive to observe the conventions of print. One of the earliest spelling reformer, according to David Crystal in Evolving English, was the thirteenth century versifier Orm who in his "Ormulum" made consistent use of various spelling devices, especially the doubling of consonants. How we turn thoughts and experiences into speech and text will always be idiosyncratic. It used to be more so: people wrote as they spoke, so variation in dialect beget variation in text. With the printing press came partial standardisation. English after Caxton was gradually codified but remained heterogeneous and subject to constant change and stresses. That it drifted more in spoken than written form is another reason for the disparity between its spelling and pronunciation. Reform efforts began seriously in the 16th century with Sir John Cheke and Sir Thomas Smith, who reconstructed ancient Greek pronunciation and then applied themselves to English; Smith published a 34-letter alphabet to better map onto its sounds. In 1568 Thomas Smith published a dialogue concerning the "Correct and Emended Writing of the English Language". Consistency with spelling often went with scholarly temperament. Sir John Cheke, developed a spelling system in which he doubled long vowels (e.g. taak, haat, maad, etc.), discarded final '–e' School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 60 (e. g. give, believe), always used 'I' for 'y' (mighti, dai) and so on. Momentum continued in a different direction with John Hart, who found English 'learned hard and evil to read', full of confusion, disorder, 'vices and corruptions'. In his ambitious Orthographie (1569) – one of three books he wrote on the topic – he set out a bold form of spelling based on speech sounds and aimed at correcting the 'many abuses' of English writing. Hart's

preference for omitting superfluous letters was followed by the schoolmaster Richard Mulcaster, whose influential proto-spelling-dictionary Elementarie (1582) listed thousands of words in regularised spelling patterns. Mulcaster wanted to 'thouroughli rip up the hole certaintie of our English writing' for the greater good of England. In 1662 the Royal Society was founded. It soon created a committee for 'improving the English language', including spelling reform. But it seems the committee – which featured John Dryden, John Evelyn and a score of other luminaries – lasted just a few meetings. The tendency towards uniformity had been increased steadily during the first half of the seventeenth century. The English spelling in its modern form had been practically established by about 1650. "The New World of English Words" was published by Milton's nephew Edward Philip Dr. Johnson was one of the leading figures who took initiative to fix English spelling. Dr. Johnson compiled his "Dictionary of the English Language in 1747. He thought that the language should be "fixed" in an enduring best form as well as to spelling, for it was already by his time well on the way of fixation. In 1873 Isaac Pitman proposed a supplementing reform in his Phonetic Journal, adding 15 new letters to the '23 useful letters' of the existing alphabet (c, q and x were dismissed). Benjamin Franklin tried a similar tack. A more radical, supplanting approach was favoured by George Bernard Shaw (who, incidentally, wrote in Pitman's shorthand). Shaw left money in his will towards the effort, and a competition was held to find the best submission. Noah Webster's efforts to reform spelling were far more successful. Though most of his recommendations in the early 19th century was not taken up (soop, aker, thum, wo), the few that were altered US English in characteristic ways. Within a century, several dedicated spellingreform groups had sprung up on either side of the Atlantic, among them the Spelling Reform Association (1876), Simplified Spelling Board (1906) and Simplified Spelling Society (1908), now the English Spelling Society. Webster's reforms invited counter-reforms to repair the resulting rift between UK and US English. In 1968 Robert Burchfield (editor of the OED Supplement) and Philip Gove (editor-in-chief of Webster's Third New International Dictionary) discussed trading off spelling

changes to bring the dialects closer together. But nothing came of it. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 61 History indicates, however, that in order to succeed, any planned changes must be minor. Substantial reforms would require centralized authority and a critical mass of collective, coherent will – neither of which seems likely. For many people the discontinuities would be an unacceptable price for the practical gain, to say nothing of the political and logistical obstacles to reforming so mutable, diverse and global language. Writing serves as an approximation or extension of speech and is subject to mistakes and meanderings just as our minds are. Fads and anomalies of one century can become routine in the next. Reform would somehow have to keep up. If reformers all agreed on a system, they might stand a chance – but there are almost as many proposals as there are reformers. Their ambitions of orthographic engineering are likely to be frustrated. Language is a dynamic phenomenon beyond the total control of any entity – be it a person, institution, or social movement. Standardisation establishes vital common ground, yet within the blurry borders of standard English, many varieties cohabit, including forms of spelling. Dictionaries belie the extent of variation by presenting a single spelling of each word

Lecture 15 Dialects of English. British and American English

British and American English British and American English have a common root but in more than three centuries after the first settlement, each has developed their own divergent ways and has their own accepted standard forms and dialects. American English has been developed – both in speech and written language – new elements in vocabulary, phrasing, structure and pronunciation. At the same time, it has preserved many old usages of British English which has already disappeared from Britain. There is not much differences have been found in these languages. Most British and American speakers can easily understand each other, though slight changes can be found in their pronunciation. The written languages are very similar in two countries. The major differences between these two varieties of English can be grouped under

four headings: Grammar, vocabulary, spelling and Pronunciation. Grammar In certain cases, British people use present perfect tense whereas the Americans use simple past tense. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 62 E.g. British: He has just gone out American: He just went out. In American English the auxiliary 'do' is used with the verb 'have' British: Have you got any issue? American: Do you have any issue? The American past participle of 'get' is 'gotten' but it is 'got' in British English. e. g. British: I have really got to know him American: I have really gotten to know him. Needn't, which is commonly used in British English, whereas in American English in its place is 'don't need to'. In British English 'at' is the preposition in relation to time and place. However, in American English, 'on' is used instead of the former and 'in' for the latter. Americans sometimes use 'his' where the British say 'one's'. British: One should love one's country. American: One should love his country. British speakers often say, 'I have done', 'I can do', 'I might do' etc. in cases where Americans would just say 'I have', 'I can', 'I might', etc. There are some differences in the use of prepositions and adverb particles, some examples are given below: British American Check something check something out Do something again do something over School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 63 Fill in a form fill in/out a form Protest against something protest something Stay at home stay home Vocabulary British American Flat Apartment (motor) car automobile Taxy cab Sweets candy Cupboard closet Tin can Lift elevator Petrol gas Dynamo generator Main road highway Engine motor Film movie Angry mad Trousers pants Railway railroad Shop store Spelling a) In American English, final 'l' is not usually doubled in an unstressed syllable. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 64 British: Traveller, leveling American: traveler, leveling b) Some words en in '-ter' in American English, and in '-tre' in British English British: theatre, metre, centre American : theater, meter, center c) Some words end in '-our' in Britsh English, but in '-or' in American English. British: labour, honour, colour American: labor, honor, color d) Some words end in '-ogue' in British English, but in '-or' in American English British: catalogue, dialogue, analogue American: catalog, dialog,

analog e) Many verbs in American English end in '-ize', but in British English they end in either '- ise' or in '-ize'. British: realize or realize American: realize f) The spelling is different in some individual words. British American Aluminium aluminum Analyse analyze Cheque check Install install Plough plow Pretence pretense School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 65 Tyre tire Pronunciation a) Vowels are often nasalized in American English. But vowels are not nasalized in British pronunciation. b) Most vowels are pronounced a little differently in British and American English. 1. The vowel /əʊ/ as in 'home' is pronounced with a monophthong in American English. 2. The vowel /əʊ/ as in 'post' is pronounced in American words without lip – rounding and sounds like the vowel /ɑ:/ as in 'palm'. 3. The vowel /ɑ:/ as in 'father' is pronounced as /æ/ in American English. c) In standard British English 'r' is only pronounced before a vowel. In American English 'r' is pronounced in all positions in a word, and it changes the quality of a vowel that comes before it. d) Words ending in '-title' are pronounced with /tail/ in British English, and /-tl/ in American English. Sometimes differences between IndE and other varieties of English are restricted to specific domains to use. 'Comprise of' for example, has spread into India's quality newspapers. The verbs 'find out' and 'find', 'lower down' and 'lower' are also found in IndE more than elsewhere in the English speaking world. Similarly, the verb particle combinations 'request for', 'stress on', 'emphasize in''discuss', 'investigate into', and 'urge for' have been integrated to various degrees across text categories. There are also some other uses of words in IndE that are not part of innovation but remnants of nineteenth-century English. The use of the word 'bunk' (as in bunk school) and the use of 'avail' (as in 'to avail an opportunity') are two specific examples. The bare infinitive is often used after 'with a view to' in IndE. But these are not found in the use of IndE in more formal and professional language use. Morphosyntax and Grammar Contemporary IndE syntax, on the whole, differs only moderately from Standard English. In the use of definite and indefinite articles, nouns, tense forms, interrogative constructions, and focus elements three is agreement with Standard British English. But there are some innovative modifications. The definite article is often used with proper names

and with nouns denoting institutions of human life (e.g., police, society), the use of the past perfect with preterit meaning. Certain usages that have been dropped out in BrE and AmE are continued in IndE. The use of 'legislation', 'equipment', 'agitation', and 'machinery' as count nouns, the use of the plural aircraft, and the use of police with a singular verb and pronominal concord, etc. are found in IndE. The use School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 70 of direct quotes in news reportage is a more common phenomenon in IndE newspapers. In that instance, IndE newspapers are slightly more advanced than BrE newspapers. Besides, there are differences in count and number divides, use of 'since elements' with the present tense, use of the present perfect with adverbials of the past, variation in the formation of direct 'wh-questions' and uses of 'only' as presentational focus adverb. On the whole, India's quality newspapers adhere most closely to the international usage standard. But student essays are furthest removed from this standard. Pronunciation The CIEFL (Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, now EFLU University) Hyderabad, has devised a model of spoken English called GIE (General Indian English). According to this, there are phonological differences between IndE and BrE. They are briefly described below: Differences between the vowel systems of RP and GIE 1. As against, RP /ɒ/, and /ɔ:/, GIE has only /ɒ/. 'Cot' and 'caught' are pronounced alike. 2. As against RP central vowels /ʌ/, /ɜ:/, and /ə/, GIE has only /ə/ 3. GIE has two pure vowels /e:/ and /o:/ in the place of RP diphthongs /eI/ and /ə…/. 4. The GIE vowel in worlds like bet, bed, etc. is openers than its counterpart in RP, the symbol being /ɛ/. 5. The GIE vowel in words like part, calm, etc. is more front than the back. Differences between the consonant systems of RP and GIE 1. GIE has dental plosives /t/ and /d/ in the place of RP dental fricatives /Ɵ/ and /ð/. 2. GIE has retroflex plosives /ʈ/ and /ɖ/ in place of RP alveolar plosives /t/ and /d/. 3. In place of RP /v/ and /w/ GIE has only one consonant /v/. School of Distance Education History of English Language Page 71 INDIAN WORDS IN ENGLISH The British rule in India, which lasted for more than two centuries, necessitates the give – and – take of English words into the very many Indian languages, and a large number of words from these languages into English. The Oxford Advanced Learner's

Dictionary has listed more than 2000 Indian words in its Indian supplement. A good number of them are original worlds from Indian languages; some are currently in British English but are used in different senses in India; some words represent usages and idioms peculiar to Indian English, though the words they contain exist in British English. The list also includes several proper names of particular people, gods, places or words derived from them. Words that entered English from Indian languages can be generally classified under certain categories. They can pertain to Indian philosophy, the Hindu religion, words that became popular during the freedom movement, words related to objects, animals, customs, ideas, etc., proper nouns and their derivatives, and so on. Those words that cannot be easily accommodated under any of these categories are listed under the heading 'miscellaneous words'. a) Words of Hindu religion and Philosophy Adharma Advaita, Amrita, Ananda Marg, Agraharam, Arjuna award, asura, atman, avatar, Bhagavadgita, Bhagavan, Brahma, deva, dharma, Diwali, Durga, Ganapati, Garuda, Gayatri Mantra, guna, Indra, Janmashtami, Jataka, prana, sastra, jiva, jnana, pooja (puja), pujari, Punya, Purana, Raksha Bandhan, Rig Veda, sacred thread, Samskara, Shakti, Shanti, swastika, Upanishad, etc. b) Words representing things, animals, customs, ideas, etc. Bandikoot, banyan, bhai, beebi, beedi, chakra, saras, challan, chilli, dal, Devanagiri, dyana, didi, divan, durbar, falluda, finger chips, foreign liguor, gadi, ganja, garammasala, gomasta, gopuram, grass cutter, henna, himsa, hot-water bag, jack fruit, jiggery, jilebi, kumkum kurta, laddu, lathi, lota, lungi, masala, match box, match stick, matra, maya, mehr, mela, mirchi, mudra, mulligatawny, naga, natya, neem, nimbu, pada, padam, paddy, paisa, pan, pan masala, pandal, paneer, pani, pant piece, papadam, pindropsilence, posh puri, purnima, pardah, pustak, pyjama, raga, ragi, raja, rasa, rasam, rasagula, rikshaw, roti, rudraksha, samhita, sari, sati, sena, sharbat, shikar, sindur, sloka, Stepney, stridhan, stupa, supari, tali, toddy, tulsi, vada, vahana, veena, vrata, yoni, yuga, etc.

Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar

№	Mavzular	Bajarilish shakli	Soat
	VII semestr		
1	O'rganilayotan til tarixini davrlarga bo'lib o'rganish	PPT presentation	6
2	O'rganilayotgan til qadimgi davrining fonetik xususiyatlari	Poster tayyorlash	6
3	O'rta davr fonetik strukturasi	Portfolio	6
4	O'rganilayotggan til qadimgi davridagi yozma yodgorliklar	PPT presentation	6
5	O'rganilayotgan til tarixiy davri lug'at boyligi	PPT presentation	6
6	O'rganilayotgan til o'rta davri lug'at boyligi	Poster tayyorlash	6
7	O'rganilayotgan til o'rta davri va xususiyatlari	Poster tayyorlash	6
8	O'rganilayotgan til yangi davr grammatikasining o'ziga xos til xususiyatlari	PPT presentation	6
9	O'rganilayotgan til yangi davr leksikasining o'ziga xos til xususiyatlari	PPT presentation	6
1	O'rganilayotgan til Yangi davr shevalarining o'ziga	Portfolio	6

0	xos til xususiyatlari		
	Jami		60

GLOSSARY

English	Uzbek	Russian
A		
ablative	аблатив келишик	аблативный падеж
absolute	абсолют, муста=ил, мутла=	абсолютный
abstract	мавщум	отвлечённый, абстрактный
accent	ур\у, акцент	ударение, акцент
accidence	Америка ва Британия тилшунослиги бу атама ор=али грамматиканинг морфология =исмни тушунишади.	словоизменение, морфология
accommodation	мослашув	аккомодация
accusative	аккузатив келишик	винительный падеж
active	фаол, ани=	действительный
active voice	ани= даража	действительный залог
adjective	сифат	прилагательное
adjunct	=арам сыз	ведомое (подчинённое) слово
adverb	равиш	наречие
adverbial	равиш ор=али ифодаланган	наречный
adversative	зид	противительный
affix	аффикс, кышимча	аффикс
agent	иш бажарувчи	одушевлённое имя существительное
agglomerating (languages)	мужассамлаштирувчи тиллар	инкорпорирующие языки
antithesis	антитеза	антитеза
agglutination	агглютинация	агглютинация
agglunative languages	агглюнатив тиллар (туркий ва фин–угор тиллари)	агглютинативные языки
agreement	мослашув	согласование
allomorph	алломорф, морфеманинг бир кыриниши	алломорф
alphabet	алфавит, алифбо	алфавит

alternative	танлов, альтернатив	альтернативный
analysis	тащлил	анализ
analytic (languages)	аналитик (тиллар)	аналитические языки
anaphora	анафора	анафора
anaphoric	анафорик, кырсатиш	анафорический, указательный
animate	жонли	одушевлённый
animate nouns	жонли отлар	
antonym	антоним, зид	антоним
apostrophe	апостроф	апостроф
applied	амалий	прикладной
applied linguistics	амалий тилшунослик	прикладное языкознание
apposition	изощловчи	приложение
archaic	архаик, =адимий	архаический

archaism	архаизм	архаизм
area	худуд	ареал
areal linguistics	ареал (худуд) тилшунослик	ареальная лингвистика
article	артикл	артикль
artificial (language)	суъний (тиллар)	искусственные (языки)
aspect	аспект	вид
assimilation	ассимиляция	ассимиляция
assumptive	тахминий	предположительный
attribute	ани=ловчи	определение
auxiliary	ёрдамчи	вспомогательный
auxiliary verb	ёрдамчи феъл	вспомогательный глагол

B

baby-word	болалар тили	детский язык
base	асос	база
basic	асосий	основной
basis	асос	база
bilingualism	икки тиллик	двуязычие
bilateral	икки томонлама	двусторонний
binary	бинар, икки томонлама	бинарный
borrowed word	ызлаштирма сыз	заимствованное
borrowing	ызлаштириш	заимствование

C

calque	калька	калька
cardinal number	сано= сон	количественное числительное
case-ending	келишик кышимчаси	падежное окончание
causal clause	сабаб эргаш гап	предложение причины
causative	каузатив	каузатив
circumstantial	хол, холга оид	обстоятельственный
classical	классик, мумтоз	классический
clause	гап	предложение
cognate	=ариндош	родственный
cognate object	ыхшаш тылдировчи	винительный внутреннего объекта
colloquial	о\заки	устный
combination	бирикма	комбинация
common	умумий	общий
common noun	турдош от	нарицательное имя
comparative philology	=иёсий филология	
		сравнительно-сопоставительная филология
complement	тылдирувчи	дополнение
comparison	=иёслаш	сравнение
compound sentences	бо\ланган =ышма гап	сложно - сочинённое предложение
concord	мослашув	согласование
concordance	келишув	соответствие
concrete	ани=	конкретный
conditional	шартли	условный

conditional clause	шарт эргаш гап	придаточное предложение
conjugation	тусланиш	спряжение
conjunction	бо\ловчи	союз
conjunctive	бо\ловчили	соединительный
connecting vowel	бо\ловчи унли	соединительный гласный
connecting word	бо\ловчи сыз	соединяющее слово
connection	бо\ланиш	соединение
contents	мундарижа	содержание
continuous	давомий	длительный
contracted	=ис=артирилган	стяженный
contrasting stress	контраст ур\у	контрастное ударение
coordinate	бо\ланган	сочинительный
coordination	бо\ланиш	соединение
coordinating conjunction	тенг бо\ловчи	сочинительный союз
correlative	ызаро бо\ланган, корреляция	соотносительный
correspondence	уй\ун, мос	соответствие
creolized languages	креол тиллар	креольские языки

D

dative	датив келишик	дательный падеж
dead language	ылик тил	мёртвый язык
declension	турланиш	склонение
definite	ани=	определённый
definite article	ани= артикл	определённый артикль
degree of comparison	сифат даражали	степень сравнения
deictic	дейктик, кырсатиш	дейктический
deictic function	кырсатиш функцияси	дейктическая функция
demonstrative pronoun	кырсатиш олмошлари	указательное местоимение
dependent	тобе	зависимый
derivation	сыз ясаш	деривация
determinative	ани=ловчи	определительный
determining	ани=ловчи	определяющий
diachrony	диахрония, тарихий	диахрония
dialect	диалект, шева	диалект
differentiation	фар=лаш	расподобление
direct	воситали	прямой
direct object	воситали тылдирувчи	прямое дополнение
discourse	нут=	речь
disjunctive	ажратувчи	разделительный
distributive	дистрибутив	дистрибутивный
double	жуфт	двойной
dual number	иккилик сони	двойственное число
duration	давомийлик	длительность
durative	давомий	длительный
dynamic	динамик	динамический

E

element	элемент, бирлик	элемент
emphasis	ажратиб кырсатиш	выделение
emphatic	эмфатик	эмфатический
empty word	маъносиз сыз	пустое слово
ending	=ышимча	конец слова, окончание
ergative	эргатив	эргатив
etymological	этимологик	этимологический
etymology	этимология	этимология
euphemism	эвфемизм	эвфемизм
evolution	эволюция	развитие, эволюция
excessive	олий даража	чрезмерная степень
exclamation	ундов	восклицание
exclusive	истисно	эксклюзивный
expression	ибора, ифода	выражение
expressive	ифодали	экспрессивный

F

falling	пасаювчи	нисходящий
falling tone	пасаювчи интонация	нисходящий тон
family of languages	тиллар оиласи	семья языков
feminine	аёлларга хос	женский
finite verb	феълнинг ани= формаси	финитные формы глагола
folk etymology	хал= этимологияси	народная этимология
form	шакл	форма
function	функция, вазифа	функция
functional	вазифали	функциональный
fundamental meaning	асосий маъно	основное значение
fusion	фузия	фузия
future	келаси	будущее время

G

gender	жинс (грамматика)	род
genderless	жинси йы=	неродовой
general linguistics	умумий тилшунослик	общее языковедение
genitive	=арат=ич келишиги	родительный падеж
gerund	герундий	герундий
glossematics	глоссематика	глоссематика
glosseme	глоссема	глоссема
govern	бош=армо=	управлять
governing	бош=арувчи	управление
government	бош=арув	управление
grammar	грамматика	грамматика
grammatical	грамматика оид	грамматический
grammatical analysis	грамматик тащлил	грамматический анализ
grammatical categories	грамматик категориялар	грамматические категории

English	Uzbek	Russian
grammatical gender	грамматик жинс	грамматический род
grammaticalisation	грамматикалаштириш	грамматикализация

H

English	Uzbek	Russian
haplology	гаплология	гаплология
harmony	гармония, мос келиш	гармония
heterogeneous	турдош былмаган	разнородовое
heterosyllabic	турли бы\ин турлари	гетеросиллабический
historic (al)	тарихий	исторический
historical grammar	тарихий грамматика	историческая грамматика
homonym	омоним	омоним
homophone	омофон	омофон
hyperbole	гипербола	гипербола
hypotaxis	гипотаксис, эргаш кышма гап	гипотаксис
hypothetical	гипотетик, тахминий	гипотетический

I

English	Uzbek	Russian
ideogram	идеограмма	идеограмма
idiom	идиома	идиома
immediate	бевосита	непосредственный
imperative	буйру=	повелительный
imperative mood	буйрук майли	повелительное наклонение
impersonal	шахси ифодаланмаган	неличный
implication	импликация, шаъма =илиш	импликация
inanimate	жонсиз	неодушевлённый
inanimate noun	жонсиз от	неодушевлённое имя существительное
inclusion / indeclinable	ыз-ичига один / тусланмайдиган	включение / несклоняемый
indefinite	ноани=	неопределённый
indefinite article	ноани= артикл	неопределённый артикль
independent	муста=ил	независимый
indicative mood	ани=лик майли	изъявительное наклонение
indirect	воситасиз	косвенный
indirect speech	ызлаштирма гап	косвенная речь
indo-european languages	хинд – европа тиллари	индоевропейские языки
infinitive	инфинитив, харакат номи	инфинитив
infix	ички кышимча	инфикс
inflexion	=ышимча	окончание
inner form	ички шакл	внутренняя форма
instrumental case	инструментал келишик	творительный падеж
intensity	интенсивлик тезлик	интенсивность
interjection	ундов сызлар	междометие
interrogative	сыро=	вопросительный
intonation	ощанг, интонация	интонация
intransitive	ытимсиз	непереходный
invariable	ызгармас, тусланмас	неизменяемый

ILOVALAR

SAVOLLAR, TESTLAR, FANNING ISHCHI DASTURI

STUDY QUESTIONS FROM THE LECTURES

1. What do you understand by "grammatical structure of a language"?

2. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?

3. What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?

4. Describe all the grammatical means of English.

5. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?

6. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings?

1. How is the word "level" translated into your mother tongue?

2. Why do we have to stratify language and speech?

3. What is the difference between primary and secondary levels?

4. Do all the linguists share the same opinion on the stratification of language?

1. What are the most important characteristic features of adjectives?

2. Why do we have to differentiate the qualitative and relative adjectives?

3. How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives formed?

4. What adjectives form their degrees by both inflections and words more and most?

5. Are their adjectives that form their degrees of comparison by means of suppletion?

6. What do you understand by substantivization?

7. Are the words "more" and "most" lexical or grammatical means when, they form the degrees of comparison of

adjectives?

8. What adjectives form their comparative and superlative by root-vowel and final-consonant change?

1. What is phrase (word - combination)?

2. What is the difference between a word and a phrase?

3. What is the difference between a word and a phrase and a sentence?

4. What conceptions on phrase (word-combination) do you know?

5. What are the criteria to distinguish the types of phrases?

6. What types of phrases do you know according to the syntactic relations between the constituents

of phrases?

7. What types of phrases do you know according to the word-groups constituting phrases?

TESTLAR

1. «Lisoniy tarjima» nomli kitobining muallifi kim?
A) V. N. Komissarov.
B) J. Golsuor
C) Christine Francis
D) A.Meye

2. V. N. Komissarovning yozgan asarini belgilang?
A) «Lisoniy tarjima»
B) «tarjimashunoslik»
C) «tarjima asoslari»
D) «ijodiy tarjima»

3. Tarjima tillararo muloqotning alohida turi sifatida asosiy e'tiborni ikki til tizimining qanday jihatiga qaratishni taqozo etadigan ijodiy jarayondir?
A) Semantik
B) Leksik
C) Grammatik
D) Fonetik

4. Nima sababdan «ekvivalentlik» tushunchasi lisoniy tarjimaning markaziy tushunchalaridan biri hisoblanadi?
A) Semantik tarjima muammolari tilning mazmuniy jihatini o'rganish bilan bog'liq lisoniy muammolarning bir bo'lagidan iborat bo'lib, ularning hal etilishi ko'p hollarda semantikaning umumlisoniy jihatlarini o'rganishga vobastadir.
B) Chunki bu tushuncha birinchi paydo bo'lgan
C) Lisoniytarjimaning muqim vazifalaridan biri bo'lganligi uchun
D) To'g'ri javob yo'q

5. Ekvivalentlik tarjimaga berilgan ta'rifni ko'rsating.
A) «bir tildagi matnni o'zga tilda shu darajadagi matn bilan almashtirish».
B) «eng qimmatbaho tarjima turi»
C) «tilshunoslarni lol qoldirgan tarjima»
D) «so'zlarni bir-biriga aynan almashtirish yo'li»

6. Asliyat mazmunini o'zga tilga vazifaviy-uslubiy jihatdan to'la-to'kis talqin etishdan iborat jarayon bu…
A) ekvivalent tarjima.
B) adekvat tarjima
C) to'laqonli tarjima
D) so'zma-so'z tarjima

7. Ekvivalentlikning birinchi turi ko'rsatilgan javobni belgilang.
A) Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B) leksik tarkib va sintaktik qurilishdagi nomuvofiqlik
C) ikki holatda ham bir xil fikr bayon etilayotganligiga qaramasdan, asliyat va tarjimada ifoda etilgan axborot o'rtasida bevosita mazmuniy yoki mantiqiy bog'lanishning ko'zga tashlanmasligi
D) asliyat va tarjima matnlari mazmunlari orasidagi umumiylik darajasi ekvivalent sifatida tan olingan boshqa tarjimalarga nisbatan nihoyatda past

8. Ekvivalentlikning nechanchi turida asliyatdagiga nisban tarjimada go'yo mutlaqo boshqa narsa haqida gapirilayotgandek tuyuladi?
A) 1- turida: tarjimalarning asliyatga uyg'unligi ko'z ilg'amas darajada namoyon bo'ladi.
B) 2-turida: tarjimaning asliyatga yaqinligi foydalanilgai til vositalari ma'nolarining bir xil emasligi bilanizoxlanadi
C) 3-turida: asliyat va tarjima matnlari orasida quyidagi xususiyatlar ko'zga tashlanadi: ikki tilning mazmunan o'zaro mos ifoda vositalari leksik tarkib va goho sintaktik qurilish jihatlaridan to'la uyg'un bo'lmaydilar

D)4-turida: asliyat va tarjima o'rtasidagi munosabat ikki til matnlari leksik tarkiblarining yanada ko'proq o'xshashligi bilan izohlanadi

9. She turned her nose in the air--- to'g'ri tarjimani belgilang.
A) Qiz yigitga nafrat ko'zi bilan qarab qo'ydi.
B) U burnini havoda burdi
C) U burnini osmonga ko'tardi
D) U havoda burnini qayrib oldi

10. Ekvivalentlikning nechta turi mavjud?
A) 5 ta turi mavjud.
B) Ekvivalentlik hech qanday turga bo'linmaydi
C) 3 ta turi mavjud
D) Ilmiy isbotlanmagan (taxminiy 4 ta)

11. «Hosila» mazmun qanday mazmun deyiladi?
A) «Nazarda tutilgan» yoki «ko'chma»
B) « bevosita »
C) «hosil bo'lgan»
D) «ko'chirma»

12. Ekvivalentlikning ikkinchi turiga berilgan to'g'ri ta'rifni belgilang.
A) tarjimaning asliyatga yaqinligi foydalanilgan til vositalari ma'nolarining bir xil emasligi bilan izoxlanadi.
B) tarjimalarning asliyatga uyg'unligi ko'z ilg'amas darajada namoyon bo'ladi
C) ikki tilning mazmunan o'zaro mos ifoda vositalari leksik tarkib va goho sintaktik qurilish jihatlaridan to'la uyg'un bo'lmaydilar
D) qisman nomuvofiqlikning tarjimada aks ettirilishi harfhurlikka olib kelmagani holda, mazmuniy-vazifaviy uyg'unlikni yuzaga keltiradi

13. «Do you take me for a fool?»---to'g'ri tarjimani belgilang
A) «Meni yosh bola deb o'ylayapsizmi?».
B) «Meni jinniga olib ketasanmi?»
C) «Meni jinniga o'xshatyapsanmi?»
D) «Jinniga o'xshaymanmi?»

