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**Сопоставительная фразеология
английского
и русского языков**

Учебное пособие

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Данное учебное пособие предназначено для студентов 4-го курса факультета иностранных языков. Целью данного пособия является ознакомление студентов с межъязыковой фразеологической эквивалентностью, способами перевода лакунарных ФЕ и научить их выбирать наиболее адекватный способ перевода ФЕ в каждом отдельном случае.

Фразеология – одно из ярких и действенных средств языка. Метафоричность, эмоциональность, оценочность, экспрессивность - все эти качества фразеологических единиц придают нашей речи образность и выразительность.

Источниками отбора языкового материала для предлагаемого спецкурса послужили наиболее авторитетные фразеологические словари русского и английского языков, из которых методом сплошной выборки был собран необходимый материал.

В пособии дается сопоставительный анализ ФЕ английского и русского языков в структурно-грамматическом плане, описание понятийно-фразеологических, лексико-фразеологических и собственно фразеологических универсалий, выделяются особенности фразеологической системы каждого из сопоставляемых языков, связанные как с экстралингвистическими, так и с внутриязыковыми факторами. Цель лекций – исследование вариаций сходств и отличий в формах и семантике фразеологических единиц.

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1. ПРОГРАММА СПЕЦКУРСА «СОПОСТАВИТЕЛЬНАЯ ФРАЗЕОЛОГИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО И РУССКОГО ЯЗЫКОВ»

1. Цели и задачи спецкурса, его место в учебном процессе

1.1. Цель преподавания спецкурса - предлагаемый спецкурс предназначен для студентов 4-го курса факультета иностранных языков. Он ставит своей целью сформировать у изучающих английский язык способность определять различия и общие черты во фразеологических системах английского и русского языков. Исследование вариаций сходств и различий в формах и семантике фразеологических единиц способствует достижению одной из целей сопоставительной лингвистики, которая представляет собой новое направление в сравнительно – типологическом языкознании.

Наличие общих черт в системах фразеологии двух языков подтверждает универсальность и типичность рассматриваемого явления. Определение специфических черт позволяет выявить лингвистические уникалии, которые необходимо учитывать исследователям – переводчикам и преподавателям английского языка.

Методический аспект сопоставительного анализа фразеологических единиц связан также с явлениями трансференции и интерференции на уровне фразеологии, что также необходимо учитывать при переводе и в процессе преподавания английского языка.

1.2. Задачи изучения спецкурса:

- передать совокупность знаний и представлений о фразеологической единице, ее специфике в системе языковых знаков и месте фразеологии в системе лингвистических дисциплин;
- ознакомить студентов с вопросами истории фразеологии как самостоятельной отрасли языкознания, обратить внимание на приоритет отечественной науки в этой области лингвистики;
- сообщить сведения о происхождении фразеологических единиц современного английского языка;
- ознакомить с методами изучения фразеологических единиц;
- обсудить вопросы устойчивости, раздельности - оформленности и системности фразеологических единиц;
- рассмотреть структурно-семантические и грамматические характеристики фразеологических единиц современного английского языка и принципы их классификации;
- раскрыть закономерности функционирования фразеологических единиц различных классов и типов;
- определить ведущие тенденции их развития, обусловленные комплексом лингвистических и экстралингвистических факторов;

- научить студентов определять коммуникативную ценность фразеологической единицы, ее стилистическую и эмоциональную окраску, видеть прагматическую роль ФЕ в контексте.

1.3. Требования к уровню освоения содержания спецкурса.

В результате изучения спецкурса студент должен:

Студенты, изучившие спецкурс, должны **знать**:

- основные направления в сопоставительной фразеологии;
- существующие классификации фразеологических единиц;
- типы фразеологических единиц и критерии их определения;
- структуру семантического значения фразеологических единиц;
- парадигматические и синтагматические связи фразеологических единиц в английском и русском языках;

Студенты, изучившие спецкурс, должны **уметь**:

- определить источники фразеологических единиц в двух языках; общие и специфические закономерности их происхождения;
- трансформировать фразеологические единицы в речи;
- применять теоретические знания в самостоятельной исследовательской деятельности с использованием различных методов исследования;
- делать самостоятельные выводы из наблюдения над фактическим языковым материалом;

Студенты, изучившие спецкурс, должны **быть ознакомлены**:

- современное развитие фразеологической науки за рубежом;
- способы переводов фразеологических единиц.