14. Qaysi ekvivalentlik turida fikr turli tillarda turlicha ifoda etilsada, bir xil vaziyat tasviri yaratiladi?
A) Ekvivalentlikning ikkinchi turida.
B) Ekvivalentlikning birinchi turida
C) Ekvivalentlikning uchinchi turida
D) Ekvivalentlikning to'rtinchi turida

15. «Fragile!» o'zbek tilida mos tushuvchi so'zni belgilang.
A) «Ehtiyot bo'ling, sinmasin»
B) «ostorojno, steklo!»
C) «to'xta, qurollanganman!»
D) mos muqobili yo'q

16. «Bobning intihosi» nomli roman muallifini aniqlang.
A) J. Golsuor.
B) V. N. Komissarov
C) Christine Francis
D) A.Meye

17. Tarixiy-genetik metodning haqiqiy asoschisi kim?
A) Mahmud Koshg'ariy .
B) G'aybulla Salom
C) Zamaxshariy
D) Gegen

18. ″bu shartli belgi hozirgi turkiy tilda nimani bildiradi?
A) orttirilgan fonetik elementni bildiradi.

B)	barcha til orqa undoshlarini bildiradi
C)	barcha til oldi va til oʻrta undoshlarini bildiradi
D)	barcha lab-lab va lab-tish undoshlarni bildiradi

19. Glottogenez soʼzining maʼnosini koʼrsating.
   A) yunoncha glotta – til, genesis – kelib chiqish soʻzlaridan olingan.
   B) lotincha glotta – til, genesis- nazariya soʼzlaridan olingan
   C) fransuzcha glotta – til, genesis – kelib chiqish soʻzlaridan olingan
   D) toʼgʼri javob yoʼq

20. Eng qadimgi tilni belgilang.
   A) homo sapiens.
   B) turkey til
   C) roman tili
   D) hind-yevropa tili

21. Glottogenez muammosi boʼyicha YUNESKO tomonidan oʻtkazilgan xalqaro simpozium nechinchi yilda boʼlgan?
   A) 1984 yili.
   B) 1976 yili
   C) 1966 yili
   D) 1987 yili

22. Til qanday hodisa?
   A) sotsial hodisa.
   B) iqtisodiy hodisa
   C) siyosiy hodisa
   D) madaniy hodisa

23. "Til jamiyatning sotsial boyligi sifatida shu tilda gaplashuvchi barcha jamiyat aʼzolari uchun xos boʻlgan lingvistik belgilar sistemasi, "nutqiy qobiliyatning sotsial hosilasi"dir." kimning fikri
   A) F.de Sossyurning.
   B) Mahmud Koshgʼariyning
   C) A.Meyening
   D) Zamaxshariyning

24. Yosh grammatikachilar qarashlarida ikki tamoyilini koʼrsating.
   A) Fonetik qonunlar va analogiya qonunlari.
   B) Leksik va Grammatik
   C) Fonetik va leksik
   D) Analogik va leksik

25. Lotindan voz kechib zamonaviy italyan tilida yaratilgan ilk asarni aniqlang?
   A) "Ilohiy komediya".
   B) "Xalq notiqlik sanʼti haqida"
   C) "Yevropaliklarning tillari haqida mulohaza"
   D) Toʼgʼri javob yoʼq

26. Dunyoga sistem-struktur Tilshunoslikning asoschisi sifatida tanilgan tilshunosni toping.
   A) Ferdinand de Sossyur.
   B) Landslo
   C) A.Meye
   D) Fridrix Shlegel

27. Notiq, chiroyli gapiruvchi, soʻz ustasi, yangi va oʻtkir soʻzlarni aytuvchi maʼnosini beruvchi forsiy soʻz qaysi?
   A)   Tarzabon.
   B)   Zabon
   C)   Tarjimon
   D) Tilmoch

28. Tarjima nazariyasi, tarixi va tanqidi bilan shug‘ullanuvchi fan nomi berilgan qatorni toping.

A) Tarjimashunoslik

B) adabiyotshunoslik

C) tarjimonlik

D)qiyosiy tarjima

29. 13. Asliyat bu-

A) tarjimaga asos bo‘lgan asar, original.

B) tarjima qilish, tarjima ishi bilan shug‘ullanish

C) tarjima tarixi, nazariyasi va tanqidi bilan shug‘ullanuvchi mutaxassis, olim

D) asl manbaa

30. Bu tarjima turida asliyat lisoniy vositalari matniy ma’nolari va uslubiy vazifalari umumxalk tili grammatik koidalari bilan xamoxanglikda kayta yaratiladi. Lisoniy vositalarning milliy-tarixiy, ijtimoiy va obrazli xissiy xususiyatlari asliyatga xos va mos tarzda talkin etiladi. Qaysi tarjima turi haqida gap ketyapti?

A) Ijodiy tarjima

B) so`zma-so`z tarjima

C) obrazlashtirilgan tarjima

D) sinxron tarjima

31. Asliyat va tarjima matnlari orasidagi
ekvivalentlik yuqori darajada namoyon bo‘ladigan ekvivalentlik turini aniqlang.

A) Ekvivalentlikning beshinchi turida.

B) Ekvivalentlikning birinchi turida

C) Ekvivalentlikning uchinchi turida

D) Ekvivalentlikning to’rtinchi turida

32. “ST” ma’nosini aniqlang?

A) “Source translation – Asl nusxa matni”

B) “tarjima matni”

C) “source transform – ma’lumot almashish”

D) “ ko’chirma matni”

33….---- bir tilda yaratilgan muayyan asarni o‘zga bir xalq ma’naviy ehtiyojiga xizmat qildiradigan, undan badiiy zavq olishi uchun imkoniyat yaratib beradigan kommunikativ vositadir.

A) tarjima.

B) matn

C) so’z

D) so’z birikmasi

34. Tarjimashunos olimlar asliyat va tarjima matn o‘rtasidagi muvozanat (muvofiqlik) turlarini nechtaga bo‘ladilar?

A) Uchga.

B) Ikkiga

C) Beshga

D) Oltiga

35. Mazmuniy muvozanat deganda nimani tushunamiz?

A) tarjima asliyat mazmunini to‘liq aks ettirishi, unga yuqori darajada mazmunan adekvat bo‘lishi tushuniladi.

B) tarjimonning asliyat muallifi bilan munosabati doirasida yuz berishi kerak, ya’ni asarning g‘oyaviy, janriy xususiyatlari to‘la saqlanishi talab qilinadi

C) tarjimada asliyatning syujeti va kompozitsion qurilishi, mazmunning bayon tartibi hech bir o‘zgarishsiz keltirilganda yuzaga keladi

D) barchasi

36. Tarjima matnining asliyatga nisbatan har jabhada yaqinlikka erishishga qanday tarjima deyiladi?

A) ekvivalent tarjimadeyiladi.

B) lingvistik tarjima deyiladi

C) muqobil tarjima deyiladi

D) lissoniy tarjima deyiladi

37. Tarjimashunoslik tarixida tillararo leksik muvofiqlik masalasini jiddiy o'rganish va muvofiqlik turlarini tasniflash, birinchi marta kim tomonidan o'rtaga tashlandi?

A)	Ya.Retsker.
B)	Draksler
C)	Ferdinand de Sossyur
D)	Zamaxshariy

38. Ya.Retsker muvofiqlik turlarini nechaga bo'ladi?

A)	Uchga
B)	ikkiga
C)	to'rtga
D)	beshga

39. Ya.Retsker muvofiqlikni qanday turlarga bo'ladi?

A)	Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B)	muqobil (analog)
C)	adekvat
D)	ekvivalent

40. Ekvivalent deganda…

A)	u muayyan vaqt va makon uchun kontekstga bog'liq bo'lmagan doimiy teng darajadagi muvofiqlikni tushuniladi.
B)	imkoniyatdagi bir necha sinonimlardan birini tanlab olgan holda amalga oshirilgan muqobil tarjima natijasidir
C)	frazeologizmlar, maqol va hikmatli so'zlar tarjima qilinadi
D)	tarjimani so'zma-so'z tarjima qilishga tushuniladi

Muqobillar yordamida, xususan,frazeologizmlar, maqol va hikmatli so'zlar tarjima qilinadi, deb yozgan olimni aniqlang.

A)	V. Vinogradov.
B)	Ya. Retsker
C)	A.D. Shveytser
D)	A.Meye

42. "Adekvatlikka erishish uchun, - "tarjimon asliyatning harfiy iskanjasidan, lug'aviy va iboraviy muvofiqliklardan qutulishi va vazifaning yechimini yaxlitlik nuqtai nazaridan mazmun, g'oyaviy yo'nalish va asliyat uslubida qidirmog'ilozim". G'oya muallifini toping.

A)	Ya. Retsker.
B)	A.Meye
C)	V. Vinogradov
D)	A.D. Shveytser

43. Ya. Retskerning tasnifi tilshunos tarjimashunos olimlarining jiddiy e'tirozlariga sabab bo'ldi. V. Vinogradov uni muqobillar (analoglar)ning bir-biriga to'g'ri kelmaydigan qanday jihatlarini hisobga olmaganini tanqid qilgan?

A)	Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B)	emotsional-ekspressiv
C)	stil
D)	dialect

44. Ya. Retskerni ekvivalentlik masalasida uni mavhum tushuncha berganlikda ayblagan tilshunosni belgilang.

A)	A.D. Shveytser.
B)	V. Vinogradov
C)	A.Meye
D)	Ferdinand de Sossyur

45. Ya. Retsker keyingi ishlarida muvofiqlik turlarini ikkiga: ekvivalent va muqobil muvofiqliklar (analog) turiga bo'lib, adekvatlikka tarjima faoliyatidagi bir usul sifatida qaray boshlashiga sababini aniqlang.

A)	V. Vinogradov va A.D. Shveytserlarning ekvivalentlik masalasidagi ayblari.
B)	Adekvantlikning tarjima faoliyatida o'rni yo'qligi uchun

C)	Boshqa olimlar ikkiga bo'la boshlagani sababli
D)	Keyinchalik ham o'z fikrida qolib 3 turga ajratgan

46. Ya. Retskerning adekvatlik haqidagi tasnifi qanday tarjima uchun juda maqbul mezon bo'lib xizmat qildi?

A)	Badiiy tarjima uchun.
B)	So'zma-so'z tarjima uchun
C)	Ilmiy tarjima uchun
D)	Semantic tarjima uchun

47. Ekvivalentlikning besh tipini ishlab chiqqan tilshunosni aniqlang.

A)	V.N. Komissarov.
B)	A.D. Shveytser
C)	V. Vinogradov
D)	Ya. Retsker

48. V.N. Komissarov ekvivalentlikning necha tipini ishlab chiqdi.

A)	besh tipini ishlab chiqdi.
B)	uch tipini ishlab chiqdi
C)	olti tipini ishlab chiqdi
D)	to'rt tipini ishlab chiqdi

49. Matnning eng kichik birligini aniqlang.

A)	Ibora
B)	so'z
C)	harf
D)	kirish so'z

50.Qaysi modelda ikki matn ekvivalentligi darajasi faqat bayon etilayotgan holatning umumiyligi asosida belgilanadi?

A)	Situativ.
B)	Transformatsion
C)	Leksik
D)	Afzallik

51. Madaniy bo'yoqdorlikka ega terminlarni tarjima qilishning usullari sifatida quyidagi to'rt asosiy tarjima usullarini taklif etgan tilshunosni aniqlang.

A)	Harvey.
B)	V. Komissarov
C)	V.N. Komissarov
D)	A.D. Shveytser

52. Harvey tarjima usullari tushunchasiga nisbatan qanday tushunchani qo'llaydi?

A)	"Translation techniques"
B)	"translation"
C)	"techniques"
D)	"translation aspects"

53. Funktsional ekvivalentlik (Functional Equivalence): Bu…

A)	tarjima tili madaniyatida Asliyat tili madaniyatidagi xuddi shunday vazifani bajaruvchi so'zni qo'llash.
B)	so'zlar so'zma-so'z tarjima qilinadi
C)	odatda umumiy terminlarga nisbatan ma'noni ochib berish uchun ishlatiladi
D)	usul formal ekvivalent unchalik foydali bo'lmagan keng turdagi kotekstlarda ko'llanadi

54. Shakliy ekvivalentlik (Formal Equivalence) yoki "lingvistik ekvivalentlik (linguistic equivalence)". Bu…

A)	So'zlar so'zma-so'z tarjima qilinadi
B)	asliyat tilidagi so'zni tarjima tilida qo'llash (borrowing)
C)	tasviriy yoki o'z-o'zidan tushunarli tarjima (Descriptive or selfexplanatory)
D)	u odatda umumiy terminlarga nisbatan ma'noni ochib berish uchun ishlatiladi

55. Transkriptsiya (transcription) ekvivalentlikga berilgan ta'rifni belgilang.
A) Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B) asliyat tilidagi so'zni tarjima tilida qo'llash (borrowing)
C) bu usul formal ekvivalent unchalik foydali bo'lmagan keng turdagi kotekstlarda ko'llanadi
D) u odatda umumiy terminlarga nisbatan ma'noni ochib berish uchun ishlatiladi

56. There is some chemistry between us that doesn't mix. – *Hayotda shunday bo'ladiki, kishilarning fe'l-atvorlari bir-biriga mos kelmaydi.* Ushbu gapda "ximiya" so'zining ko'chma ma'nosini retseptorga yetkazish qanday maqsadga to'g'ri keladi?
A) Kommunikatsiyaning maqsadi.
B) Ekvivalentlik kommunikatsiya maqsadi
C) Leksik maqsadi
D) Semantic maqsadi

57. Ekvivalentlikning birinchi tipiga oid xususiyatlarni belgilang.
A) Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B) leksik tarkib va sintaktik qurilishning nomuvofiqdigi
C) asliyat va tarjimadagi axborotlar o'rtasida real va mantiqiy aloqaning yo'qligi
D) asliyat va tarjima matnlari orasida umumiylik darajasining pastligi

58. Ekvivalentlikning ikkinchi tipiga oid xususiyatlarni ko'rsating.
A) Barca javoblar to'g'ri
B) leksik tarkib va sintaktik qurilishning nomuvofiqliti
C) kommunikatsiya maqsadining to'liq saqlab solinganligi
D) tarjimada aynan asliyatdagi hodisaga ishoraning mavjudligi

59. Ekvivalentlikning uchinchi tipiga oid xususiyatlarni ko'rsating.
A) Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B) leksik tarkib va sintaktik qurilishning nomuvofiqligi
C) kommunikatsiya maqsadining to'liq saqlab qolinganligi
D) tasvir usulining saqlab qolinganligi

60. Ekvivalentlikning beshinchi tipiga hos xususiyatlar mukammal ko'rinishda qanday tarjimada namoyon bo'ladi?
A) Adekvat tarjimada namoyon bo'ladi.
B) Lingvistik tarjimada namoyon bo'ladi
C) Grammatik tarjimada namoyon bo'ladi
D) Ekvivalent tarjimada namoyon bo'ladi

61. Lotincha so'zidan olingan bo'lib, "o'xshash", "bir xil", "teng", "to'la mos", "bir-biriga aynan o'xshash" kabi ma'nolarni anglatadigan tushunchani ko'rsating.
A) Adekvant
B) advokat
C) similar
D) same

62. *Adekvat* lotincha "adaequatues" so'zidan olingan bo'lib, uning ma'nosini aniqlang.
A) Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B) "o'xshash"
C) "bir xil", "teng"
D) "to'la mos", "bir-biriga aynan o'xshash"

63. "The Theory and Practice of Translation" kitobining muallifini toping.
A) Yul.Nayda.
B) V. Komissarov
C) V.N. Komissarov
D) A.D. Shveytser

64. Yul.Nayda "The Theory and Practice of Translation" kitobida ekvivalentlikni necha turga bo'ladi?
A) formal va dinamik kabi ikki asosiy turga ajratadi.

B)	uchta asosiy turga bo'ladi
C)	to'rtta qo'shimcha turga ajratadi
D)	beshta

65. Tarjimaga adabiy jarayon sifatida qaragan adabiyotshunos olim va adiblarni aniqlang.
A)	Barchasi.
B)	K.CHukovskiy, I.Kashkin
C)	G.Gachechiladze
D)	Vl. Rossels, O.Kundzich

66. Ingliz va o'zbek tillaridagi leksik muvofiqlik turlarini belgilang.
A)	Barcha javob to'g'ri
B)	to'liq leksik muvofiqlik
C)	qisman leksik muvofiqlik
D)	umuman mos kelmaslik

67. Ilmiy va texnik atamalar, oy, xafta, kun va sonlar qanday leksik muvofiqlikka misol bo'la oladi?
A)	to'liq leksik muvofiqlik.
B)	qisman leksik muvofiqlik
C)	umuman mos kelmaslik
D)	qisman mos kelish

68. So'zlarning polisemantik tushunchasi nima?
A)	ko'p ma'nolilik.
B)	bir ma'nolilik
C)	antonimlik
D)	omonimlik

69. *head*(bosh, kalla, raxbar, boshliqva x. k) so'zi qanday muvofiqlikga to'g'ri keladi?
A)	**Qisman leksik muvofiqlik.**
B)	To'liq leksik muvofiqlik
C)	Umuman mos kelmaslik
D)	Qisman mos kelish

70. Kundalik xayotda ishlatiladigan xos so'zlar (duppi, chopon, beshik) so'zlari qanday muvofiqlikka kiritish mumkin?
A)	Umuman mos kelmaslik.
B)	To'liq leksik muvofiqlik
C)	Qisman leksik muvofiqlik
D)	Qisman mos kelish

71. "o'zbek tili" qaysi tillar oilasiga kiradi?
A)	oltoy tillar oilasining turkiy tillar guruhiga.
B)	hind-yevropa oilasiga
C)	arab tillar oilasi
D)	uyg'ur tillar oilasi

72. Ingliz tilida nechta kelishik bor?
A)	Ikkita kelishik mavjud.
B)	Beshta kelishik bor
C)	Uchta kelishik mavjud
D)	Yettida kelishikdan iborat

73. O'zbek tilida nechta kelishik bor?
A)	oltita kelishik bor.
B)	ikkita kelishik mavjud
C)	uchta kelishik bor
D)	yettida kelishik mavjud

74. Umuman sintaktik mos kelmaslik bu…

	A)	asliya tili bilan tarjima tili o'rtasidagi ma'lum sintaktik konstruktsiyalar yetishmasligi yoki mos kelmasligi.
	B)	so'z birikmalarida ma'nolar mosligi bo'lsa-da,strukturasi bir-biridan farqlanadi
	C)	struktura mosligi, so'z birikmalari va gap bo'laklarining moslashuvi tushuniladi
	D)	sintaktik jixatdan aniqlovchili so'z birikmalari yasalishida ingliz tili o'zgarishlarga boy bo'lmagan til xisoblanib

75. Predikativ konstruktsiyalarda xarakat yoki xolat qanday gaplar tarjimasida aniqlanadi?
	A)	Sodda va qo'shma gaplar
	B)	aniqlovchi ergash gapli qo'shma gaplarda
	C)	sifatdoshli gaplarda
	D)	so'zma-so'z tarjima qilingan gaplarda

76. Grammatik transformatsiya turlarini ko'rsating.
	A)	Barcha javoblar to'gri
	B)	grammatik o'rin almashtirish
	C)	grammatik transpozitsiya
	D)	grammatik tushirib qoldirish va grammatik qo'shish

77. Bir gap bo'lagini boshqa bir gap bo'lagi bilan yoki biror so'z shaklini boshqa so'z shakli bilan almashtirish bu…
	A)	grammatik o'rin almashtirish.
	B)	grammatik transpozitsiya
	C)	grammatik tushirib qoldirish
	D)	grammatik qo'shish

78. Gap bo'laklarini almashtirish, so'zning grammmatik shakllarini almashtirish qaysi transformatsiya turida kuzatiladi?
	A)	grammatik o'rin almashtirish.
	B)	grammatik transpozitsiya
	C)	grammatik tushirib qoldirish
	D)	grammatik qo'shish

79. O'zbek tilida fe'l funksiyasi qaysi qo'shimchalar bilan ifodalanadi?
	A)	sifatdosh qo'shimchasi -moq yoki xarakat nomi -(i)sh qo'shimchalari bilan.
	B)	harakat nomi –ib qo'shimchasi bilan
	C)	zamon qo'shimchasi –ar bilan
	D)	zamon qo'shimchasi –yotir bilan

81. *We are searching for talent everywhere. - Мы povsyudu iщem talanты.-Biz hamma joydan talantlarni qidiryapmiz. Ushbu gaplardagi farq nimada ko'rinishi mumkin?*
	A)	ko'plikdagi ot tarjimada birlikda ot bilan kelishi yoki aksincha bulishi.
	B)	shaxs-son qo'shimchalarida
	C)	zamon shakllarida
	D)	farq kuzatilmaydi

82. Eng ko'p tarqalgan grammatik transformatsiya turini aniqlang.
	A)	so'z turkumlari almashinuvida kuzatiladi.
	B)	olmoshlarni almashinuvida kuzatiladi
	C)	shaxs-son qo'shimchalarida
	D)	hamma javob to'g'ri

83. *He is a poor swimmer-tarjimani to'g'ri variantini tanlang*
	A)	*- U yomon suzadi.*
	B)	– U qashshoq suzuvchi
	C)	– U suzishda yaxshi
	D)	– Uning suzish anjomlari yo'q

84. G r a m m a t i k t r a n s p o z i t s i y a deganda nimani tushunamiz?
	A)	Manba tili bilan tarjima tilidagi lingvistik elementlarning o'rin almashishi tushuniladi.
	B)	Asliyatdagi grammatik birlikning tarjima tiliga o'zgacha grammatik ma'no bilan o'giriladigan tarjima usuli

C)	Bir gap bo'lagini boshqa bir gap bo'lagi bilan yoki biror so'z shaklini boshqa so'z shakli bilan almashtirish tushuniladi
D)	Grammatik komponentlarning qisqartirilishi

85. Manba tili bilan tarjima tilidagi lingvistik elementlarning o'rin almashishi transformatsiya turi hisoblanadi?

A)	grammatik transpozitsiya.
B)	grammatik o'rin almashtirish
C)	grammatik tushirib qoldirish
D)	grammatik qo'shish

86. Qo'shma gaplarda sintaktik bog'liqlik qaysi transformatsiyaga aloqador?

A)	grammatik transpozitsiya.
B)	grammatik o'rin almashtirish
C)	grammatik tushirib qoldirish
D)	grammatik qo'shish

87. Grammatik komponentlarning qisqartirilishida kuzatiladigan Grammatik transformatsiyaning turini aniqlang.

A)	grammatik tushirib qoldirish.
B)	grammatik o'rin almashtirish
C)	grammatik transpozitsiya
D)	grammatik qo'shish

88. *A rolling stone gathers no moss. Gapning to'g'ri tarjima variantini belgilang.*

A)	*- Sayoq yursang, tayoq yeysan.*
B)	– Tebranuvchi tosh hech narsa yig'a olmaydi
C)	– Tosh uyumlari ahlat yig'maydi
D)	To'g'ri javob yo'q

89. Axborotning umumiy mazmuni haqida ma'lumot beradigan, muayyan kommunikativ xarakatga qaratilgan qismi nima deb ataladi?

A)	Aloqa mazmuni deb ataladi.
B)	Aloqa matni deb ataladi
C)	Matn mazmuni deb ataladi
D)	Axborot mazmuni deyiladi

90. …- bu asosiy temalari saqlab qolingan va gapning muayyan joylari o'zgartirib berilgan manba matnning o'zgacha semantik shakllanishidir.

A)	Tarjima.
B)	Mazmun
C)	Muloqot
D)	Transkripsiya

91. Asliyat matn va tarjima matn orasidagi necha xil muqobillik, ya'ni semantik aloqa borligini aniqlangan?

A)	Besh xil aloqa.
B)	Olti xil aloqa
C)	To'rt xil aloqa
D)	Uch xil aloqa

92. Tarjima turlari buyicha xususiyatlar saqlanish bosqichlari nimalarni o'z ichiga oladi?

A)	Barcha javob to'g'ri
B)	muloqot maqsadi, vaziyatni aniqlashtirish
C)	tasvirlash usullari
D)	sintaktik strukturaning yaxlitligi va semantik ma'no

93. Til birliklarining turiga qarab, muqobilliklar qanday darajada tasniflanishi mumkin?

A)	Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B)	leksik
C)	grammatik
D)	frazeologik

94. Kontekstning turlari nechta va ular qaysilar?
A) ikki turi mavjud: a) lingvistik (lisoniy); 2) situativ (vaziyat) kontekst.
B) bir turi mavjud: lisoniy
C) ikki turi mavjud: a) stilistik b) semantic
D) ikki turi mavjud: 1) real 2) noreal

95. Lingvistik kontekst bu…
A) manba matndagi boshqa til birliklari orqali yasaladi.
B) manba matn yuzaga kelgan zamon va makon sharoitlarini retseptorga tushuntira olish
C) yetkazilayotgan xabarni retseptor konikarli darajada tushunib olishi uchun bilishi kerak bo'lgan faktlarni o'z ichiga oladi
D) qabul qiluvchiga lingvistik ko'rsatma beradi

96. Kimlar xar xil tarixiy davlatlar va davrlarda quldorlik, ta'qiqlovchi qonunlar hamda o'lim jazosini cheklash tarafdorlari bo'lishgan?
A) Abolitsionistlar
B) apokalipslar
C) aristokratlar
D) *abolishionist*

97. Grammatik shakllarda muqobilli nechta yo'nalish ostida tasniflanadi?
A) uchta yunalish.
B) ikkita yo'nalish
C) to'rtta yo'nalish
D) beshta yo'nalish

98. «nol» tarjima deb nimaga aytiladi?
A) Bir grammatik birlik boshqa birlikning ma'nosiga biroz yaqin bo'lib, bu birlik tarjima qilinmasa.
B) Taxminiy tarjima usulida asliyat tilidagi muqobili bo'lmagan birlikka tarjima tilidagi muayyan shakl qisman muqobil sifatida ishlatilsa
C) Transformatsion tarjima usulida grammatik transformatsiyalarning biriga kayta murojaat qilinsa
D) Tarjimada umuman yutuqqa erishilmasa

99. Xatto oddiy so'zlashuvda ishlatiladigan iboralarni boshqa tildagi iboralar bilan xech qachon teng xisoblab bo'lmaydi. Bu kabi muammo kim tomonidan muallif va tinglovchi lingvistikasi doirasida ko'p marta muxokama qilingan?
A) B. Uorf.
B) A. Meye
C) V. M. Rossels
D) Fransuz tilshunosi

100. Kimning amerikalik tanqidchilar tomonidan yuqori baxolangan ingliz tilidagi nasriy asari xozirda Rossiya tizimida dunyoni obrazli aks ettirgan?
A) V. Nabokovning.
B) V. M. Rossels
C) B. Uorf
D) A. Fyodorov

102. Fors tilida yangi, shirali, tarovatli, nozik, latif kabi ma'nolarni bildiradigan so`z?
A) Tar
B) zabon
C) tarzabon
D) shirali

103 . Zabon – so`zining o`zbekcha muqobilini ko`rsating.
A) Til
B) shirali
C) yangi
D) tar

104.	Notiq, chiroyli gapiruvchi, so'z ustasi, yangi va o'tkir so'zlarni aytuvchi ma`nosini beruvchi forsiy so`z qaysi?
D)	Tarzabon
E)	zabon
F)	tarjimon
G)	tar

105. Tarzabon so'zining arabcha tarjimasi
A) Tarjimon
B) tarjima
C) zabon
D) tar

106. Tarjima so`zi qaysi so`zdan kelib chiqqan?
A) Tarjimon
B) zabon
C) tarzabon
D) tar

107. Tarjimon-
A) Bir tildagi og'zaki nutq yoki yozma matnni ikkinchi tilga tarjima qiluvchi kishi, mutarjim, tilmoch, tarjimachi.
B) tarjima qilish, tarjima ishi bilan shug'ullanisuvchi kasb nomi
C) tarjima tarixi, nazariyasi va tanqidi bilan shug'ullanuvchi mutaxassis, olim
D) notiq, chiroyli gapiruvchi, so'z ustasi, yangi va o'tkir so'zlarni aytuvchi ma`nosini beruvchi forsiy so`z

108. Tarjima nazariyasi, tarixi va tanqidi bilan shug'ullanuvchi fan nomi berilgan qatorni toping.
A) Tarjimashunoslik
B) adabiyotshunoslik
C) tarjimonlik
D) lingvistika

109. Davlatshoh Samarqandiyning "Tazkirat ush-shuaro" asari kim tomonidan tarjima qilingan?
A) B.Ahmedov.
B) I.Bekjon
C) G'.Karim
D) Q.Musayev

110. O'zbek shoirlar tarjima so'zi o'rniga qaysi atamalardan keng foydalanishgan?
A) Hamma javob to`g`ri.
B) o'girish, ag'darish
C) qaytarish, chevurish
D) To`g`ri javob yo`q

	111. "Guliston" asarini "Gulistoni bit-turkiy" nomi bilan tarjima qilgan tarjimon olim kim?
	A) Sayfi Saroyi.
	B) Alisher Navoiy
	C) Ogahiy
	D) Q.Musayev

	112. Zabardast tarjimon Muhammadrizo Ogahiy **tarjima** bilan birga qaysi atamalarni o`z asarlarida qo`llagan?
	A) Kiritish, o'tkazish, bayon etish
	B) o'girish, ag'darish
	C) qaytarish, chevurish
	D) To`g`ri javob yo`q

	113. Asliyat bu-

A) Tarjimaga asos bo‘lgan asar, original.
B) tarjima qilish, tarjima ishi bilan shug‘ullanuvchi kasb nomi
C) tarjima tarixi, nazariyasi va tanqidi bilan shug‘ullanuvchi mutaxassis, olim
D) asl nusxani idrok etish

114. Tarjimonning maqsadi –
A) Asl nusxa tilini bilmagan kitobxon (yoki tinglovchi)ni o‘sha asar matni (yoki og‘zaki nutq mazmuni) bilan iloji boricha to‘la, mukammal tanishtirish.
B) muayyan til vositalari bilan bir karra ifoda etilgan narsani boshqa til bilan aniq va to‘la ifodalash demakdir
C) tarjima tarixi, nazariyasi va tanqidi bilan shug‘ullanuvchi mutaxassis, olim.
D) To`g`ri javob yo`q

115. Tarjima bosqichlari ko`rsatilgan qatorni toping.
A) Barcha javoblar to`g`ri
B) asl nusxani idrok etish
C) asl nusxa interpretatsiyasi
D) asl nusxani qayta ifodalash

116. Qaysi qatorda tarjimaning turlari to`g`ri ko`rsatilgan?
A) Barcha javoblar to`g`ri
B) ijodiy tarjima
C) so`zma-so`z tarjima
D) obrazlashtirilgan tarjima

117. Ijodiy tarjimaga to`g`ri izoh berilgan qatorni belgilang.
A) Bu tarjima turida asliyat lisoniy vositalari matniy ma’nolari va uslubiy vazifalari umumxalq tili grammatik qoidalari bilan xamoxanglikda qayta yaratiladi. Lisoniy vositalarning milliy-tarixiy, ijtimoiy va obrazli xissiy xususiyatlari asliyatga xos va mos tarzda talqin etiladi.
B) muallif matnini xijjalab o`girish orkali uning mazmuniy-vazifaviy uyg`unligini soxtalashtiradigan, xissiy-ta’sirchanlik xususiyatini, badiiy-obrazli asosini xiralashtiradigan, tarjima tili me’yori va madaniyatini barbod etadigan, binobarin, asliyatning tugal-adekvat tarjimasi sifatida qabul qilib bo`lmaydigan ikkilamchi matnga aytiladi
C) Bu tarjima turida muallifning individual ijodiga xos tarzdagi tasvirni yuzaga keltirgan lisoniy vositalar beasos obrazli iboralar, xis-tuyg`uni ifoda etadigan so`zlar, balandparvoz birikmalar bilan almashtirib o`giriladi
D) To`g`ri javob berilmagan

118. So`zma-so`z tarjima deb nimaga aytiladi?
A) Muallif matnini xijjalab o`girish orqali uning mazmuniy-vazifaviy uyg`unligini soxtalashtiradigan, xissiy-ta’sirchanlik xususiyatini, badiiy-obrazli asosini xiralashtiradigan, tarjima tili me’yori va madaniyatini barbod etadigan, binobarin, asliyatning tugal-adekvat tarjimasi sifatida qabul qilib bo`lmaydigan ikkilamchi matnga aytiladi.
B) Bu tarjima turida asliyat lisoniy vositalari matniy ma’nolari va uslubiy vazifalari umumxalq tili grammatik qoidalari bilan xamoxanglikda qayta yaratiladi. Lisoniy vositalarning milliy-tarixiy, ijtimoiy va obrazli xissiy xususiyatlari asliyatga xos va mos tarzda talqin etiladi
C) Bu tarjima turida muallifning individual ijodiga xos tarzdagi tasvirni yuzaga keltirgan lisoniy vositalar beasos obrazli iboralar, xis-tuyg`uni ifoda etadigan so`zlar, balandparvoz birikmalar bilan almashtirib o`giriladi
D) To`g`ri javob berilmagan

119. Bu tarjima turida asliyat lisoniy vositalari matniy ma’nolari va uslubiy vazifalari umumxalq tili grammatik qoidalari bilan xamoxanglikda qayta yaratiladi. Lisoniy vositalarning milliy-tarixiy, ijtimoiy va obrazli xissiy xususiyatlari asliyatga xos va mos tarzda talqin etiladi. Qaysi tarjima turi haqida gap ketyapti?
A) Ijodiy tarjima
B) so`zma-so`z tarjima
C) obrazlashtirilgan tarjima
D) hamma javob to`g`ri

120. Tarjimaning qaysi turida muallif matnini xijjalab o`girish orqali uning mazmuniy-vazifaviy uyg`unligini soxtalashtiradigan, xissiy-ta'sirchanlik xususiyatini, badiiy-obrazli asosini xiralashtiradigan, tarjima tili me'yori va madaniyatini barbod etadigan, binobarin, asliyatning tugal-adekvat tarjimasi sifatida qabul qilib bo`lmaydigan ikkilamchi matnga aytiladi?

A) So`zma-so`z tarjima

B) badiiy tarjima

C) ijodiy tarjima

D) barcha javob to`g`ri

121. Bu tarjima turida muallifning individual ijodiga xos tarzdagi tasvirni yuzaga keltirgan lisoniy vositalar beasos obrazli iboralar, xis-tuyg`uni ifoda etadigan so`zlar, balandparvoz birikmalar bilan almashtirib o`giriladi.

A) Obrazlashtirilgan tarjima

B) so`zma-so`z tarjima

C) ijodiy tarjima

D) barcha javob to`g`ri

122. «Til va tarjima», «Tarjima nazariyasi asoslari», «Tarjima nazariyasiga kirish», «Tarjimon mahorati» asarlari kimga tegishli?

A) G'aybulla As-salom.

B) Qudrat Musayev

C) Boqijon To`qliyev

D) G`. Karim

123. O'zbekiston tarjimashunoslik fani asoschisi kim?

A) G'aybulla As-salom.

B) QudratMusayev

C) BoqijonTo`qliyev

D) G`. Karim

124. G'aybulla As-salom qalamiga mansub asarlar qaysilar?

A) «Til va tarjima», «Tarjima nazariyasi asoslari», «Tarjima nazariyasiga kirish», «Tarjimon mahorati».

B) «Badiiy tarjima va nutq madaniyati»

C) «Tarjima —san'at»

D) «Professor G'aybulla as-Salom»

125. G'aybulla As-salom 60 yilligiga bag'ishlab «Professor G'aybulla as-Salom» nomli ilmiy va ijodiy faoliyatiga oid ma'lumotnoma kimlar tomonidan nashr etildi?

A) Hamma javoblar to`g`ri

B) Muhammadjon Xolbekov

C) Zohidjon Sodiqiy, Salim Jabborov

D) Saloxiddin Hayitov

126. G'aybulla As-salomning matbuot yuzini ko'rgan ilk maqolasi qaysi?

A) «A.P.Chexov hikoyalarining ba'zi bir til va uslub xususiyatlari to`g'risida».

B) «Urischadan o'zbekchaga badiiy tarjimaning ba'zi nazariy masalalari xususida»

C) «Oyni etak bilan yopib bo`lmas»

D) «Tarjima —san'at»

127. "A.P.Chexov hikoyalarining ba'zi bir til va uslub xususiyatlari to`g'risida" nomli maqola kimning dastlabki ijod mahsuli edi?

A) G'aybulla As-salom.

B) Zohidjon Sodiqiy

C) Salim Jabborov

D) Qudrat Musayev

128. G'aybulla As-salomning ilk risolasi berilgan qatorni toping?

A) «Urischadan o'zbekchaga badiiy tarjimaning ba'zi nazariy masalalari xususida».

B) «A.P.Chexov hikoyalarining ba'zi bir til va uslub xususiyatlari to`g'risida»

C) «Tarjima —san'at»

D) «Oyni etak bilan yopib bo`lmas»

129. Kimning ilk risolasi «ruschadan o'zbekchaga badiiy tarjimaning ba'zi nazariy masalalari xususida»nomliedi?
A) G'aybulla As-salom.
B) Zohidjon Sodiqiy
C) Salim Jabborov
D) Qudrat Musayev

130. G'. Salomovning eng yirik, salmoqli, jiddiy asari ko`rsatilgan qatorni toping?
A) «Til va tarjima».
B) «A.P.Chexov hikoyalarining ba'zi bir til va uslub xususiyatlari to`g'risida»
C) «Tarjima —san'at»
D) «Oyni etak bilan yopib bulmas»

131. G'aybulla as-Salomning ilk she`rlari berilgan qatorni belgilang.
A) «Bir quv og'amga», «Hayvonot bog'ida».
B) «Qaldirg`ochning raketaga degani»
C) «Ohuni ko'zlab», «Paymona»
D) «Oyni etak bilan yopib bo`lmas»

132. Ilk she`rlari «Bir quv og'amga», «Hayvonot bog'ida» nomi bilan atagan ijodkor kim?
A) G'aybulla As-salom.
B) Zohidjon Sodiqiy
C) Salim Jabborov
D) Qudrat Musayev

133. «Ohuni ko'zlab», «Paymona», «Darz ketdi», «Bo'lganim bo'lgan» kabi she`rlar muallifi kim?
A) G'aybulla As-salom.
B) Zohidjon Sodiqiy
C) Salim Jabborov
D) Qudrat Musayev

134. Muayyan tilda og'zaki yoki yozma ravishda bayon qilingan fikrni boshqa til vositalari bilan qayta ifodalash- bu ?
A) Tarjima
B) tarjimon
C) tarjimashunoslik
D) tarjimon

135. **Tar** so`zining ma`nosi.
A) Fors tilida yangi, shirali, tarovatli, nozik, latif kabi ma'nolarni bildiradi.
B) notiq, chiroyli gapiruvchi, so'z ustasi, yangi va o'tkir so'zlarni aytuvchi ma`nosini beruvchi forsiy so`z
C) bir tildagi og'zaki nutq yoki yozma matnni ikkinchi tilga tarjima qiluvchi kishi, mutarjim, tilmoch, tarjimachi
D) to`g`ri javob yo`q

136. Til so`zining forsiycha muqobili nima?
A) Zabon
B) tar
C) tarjimon
D) tarzabon

137. Tarzabon so`zining o`zbekcha tarjimasi.
A) Notiq, chiroyli gapiruvchi, so'z ustasi, yangi va o'tkir so'zlarni aytuvchi ma`nosini beruvchi forsiy so`z.
B) fors tilida yangi, shirali, tarovatli, nozik, latif kabi ma'nolarni bildiradi
C) bir tildagi og'zaki nutq yoki yozma matnni ikkinchi tilga tarjima qiluvchi kishi, mutarjim, tilmoch, tarjimachi
D) to`g`ri javob yo`q

138. Tarjimon so`zining forsiy muqobili qaysi?
A) Tarzabon
B) tar
C) zabon

D) til

141.

139. Tarjima so`zi qaysi so`zdan kelib chiqqan?
A) Tarjimon
B) zabon
C) zarzabon
D) tar

140. Bir tildagi og‘zaki nutq yoki yozma matnni ikkinchi tilga tarjima qiluvchi kishi, mutarjim, tilmoch, tarjimachi. Qaysi so`z haqida fikr yuritilyapti?
A) Tarjimon
B) zabon
C) zarzabon
D) tar

141. Tarjimashunoslik bu-
A) Tarjima nazariyasi, tarixi va tanqidi bilan shug‘ullanuvchi fan nomi
B) birtildagiog‘zakinutqyokiyozmamatnniikkinchitilgatarjimaqiluvchikishi, mutarjim, tilmoch, tarjimachi
C) notiq, chiroyligapiruvchi, so‘zustasi, yangivao‘tkirso‘zlarniaytuvchi
D) hamma javob to`g`ri

142. O‘zbek shoirlar tarjima so‘zi o‘rniga qaysi atamalardan keng foydalanishgan?
A) Hamma javob to`g`ri.
B) o‘girish, ag‘darish
C) qaytarish,
D) chevurish

143. Sayfi Saroyi "Guliston" asarini qaysi nom bilan tarjima qilgan?
A) "Gulistoni bit-turkiy".
B) "Gulistoniy"
C) "Guliston"
C) To`g`ri javob yo`q

144. Tarjima so`zi bilan birga kiritish, o‘tkazish, bayon etish atamalarni o`z asarlarida qo`llagan shoir ko`rsatilgan qatorni toping?
A) Muhammadrizo Ogahiy.
B) Alisher Navoiy
C) Sayfi Saroyi
D) Abdulla Qodiriy

145. Tarjimaga asos bo‘lgan asar, original bu-
A) Asliyat
B) tarjima
C) tarjimon
D) so`z

146. Tarjima bosqichlari ko`rsatilgan qatorni toping.
A) Barcha javoblar to`g`ri.
B) asl nusxani idrok etish
C) asl nusxa interpretatsiyasi
D) asl nusxani qayta ifodalash

147. Qaysi qatorda tarjimaning turlari to`g`ri ko`rsatilgan?
A) Barcha javoblar to`g`ri.
B) ijodiy tarjima
C) so`zma-so`z tarjima
D) obrazlashtirilgan tarjima

148. Bu tarjima turida muallifning individua lijodiga xos tarzdagi tasvirni yuzaga keltirgan lisoniy vositalar beasos obrazli iboralar, xis-tuyguni ifoda etadigan so’zlar, balandparvoz birikmalar bilan almashtiri o’giriladi.

| A) Obrazlashtirilgan tarjima |
| B) so`zma-so`z tarjima |
| C) ijodiy tarjima |
| D) badiiy tarjima |

| 149. Hind-yevropa tillarini qiyosiy-tarixiy o'rganish tarixini ayrim tilshunoslar nechta asosiy davrga bo'lishni maqsadga muvofiq deb hisoblaydilar? |
| A) To`rta |
| B) beshta |
| C) oltita |
| D) uchta |

| 150. Hind-Yevropa tillari asosidagi qiyosiy-tarixiy Tilshunoslikning yaratuvchilaridan biri kim? |
| A) Frans Bopp. |
| B) Rasmus Rask |
| C) Yakob Grimm |
| D) F.de Sossyur |

| 151. "Sanskrit tilida yunon, lotin, fors va german tillariga qiyosan tuslanish sistemasi" nomli kitobini kim yozgan? |
| A) Frans Bopp. |
| B) Rasmus Rask |
| C) Yakob Grimm |
| D) F.de Sossyur |

| 152. Tarjimashunoslikning tarkibiy qismlari qaysilar? |
| A) Tarjima tarixi, tarjima nazariyasi, tarjima tanqidi |
| B) badiiy tarjima, ilmiy tarjima, sinxron tarjima |
| C) tarjima tarixi, tarjima tanqidi, tarjima targ'ibi |
| D) tarjima nazariyasi, tarjima metodikasi, tarjima tanqidi |

| 153. Tarjima qilish iborasining ma'nodoshlari qaysi qatorda to'g'ri ko'rsatilgan? |
| A) Qayta yaratish, o'girish, o'tkazish, ag'darish, qaytarish |
| B) tahrir qilish, tuzatish, qayta yaratish, o'tkazish |
| C) sharhlash, yozish, yaratish, tahrir qilish, aks ettirish |
| D) bayon etish, ijod qilish, tasvirlash, yaratish, sharhlash |

| 154. Asosiy jahon tillari qaysi qatorda to'g'ri ko'rsatilgan? |
| A) Ingliz, nemis, fransuz, rus, xitoy, arab |
| B) ingliz, nemis, fransuz, rus, xitoy, ispan |
| C) ingliz, nemis, fransuz, arab, fors, yapon |
| D) ingliz, rus, fransuz, ispan, xitoy, arab |

| 155. Tarjimashunoslik qaysi fanlar tutashgan nuqtada paydo bo'lgan |
| A) Tilshunoslik va adabiyotshunoslik |
| B) tarix va adabiyotshunoslik |
| D) tilshunoslik va tarix |

| 156. Adaptatsiya nima? |
| A) Moslashtirish |
| B) erkin tarjima qilish |
| C) o'zgartirish |
| D) sharhlash |

157. Zullisonayn so'zining ma'nosi nima?
A) Ikki tilni bilguvchi
B) ikki shoxli
C) bilingvist
D) barcha jovoblar to'g'ri

158. Taglama nima?
A) Barcha javoblar to'g'ri
B)so'zma-so'z tarjima
C) satrma-satr tarjima
D) aynan tarjima

159. "Men bilgan ijod turlari ichida eng ko'p mehnat talab qiladigan va eng kam e'tibor qilinadigani tarjimadir",-degan fikr kimga tegishli?
A) G'aybulla Salomov.
B) Aleksandr Pushkin
C) Vladimir Mayakovskiy
D) Abdulla Oripov

160. Neologizmlar nima?
A) yangi so'zlar
B) qadimiy so'zlar
C) milliy so'zlar
D) ma'nodosh so'zlar

161. Badiiy tarjima san'atning qaysi turiga kiradi?
A) So'z
B) rassomchilik
C) raqs
D) haykaltaroshlik

162. Bevosita tarjima qilish?
A) Asl nusxa tilidan tarjima qilish
B) vositachi til orqali tarjima qilish
C) boshqa til orqali tarjima qilish
D) to'g'ri javob yo'q

163. Bilvosita tarjima qilish?
A) Vositachi til orqali tarjima qilish
B) asl nusxa tilidan tarjima qilish
C) boshqa til orqali tarjima qilish
D) barcha jovoblar to'g'ri

164. Adekvat tarjima nima?
A) A va B javoblar to'g'ri aynan tarjima.
B) har jihatdan mos tarjima
C) mazmunan muqobil tarjima
D) shaklan muqobil tarjima

165. Erkin tarjima nima?
A) Ijodiy tarjima
B) aniq tarjima
C) soddalashtirilgan tarjima
D) tarjimon tomonidan o'zgartirilgan tarjima

166. Medium tushunchasi nimani anglatadi?
A) Boshqa til orqali tarjima qilish
B) asl nusxa tilidan tarjima qilish
C) vositachi til orqali tarjima qilish
D) barcha javoblar to'g'ri

167. Uslubiy moslashtirish nima?
A) Muallif va tarjimon uslubini moslashtirish
B) asarda tasvirlangan davr uslubini saqlash
C) muallif uslubini saqlash
D) tarjimon uslubini saqlash

168. Tabdil nima?
A) Yaqin tillardan tarjima qilish
B) qadimiy tildan hozirgi tilga tarjima qilish
C) o'lik tillardan tarjima qilish
D) belgilar tilidan tarjima qilish

169. Xalqaro tarjimonlar federatsiyasi qachon tuzilgan?
A) 1952 yilda.
B) 1901 yilda
C) 1924 yilda
D) 1963 yilda

170. Realiylar nima?
A) milliy xos so'zlar.
B) ilmiy terminlar
C) obrazli iboralar
D) badiiy tasvir vositalari

171. Lingvistik tipologiya turli tuzilmaviy belgilarning qanday sathlardagi ifodalanishi sifatida tadqiq etadi?
a. Barcha javob togri..
b. Fonologik
c. Grammatik
d. Leksik-semanik

172. Psixolinvistika atamasi qaysi davlat olimlari tomonidan ilmiy hayotga olib kirildi?
a. Amerika.
b. Yunoniston
c. Golland
d.Italyan

173. Kim tomonidan psiho lingvistika atamasi fanga olib kirildi?
a. Pronko.
b. E. R.Daybold
c. Dj.Grinberg
d. Lounsbern

174. "Inson tili va verbal xulqning muayyan aspektlariga nazariy va eksperimental yondashuvlarning ayrim aralashmasini anglatadi" jumlalari muallifi?
a. E. R.Daybold.
b. Pronko
c. Dj.Grinberg
d. Lounsbern

175. Psiho lingvistikaning asosiy maqsadi-bu…
a. **B**archa javob to`g`ri
b. tadqiqot natijalarini umumlashtirish
c. vujudga kelgan yonalishlarni tanishtirish
d. jahondagi shu fan bo'yicha olib borilayotgan tadqiqotlat haqida atroflicha ama'lumot berish

176. Quyidagilardan qay biri psixolingvistikaning vazifasi?
a. psiholinvistikaning paydo bo'lishi bilan tanishtirish berish.
b. tadqiqot natijalarini umumlashtirish

c. jahondagi shu fan bo'yicha olib borilayotgan tadqiqotlar haqida atroflicha ama'lumot
d. vujudga kelgan yonalishlarni tanishtirish

177. Psiho lingvistika qachon shakllana boshlagan?
a. 19-asrning 50-yillarida.
b. 20 asrning 50-yillarida
c. 21- asrda
d. 19 asrda

178. Tilshunoslikda pixologik yo'nalishning asoschisi kim?
a. Shteyntal.
b. Pronko
c. E. R.Daybold
d. Lounsbern

179. Shteyntal kim bilan birgalikda" Etnik psixologiya va tilshunoslik" nomli jurnalni nashr ettiradi?
a. Lotsarus.
b. Pronko
c. Dj.Grinberg
d. Lounsbern

180. "Etnikpsixologiya va tilshunoslik" quyidagilardan qaysi olimga tegishli?
a. B va D.
b. Shteyntal
c. Dj.Grinberg
d. Lotsarus

181. Shteyntal Lotsarus bilan birgalikda chiqargan jurnalining nomi?
a. Tilshunoslik
b. til va psiholingvistika
c. etnik psixologiya va tilshunoslik
d. psiholingvistika

182. Kimning asarlarida "tilning ichki shakli" tushunchasi markaziy o'rin egallaydi?
a. B va C.
b. Hulbolt
c. Potebnya
d. E. R.Daybold

183. 20-asr boshlaridagi universal grammatika asoschisi?
a. A. Marti.
b. Pronko
c. Dj.Grinberg
d. Lounsbern

184. A. Martingi fikriga ko'ra tilshunoslikning asosiy vazifasi …orqali ifodalangan mazmunni tahlil qilish daniborat ?
a. Universal til vositalari.
b. gaplar
c. til birikmlari
d. psihik fuksiyalar

185. Kimning fikriga ko'ra tilshunoslikning asosiy vazifasi universal tilvositalari orqali ifodalangan mazmunni tahlil qilishdani borat?
a. A. Marti.
b. Pronko
c. Dj.Grinberg
d. Lounsbern

186. Sintaktik nazariyaning maqsadi …ni tushuntirish.

a.Lingvistik intuitsiyani
b. grammatikani
c til transformatsiyasini
d. til qonuniyatini

187. Tilshunos Lizning grammatika haqida aytgan fikrini toping
a. Barcha javob to`g`ri
b. grammatika-bu tildan foydalanishga imkon yaratadigan insonning bilimlaridan iborat
c. grammatika-bu tildan foydalanishga imkon yaratadigan insonning qobiliyatini ta'riflashga intilishdan iborat
d. grammatika aytilgan fikrlarni maksimal jihatdan o'zida mujassamlashtirishi lozim

188. "Grammatika aytilgan fikrlarni maksimal jihatdan o'zida mujassamlashtirishi lozim" fikr muallifini toping.
a. A. Marti.
b. Pronko
c. Liz
d. Humbolt

189. Taniqli tilshunos Yu.Nayda tarjima nazariyasiga necha taraflama yondashuv lozimligini taklif etadi.
a. 4.
b. 2
c. 3
d. 5

190. Taniqli tilshunos Yu. Nayda tarjima nazariyasiga quyidagilardan qaysi yondashuvlar lozimligini taklif etadi?
a. Barcha javob to`g`ri
b. kommunikativ
c. sotsiosemantik
d. filologik

191. Badiiy matn, ya'ni uning strukturaviy va stilistik xususiyatlariga tayanish- bu …. Yondashuvdir.
a. Filologik.
b. kommunikativ
c. sotsiosemantik
d. lingvistik

192. Ikki tilning leksik va sintaktik holatlariga e'tibor qaratish- bu… yondashuvdir.
a. Lingvistik.
b. kommunikativ
c. sotsiosemantik
d. filologik

193. Ijtimoiy sharoit va kommunikatorlar orasidagi o'zaro muloqotga tayanish- bu… yondashuvdir.
a. Kommunikativ
b. filologik
c. sotsiosemantik
d. lingvistik

194.Asosan sinonimik belgilarga asoslangan holda tarjimani amalha oshirish bu… yonashuvdir.
a. Sotsiosemantik.
b. Kommunikativ
c. Filologik
d. Lingvistik

195. Sotsiosemiotik yondashuvda tarjima qilinayotgan matn nechta faktorga bo'linadi?
a. 3.
b. 2
c. 4
c 5

196. Qaysi yondashuv asosan 3 ta faktorga: belgi, referent va interpretantga bo'linadi?

| a. Sotsiosemantik |
| b. kommunikativ |
| c. filologik |
| d. lingvistik |

| 197. Sotsiosemiotik yondashuvda tarjima qilinayotgan qanday faktorlarga tayaniladi? |
| a. Barcha javob to`g`ri |
| b. referent |
| c. interpretent |
| d belgi |

| 198. Referent bu nima? |
| a. Matn |
| b. belgi |
| c. talqin qiluvchi |
| d. t.j.y |

| 199. Interpretent nima? |
| a. Talqin qiluvchi. |
| b. Belgi |
| c. Matn |
| d. T.J.Y |

| 200. Tarjimashunos Anna Lilovaning tariflashicha, tarjimaning necha turi bor? |
| a. 3. |
| b. 2 |
| c. 4 |
| d. 5 |

«TASDIQLAYMAN»
O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor
_____ D.Xolmatov
«___» _____2024 yil

Nazariy grammatika va til tarixi
fanining

ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI

2024-2025o'quv yili kunduzgi ta'lim shakli, 4- bosqich talabalari uchun

Bilim sohasi: 200000 – San`at va gumanitar fanlar
Ta'lim sohasi: 230000 – Tillar
Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 60230100- Filologiya va tillarni o`qitish
                                              (ingliz tili)

NAMANGAN – 2024

Fan/modul kodi NGTT0216	O'quv yili 2024-2025	Semestr 7		EKTS-Kreditlar 4
Fan/modulturi Majburiy fan	Ta'lim tili Ingliz			Haftadagi dars soatlari 7 semestr 4 soat

1	Fanning nomi	Ma'ruza mash g'ulotlari (soat)	Seminar mash g'ulotlari (soat)	Mustaqil ta'lim (soat)	Jami yuklama (soat)
	Nazariy grammatika va til tarixi	30	30	60	120

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I. Fanning mazmuni

Fanni o'qitishdan maqsad – talabalarga o'rganilayotgan tilning asosiy nazariy tushunchalari, chet tilini o'rganishning uslub va yondashuvlari, tilning ilmiy bilimlar tizimida tutgan o'rni va ahamiyati bilan tanishtirish, ularga til sathlarining nutqiy muloqot jarayonida kuzatiladigan asosiy qonuniyatlarini o'rgatishdan iborat.

Fanning vazifasi – talabalarga til nazariy aspektlarining bir-biri bilan o'zaro munosabatlari to'g'risidagi ilmiy-nazariy tushunchalarni o'rgatish, ularning tabiiy til mohiyati to'g'risidagi bilimlarini kengaytirish, tilning ichki tuzilmasi, til qatlamlari va birliklarini ilmiy asosda tadqiq etish ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirishdir.

II. Asosiy nazariy qism (ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari)

"O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari" fani tarkibida 5 ta modulь – "Leksikologiya", "Nazariy fonetika", "Nazariy grammatika", "Stilistika" va "O'rganilayotgan til tarixi" o'qitiladi.

Fan bo'yicha talabalarning tasavvur, bilim, ko'nikma va malakalariga qo'yiladigan talablar:

Nazariy grammatika fanini o'zlashtirgan talaba ingliz tili grammatikasini funktsional jihatdan farqlay olish, grammatik hodisalarni izohlash haqida tasavvurga ega bo'lishi bilan birga quyidagi mavzularni to'liq o'zlashtirishlari shart.

Nazariy grammatikaning asosiy tushuncha va tamoyillari; ingliz tilining grammatik tarkibi; so'zning morfemik tuzilishi, morfema va so'zning ta'rifi;grammatik ma'no, grammatik shakl va grammatik kategoriyalar; so'zlarni turkumlarga ajratilishini asosiy tamoyillari;

fe'l, so'z turkumlarining strukturaviy-semantik va funktsional tavsifi, sintaktik munosabat turlari; sintaktik strukturalar, so'z birikmasi, gap va gap bo'laklari, gap turlari; grammatik ta'limotlar tarixi; grammatikada qo'llaniladigan asosiy metodlar; fonetika va fonologiyaning asosiy tushuncha va tamoyillari;

Fanning o'quv rejadagi boshqa fanlar bilan o'zaro bog'liqligi va uslubiy jihatdan uzviyligi.

"Nazariy grammatika " fani bo'yicha mashg'ulotlar 7- semestrlar davomida o'quv rejadagi umumkasbiy va ixtisoslik fanlari bilan uzviy ketma-ketlikda olib boriladi.

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Talabalar ingliz tilining fonetik, morfologik, sintaktik va leksik qatlamlari birliklarini o'rganuvchi fanlardan (Chet til amaliy kursi, Asosiy o'rganilayotgan til, Tili o'rganilayotgan mamlakatlar adabiyoti tarixi, Adabiyot nazariyasi, Mamlakatshunoslik kabi fanlar) yetarlicha bilim va ko'nikmalarga ega bo'lganlaridan keyin o'qitiladi. Yuqoridagi fanlardan o'zlashtirilgan bilimlarni mustahkamlash va boyitishda ushbu fan katta ahamiyat kasb etadi.

Fanning ilm-fan va ishlab chiqarishdagi o'rni.

"Nazariy grammatika" fanlari ishlab chiqarish jarayoni bilan bevosita bog'lanmagan. Fan doirasida o'zlashtirilgan bilim, ko'nikma va malakalar talabalarga ta'lim tizimining turli bosqichlarida kasbiy faoliyat olib borishlarida, shuningdek ingliz tilini amaliy qo'llashlarida yordam beradi.

Fanni o'qitishda zamonaviy axborot va pedagogik texnologiyalar.

"Nazariy grammatika" fanini o'qitish jarayonida ta'limning zamonaviy metodlari, pedagogik va axborot kommunikativ texnologiyalaridan foydalanish nazarda tutilgan. Fanni o'zlashtirishda darslik, o'quv va uslubiy qo'llanmalar hamda ishlanmalar, tarqatma va elektron materiallardan foydalaniladi. Mazkur fan mashg'ulotlarida audio-video vositalari va kompьyuter texnologiyalari yordamida taqdimotlar o'tkazish, kommunikativ metodning tarmoqlari bo'lgan – loyihalash, masofaviy ta'lim, aqliy hujum, guruhli fikrlash, rotatsiya, aylana stol, keys stadi usullaridan foydalanish, kichik guruh musobaqalari, internet yangiliklarini qo'llash nazarda tutiladi.

II. Fan tarkibiga quyidagi mavzular kiradi:

II. 1. Fan tarkibiga quyidagi mavzular kiradi: 7-SEMESTR

1-mavzu. Introduction to the course of theoretical grammar. Morphology.Grammatical meaning and grammatical form. Grammatical units and categories.

Ingliz tilining grammatik vositalari: so'z tartibi, yordamchi so'zlar, grammatik qo'shimchalar, urg'u va intonatsiya, o'zak tarkibidagi tovushlar o'zgarishi. Morfema, morf, allomorf va ularning strukturaviy turlari.

2-mavzu. Morphology. Types of parts of speech. Grammatical features of the English language system.

Ingliz tilining grammatik vositalari: so'z tartibi, yordamchi so'zlar, grammatik qo'shimchalar, urg'u va intonatsiya, o'zak tarkibidagi tovushlar o'zgarishi. Morfema, morf, allomorf va ularning strukturaviy turlari.

3-mavzu. The Parts of Speech

The Noun. (Morfological and syntactical characteristics).

Ingliz tilida otning distributiv belgilari. Ularning belgilovchi va boshqa so'z turkumlari yordamida qo'shilishi. Otning so'z turkumi sifatida morfologik va semantik xarakteristikasi. Otlarning asosiy semantik guruxlari.Son kategoriyasi.Ingliz tilidagi otlarda ko'plik kategoriyasining ishlatilishi. Jamlovchi va partitiv otlar.

4-mavzu. The Adjectives and The Adverb. (Morphological and syntactical characteristics).

Sifat so'z turkumi sifatida.Uning asosiy xususiyatlari.Sifatning semantik tasnifi. Qiyoslash kategoriyasiga oid olmoshlarning semantikasi, sintaktik xossalari, grammatik kategoriyalari va shakllari.

5-mavzu. The Verb (Morfological and syntactical characteristics).

Fe'l - so'z turkumi sifatida. Uning leksik, morfologik va sintaktik xususiyatlari, umumiy va farq qiluvchi tomonlari. Fe'lning morfologik vazifasiga ko'ra tasnifi: mustaqil fe'llar, o'timli va o'timsiz fe'llar, ma'no jixatidan tugallangan va tugallanmagan fe'llar. Fe'lning grammatik kategoriyalari: aspekt (tarz) kategoriyasi, nisbat kategoriyasi. Ingliz tilida majxullik nisbatining keng tarqalish sabablari.Majxul konstruktsiyalarning qo'llanish xususiyatlari.

Fe'l mayllari.Ular to'g'risidagi zamonaviy kontseptsiyalar.

Fe'lning semantik - grammatik guruhlari.Fe'l tizimidagi grammatik ma'nolarni ifoda qilish vositalari.Fe'lning shaxssiz formalari. Infinitiv, gerundiy va sifatdosh.

6-mavzu. The Pronoun and The Numeral (Morfological and syntactical characteristics).
Son-so'z turkumi sifatida.Sonning turlari.Sonning gapdagi vazifalari.
Olmosh so'z turkumi sifatida.Olmoshning kelishik kategoriyasi. Olmoshning semantik va strukturaviy turlari

7-mavzu. Syntax. Word combination. The types of sentences. The Simple sentence.
Artikl, ko'makchi, bog'lovchi, yuklama va modal so'zlar.
Gap tushunchasini aniqlash xaqidagi asosiy fikrlar.Gapni aniqlashda klassik yondashuv.Gap tasnifi. Gapning maqsadga

ko'ra turlari: bir bosh bo'lakli va ikki bosh bo'lakli gaplar. Gapda ellipsis tushunchasi. Bir bosh bo'lakli va ikki bosh bo'lakli gaplarning farqi. Gap - kommunikatsiya birligi sifatida, gapning vazifasi, tuzilishi. Asosiy va ikkinchi darajali bo'laklar. Ega.Eganing ifoda vositalari.Kesim - gapning asosiy belgisi sifatida.Modallik tushunchasi. Kesimning asosiy xususiyati.Modallik kategoriyasining berilish yo'llari. So'z birikmasi. Birikma xosil bo'lish omillari.So'z birikmasining strukturaviy - funktsional tipologiyasi.So'z birikmasining komponentlari o'rtasidagi semantik munosabatlar.

8-mavzu.Sentence, the Types of Sentences
Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker.
Ingliz tili grammatikatikasida sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar, grammatikadagi mustasno xolatlar, til grammatikasidagi yangiliklardan talabalarni habardor qilish, tanishtirish.

9-mavzu. Roman - german tillari haqida umumiy ma'lumot
Roman va german tillarining hind-evropa tillar oilasida tutgan oʻrni. Hozirgi zamon roman va german tillari, ularning tarqalishi va tasnifi. Roman va German qabilalari haqidagi ma'lumotlar: (Piteas, Yuliy Sezar, Tatsit) roman va german qabilalarining tasnifi va "xalqlarning buyuk koʻchishi"davrida ularning joylashishi. Roman - german va roman tillarining oʻziga xos xususiyatlari: undoshlarning birinchi koʻchishi, Grimm qonuni, Verner qonuni, unlilarning oʻzgarishi, otlarning turlanish tizimi, fe'llarning miqdor oʻzgarishi va suffiksli fe'llarga ajralish tizimi, qadimgi alifbo, roman va german tillarining eng muhim yozma yodgorliklari va ularning tasnifi.

10-mavzu. Tillar tarixini davrlashtirish muammosi
Yevropa qit'asida Kelьt qabilalari. Rim qoʻshinlarining Britaniya orollarini bosib olishi, Rimliklar qurgan tarixiy obidalar. Mintaqada gʻarbiy german qabilalari va ularning Rim bilan aloqasi. Anglo-sakson, friz va yut qabilalarining Britaniya orollarini istilo qilishi va anglo – sakson davlatlarining yuzaga kelishi.Lotin tili va uning roman tillarining shakllanishidaagi oʻrni va ahamiyati. Qadimgi alfavitlar va yozma yodgorlikllar Nemis tilining paydo boʻlish tarixi. Roman-german tillari tovush tizimining tarixiy qonuniyatlari; palatallashuv. Sonor undosh birikmalari oldida unlilarning choʻzilishi, keyingi undoshning tushib qolishi natijasida unlilarning choʻzilishi. Undoshlarning birinchi va ikkinchi koʻchishi

11-mavzu. Morfologiya
Roman-german tillari morfologiyasi. Otning grammatik kategoriyalari: rod, son, kelishik. Negiz asosida otlarning qadimgi tasnifi. Otlarda koʻplik shakllarining hosil boʻlishi va ularning turlari. Soʻzning morfologik strukturasi. Ichki fleksiya yordamida oʻzakdagi unlining oʻzgarishi. Tashqi fleksiya. Flektsiyasiz tovush almashinishi.

12-mavzu. Qadimgi german va roman tillarida sifat, olmosh va son
Sifatning ikki xil turlanishi: kuchli va kuchsiz turlanish, turlanishlarning paydo boʻlishi. Kishilik olmoshlari, olmoshlarda grammatik kategoriyalar: shaxs, son (ikkilik sonining mavjudligi), Koʻrsatish olmoshlarning paydo boʻlishi. Sanoq sonlar. Tartib sonlar.

13-mavzu. Qadimgi roman-german davrida fe'l
Kuchli va kuchsiz fe'llar. Preterit – prezent fe'llar va ularning morfologik xususiyatlari.
Suppletiv fe'llar. Fe'llarning asosiy grammatik kategoriyalari: shaxs, son, zamon, mayl.
Fe'lning analitik shakli masalasi: Nisbat kategoriyasi.

14-mavzu. Qadimgi roman va german tillarida sintaksis
Sintaksis. Gap turlari. So‘roq gaplarda so‘z tartibi. Gapda bosh bo‘laklarning ifoda
etilishi. Sodda gapda sintaktik aloqalarning ifodalanishi. Kelishiklarning vazifalari.

15-mavzu. Qadimgi roman- german tillari lug‘at boyligi
Roman-german tillari lug‘at tarkibi va ularning taraqqiyoti.
Lug‘at tarkibining xususiyatlari. umum hind – yevropa va umum roman va german
so‘zlari, lug‘at tarkibining boyib borishi va uning turli yo‘llari: Affikslar yordamida
so‘zlar yasash. So‘z yasalish jarayonining mahsuldor va kam mahsullik xususiyatlarini
aks ettiruvchi affikslar; Qo‘shma so‘zlar. qo‘shma so‘zlarni hosil qilish yo‘llari. Tovush
almashishi (umlaut) ; Eski so‘zlarning yangi ma'noga ega bo‘lishi. O‘zlashtirma
so‘zlarning ishlatilishi.

III. Seminar mashg‘ulotlari bo‘yicha ko‘rsatma va tavsiyalar
1-mavzu. Introduction to the course of theoretical grammar. Morphology.Grammatical
meaning and grammatical form. Grammatical units and categories.
Ingliz tilining grammatik vositalari: so'z tartibi, yordamchi so'zlar, grammatik
qo'shimchalar, urg'u va intonatsiya, o'zak tarkibidagi tovushlar o'zgarishi. Morfema,
morf, allomorf va ularning strukturaviy turlari.
2-mavzu. Morphology. Types of parts of speech. Grammatical features of the English
language system.
Ingliz tilining grammatik vositalari: so'z tartibi, yordamchi so'zlar, grammatik
qo'shimchalar, urg'u va intonatsiya, o'zak tarkibidagi tovushlar o'zgarishi. Morfema,
morf, allomorf va ularning strukturaviy turlari.
3-mavzu. The Parts of Speech
The Noun. (Morfological and syntactical characteristics).
Ingliz tilida otning distributiv belgilari. Ularning belgilovchi va boshqa so'z turkumlari
yordamida qo'shilishi. Otning so'z turkumi sifatida morfologik va semantik
xarakteristikasi. Otlarning asosiy semantik guruxlari.Son kategoriyasi.Ingliz tilidagi
otlarda ko'plik kategoriyasining ishlatilishi. Jamlovchi va partitiv otlar.
4-mavzu. Grammatical meaning and grammatical form
Sifat so'z turkumi sifatida.Uning asosiy xususiyatlari.Sifatning semantik tasnifi.
Qiyoslash kategoriyasiga oid olmoshlarning semantikasi, sintaktik xossalari, grammatik
kategoriyalari va shakllari.
5-mavzu. Grammatical units and categories
Fe'l - so'z turkumi sifatida. Uning leksik, morfologik va sintaktik xususiyatlari, umumiy
va farq qiluvchi tomonlari. Fe'lning morfologik vazifasiga ko'ra tasnifi: mustaqil fe'llar,
o'timli va o'timsiz fe'llar, ma'no jixatidan tugallangan va tugallanmagan fe'llar.
Fe'lning grammatik kategoriyalari: aspekt (tarz) kategoriyasi, nisbat kategoriyasi. Ingliz
tilida majxullik nisbatining keng tarqalish sabablari.Majxul konstruktsiyalarning
qo'llanish xususiyatlari.
Fe'l mayllari.Ular to'g'risidagi zamonaviy kontseptsiyalar.
Fe'lning semantik - grammatik guruhlari.Fe'l tizimidagi grammatik ma'nolarni ifoda
qilish vositalari.Fe'lning shaxssiz formalari. Infinitiv, gerundiy va sifatdosh.
6-mavzu. The Pronoun and The Numeral (Morfological and syntactical characteristics).
Son-so'z turkumi sifatida.Sonning turlari.Sonning gapdagi vazifalari.
Olmosh so'z turkumi sifatida.Olmoshning kelishik kategoriyasi. Olmoshning semantik
va strukturaviy turlari
7-mavzu. Syntax. Word combination. The types of sentences. The Simple sentence.

| | Artikl, ko'makchi, bog'lovchi, yuklama va modal so'zlar. Gap tushunchasini aniqlash xaqidagi asosiy fikrlar.Gapni aniqlashda klassik yondashuv.Gap tasnifi. Gapning maqsadga ko'ra turlari: bir bosh bo'lakli va ikki bosh bo'lakli gaplar. Gapda ellipsis tushunchasi. Bir bosh bo'lakli va ikki bosh bo'lakli gaplarning farqi. Gap - kommunikatsiya birligi sifatida, gapning vazifasi, tuzilishi. Asosiy va ikkinchi darajali bo'laklar. Ega.Eganing ifoda vositalari.Kesim - gapning asosiy belgisi sifatida.Modallik tushunchasi. Kesimning asosiy xususiyati.Modallik kategoriyasining berilish yo'llari. So'z birikmasi. Birikma xosil bo'lish omillari.So'z birikmasining strukturaviy - funktsional tipologiyasi.So'z birikmasining komponentlari o'rtasidagi semantik munosabatlar.

8-mavzu.Sentence, the Types of Sentences
Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker. Ingliz tili grammatikatikasida sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar, grammatikadagi mustasno xolatlar, til grammatikasidagi yangiliklardan talabalarni habardor qilish, tanishtirish

9-mavzu. Roman va German tillari haqida umumiy ma'lumot
Roman-german tillarining fonetik xususiyatlari, Tillar tarixini davrlashtirish muammosi, Qadimgi german va roman tillarida so'z turkumlari masalasi, Qadimgi roman-german davrida Fe'l, Qadimgi roman va german tillarida Sintaksis, Qadimgi roman- german tillari lug'at boyligi, O'rganilayotgan til tarixining o'rta davri, O'rganilayotgan til tarixining o'rta davri lug'at boyligi, O'rganilayotgan til tarixining o'rta davrida Sintaksis.
10-mavzu. Tillar taraqqiyotining yangi davri, Roman–german tillari taraqqiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy voqealari.
11-mavzu. Milliy tilning vujudga kelishida poytaxt shevasining ahamiyati. Maxalliy shevalarning saqlanib qolishi va ularning ijtimoiy ko'rinishlari.
12-mavzu. Kasb – hunar jargonlarining paydo bo'lishi. Kitob nashr qilinishi munosabati bilan milliy til yozma shaklining keng tarqalib borishi.
13-mavzu. Yangi davrda sodir bo'lgan asosiy fonetik o'zgarishlar.Tillar grammatik tizimida sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar.
14-mavzu. Tillar taraqqiyotining barcha davrlaridagi o'ziga xos jihatlari
15-mavzu. Consolidation.

Seminar mashg'ulotlari multimediya vositalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada o'tkazilishi lozim. Mashg'ulotlar faol va interfaol usullar yordamida o'tilishi, mos ravishda munosib pedagogik va axborot texnologiyalar qo'llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq. |

III. Asosiy nazariy qism (ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari)
UMUMIY VA O`QUV ISHLARI  TURLARI BO`YICHA HAJMI

Ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari mazmuni va ular bo'yicha ajratilgan soatlarning taqsimoti.

№	Nazariy grammatika va til tarixi	
	VII semestr mavzulari	Soatlar
1	Introduction to the course of theoretical grammar. The Grammatical Structure of a Languag	2
2	Morphology. The Grammatical Categories.	2
3	The Parts of Speech The Noun. (Morfological and syntactical characteristics)	2

4	The Adjectives and The Adverb. (Morphological and syntactical characteristics)	2
5	The Verb (Morfological and syntactical characteristics)	2
6	The Pronoun and functional parts of speech	2
7	Syntax. Word combination.	2
8	Sentence, the Types of Sentences Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker	2
9	Language families, English language origin	2
10	The Great vowel shift. Word formation	2
11	Semantic changes	2
12	Foreign Influences on English in the 17th 18th and 19th Centuries	2
13	Contribution of Major Writers	2
14	Discrepancy between Spelling and Pronunciation	2
15	Dialects of English British and American English	2
	Jami	30

Seminar mashg'ulotlar.
Seminar mashg'ulotlari mazmuni va ular bo'yicha ajratilgan soatlarning taqsimoti.

№	Nazariy grammatika va til tarixi	
	VII semestr mavzulari	Soatlar
1	Introduction to the course of theoretical grammar. The Grammatical Structure of a Languag	2
2	Morphology. The Grammatical Categories.	2
3	The Parts of Speech The Noun. (Morfological and syntactical characteristics)	2
4	The Adjectives and The Adverb. (Morphological and syntactical characteristics)	2
5	The Verb (Morfological and syntactical characteristics)	2
6	The Pronoun and functional parts of speech	2
7	Syntax. Word combination.	2
8	Sentence, the Types of Sentences Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker	2
9	Language families, English language origin	2
10	The Great vowel shift. Word formation	2
11	Semantic changes	2
12	Foreign Influences on English in the 17th 18th and 19th Centuries	2
13	Contribution of Major Writers	2
14	Discrepancy between Spelling and Pronunciation	2
15	Dialects of English British and American English	2
	Jami	30

<p style="text-align:center">IV. Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar</p>

№	Mavzular	Bajarilish shakli	Soat
	VII semestr		
1	O'rganilayotan til tarixini davrlarga bo'lib o'rganish	PPT presentation	6
2	O'rganilayotgan til qadimgi davrining fonetik xususiyatlari	Poster tayyorlash	6
3	O'rta davr fonetik strukturasi	Portfolio	6
4	O'rganilayotggan til qadimgi davridagi yozma yodgorliklar	PPT presentation	6
5	O'rganilayotgan til tarixiy davri lug'at boyligi	PPT presentation	6
6	O'rganilayotgan til o'rta davri lug'at boyligi	Poster tayyorlash	6
7	O'rganilayotgan til o'rta davri va xususiyatlari	Poster tayyorlash	6
8	O'rganilayotgan til yangi davr grammatikasining o'ziga xos til xususiyatlari	PPT presentation	6
9	O'rganilayotgan til yangi davr leksikasining o'ziga xos til xususiyatlari	PPT presentation	6
10	O'rganilayotgan til Yangi davr shevalarining o'ziga xos til xususiyatlari	Portfolio	6
	Jami		60

V. Fan o'qitilishining natijalari (shakllanadigan kompetentsiyalar)
Fanni o'zlashtirish natijasida talaba:

- o'rganilayotgan xorijiy til fonetik strukturasi, grammatik qurilishi va lug'at tarkibining asosiy tushunchalari va kategoriyalari to'g'risida tasavvur va bilimga ega bo'lishi;

- talaba lisoniy muloqot jarayonlarini tahlil qilish usullarini qo'llash, nutqiy muloqot muammolari bo'yicha to'g'ri qaror qabul qilish ko'nikmalariga ega bo'lishi;

- tilshunoslik nazariyasi asoslarini, lingvistik qonunlar, tushunchalar kategoriyalarini, muloqot jarayonlarining funktsional diskurs xususiyatlarini bilishi va ulardan foydalana olish malakasiga ega bo'lishi kerak.

VI. Ta'lim texnologiyalari va metodlari:

- ma'ruzalar;
- interfaol keys-stadilar;
- seminarlar (mantiqiy fiklash, tezkor savol-javoblar);
- guruhlarda ishlash;
- taqdimotlarni qilish;
- individual loyihalar;
- jamoa bo'lib ishlash va himoya qilish uchun loyihalar.

VII. Kreditlarni olish uchun talablar:

Fanga oid nazariy va uslubiy tushunchalarni to'la o'zlashtirish, tahlil natijalarini to'g'ri aks ettira olish, o'rganilayotgan jarayonlar haqida mustaqil mushohada yuritish va joriy, oraliq nazorat shakllarida berilgan vazifa va topshiriqlarni bajarish, yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha yozma ishni topshirish.

Fanga ajratilgan kreditlar talabalarga har bir semestr bo'yicha nazorat turlaridan ijobiy natijalarga erishilgan taqdirda taqdim etiladi.

Fan bo'yicha talabalar bilimini baholashda oraliq (ON) va yakuniy (YaN) nazorat turlari qo'llaniladi. Nazorat turlari bo'yicha baholash: 5 – "a'lo", 4 – "yaxshi", 3 – "qoniqarli", 2 – "qoniqarsiz" baho mezonlarida amalga oshiriladi.

Oraliq nazorat har semestrda bir marta yozma ish shaklida o'tkaziladi.

Talabalar semestrlar davomida fanga ajratilgan amaliy (seminar) mashg'ulotlarda muntazam, har bir mavzu bo'yicha baholanib boriladi va o'rtachalanadi. Bunda talabaning amaliy (seminar) mashg'ulot hamda mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlarini o'z vaqtida, to'laqonli bajarganligi, mashg'ulotlardagi faolligi inobatga olinadi.

SHuningdek, amaliy (seminar) mashg'ulot va mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlari bo'yicha olgan baholari oraliq nazorat turi bo'yicha baholashda inobatga olinadi. Bunda har bir oraliq nazorat turi davrida olingan baholar o'rtachasi oraliq nazorat turidan olingan baho bilan **qayta o'rtachalanadi**.

O'tkazilgan oraliq nazoratlardan olingan baho **oraliq nazorat natijasi** sifatida qaydnomaga rasmiylashtiriladi.

Yakuniy nazorat turi semestrlar yakunida tasdiqlangan grafik bo'yicha yozma ish shaklida o'tkaziladi.

Oraliq (ON) va yakuniy (YaN) nazorat turlarida:

Talaba mustaqil xulosa va qaror qabul qiladi, ijodiy fikrlay oladi, mustaqil mushohada yuritadi, olgan bilimini amalda qo'llay oladi, fanning (mavzuning) mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi, aytib beradi hamda fan (mavzu) bo'yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda – **5 (a'lo) baho**;

Talaba mustaqil mushohada yuritadi, olgan bilimini amalda qo'llay oladi, fanning (mavzuning) mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi, aytib beradi hamda fan (mavzu) bo'yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda – **4 (yaxshi) baho**;

Talaba olgan bilimini amalda qo'llay oladi, fanning (mavzuning) mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi, aytib beradi hamda fan (mavzu) bo'yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda – **3 (qoniqarli) baho**;

Talaba fan dasturini o'zlashtirmagan, fanning (mavzuning) mohiyatini tushunmaydi hamda fan (mavzu) bo'yicha tasavvurga ega emas, deb topilganda – **2 (qoniqarsiz) baho** bilan baholanadi.

Asosiy, qo'shimcha adabiyotlar va axborot manbalari

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manbalar va har bir til xususiyatlari inobatga olingan holda qo'shimchalar kiritilishi mumkin. Kiritilgan qo'shimchalar ishchi dasturlarda keltiriladi.

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Namangan davlat universiteti tomonidan ishlab chiqilgan va tasdiqlangan:

-"Ingliz tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasining 2024-yil, _____ ___-sonli majlisida muhokama qilingan va tasdiqqa tavsiya etilgan.

- Jahon tillar fakulteti kengashining 2024-yil, _____ ____-sonli majlisida ma'qullangan va tasdiqqa tavsiya etilgan.

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