1.4. Перечень дисциплин, усвоение которых необходимо для изучения спецкурса сопоставительная фразеология английского и русского языка: практический курс первого иностранного языка, практическая фонетика, практическая грамматика, теоретическая фонетика, лексикология, история языка и введение в спецфилологию, стилистика.

2. Объем дисциплины и виды учебной работы:

Виды учебной деятельности	Всего часов	Семестры	
Общая трудоемкость дисциплины	72		8
Аудиторные занятия	32		32
Лекции	14		14
Практические занятия (семинары)	18		18
Лабораторные работы	-	-	-
Самостоятельная работа	32		34
Контрольные работы	4		4
КСР	4		
Вид итогового контроля			зачет

3. Содержание спецкурса.

3.1. Разделы спецкурса и виды занятий

№	Раздел спецкурса	Всего	Лекции	Семинары	СРС
1.	Фразеология. Категория классификации фразеологических единиц	4	2	2	4
2.	Этимологические особенности английских и русских фразеологических единиц. Исконные и заимствованные фразеологические единицы	4	2	2	4
3.	Сопоставление семантической структуры фразеологических единиц. Парадигматические связи фразеологизмов	6	2	4	6
4.	Различные способы трансформаций фразеологических сочетаний. Дополнение Замещение. Перестановка слов. Исключение.	6	2	4	6
5.	Особенности употребления фразеологических единиц в речи. Метафора. Фразеологический каламбур в речи. Использование расщепления Аллюзия. Повтор. Насыщенность в речи.	8	4	4	6
6.	Фразеологические эвфемизмы в современном английском языке. Классификация фразеологических эвфемизмов. Синонимия фразеологических эвфемизмов.	4	2	2	6
	Итого	32	14	18	32

3.2. Содержание разделов спецкурса

3.2.1. Лекционный курс

Тема 1. Фразеология. Категория классификации фразеологических единиц. Фразеология, ее определение. Критерии фразеологических сочетаний. Типы классификаций фразеологических комбинаций. Пословицы и поговорки как часть фразеологии.

Тема 2. Этимологические особенности английских и русских фразеологических единиц. Исконные фразеологические единицы. Фразеологические единицы, связанные с обычаями, традициями, родом деятельности и суевериями. Фразеологические единицы, отражающие исторические события, связанные с классической литературой, историей, мифологией. Заимствованные фразеологические единицы. Этимологические особенности русских фразеологических единиц.

Тема 3. Сопоставление семантической структуры фразеологических единиц. Парадигматические связи фразеологизмов. Фразеологическое значение. Фразеологические синонимы. Фразеологические антонимы.

Тема 4. Фразеологические сочетания. Изменение формы в речи. Общее понятие. Различные способы трансформаций фразеологических сочетаний. Дополнение. Замещение. Перестановка слов. Исключение.

Тема 5. Особенности употребления фразеологических единиц в речи. (I) Метафора. Фразеологический каламбур в речи. Использование расщепления.

Тема 6. Особенности употребления фразеологических единиц в речи. (II) Фразеологическая аллюзия (намеки). Фразеологический повтор. Фразеологическая насыщенность в речи.

Тема 7. Фразеологические эвфемизмы в современном английском языке. Классификация фразеологических эвфемизмов. Синонимия фразеологических эвфемизмов.

3.2.2. Практические занятия.

1. Определение фразеологических единиц в текстах на английском и русском языках, определение их статуса.

2. Определение этимологии фразеологической единицы. Работа с фразеологическими словарями.

3. Сопоставление семантической структуры фразеологических единиц. Определение фразеологических эквивалентов, аналогов, соответствий.

4. Определение фразеологических синонимов, антонимов. Работа с текстами и словарями.

5. Определение фразеологических трансформаций в тексте. Различия в употреблении фразеологических единиц в английском и русском языках.

6. Определение фразеологических эвфемизмов в тексте. Различные группы эвфемизмов, классификация. Синонимичные группы эвфемизмов.

7. Контрольная работа (Test).

3.3. Самостоятельная работа студентов (СРС)

3.3.1. Внеаудиторная работа студентов

СРС включает изучение теоретического (лекционного) материала по темам в течение семестра, подготовку к семинарским занятиям, подготовку к сдаче зачета, экзамена, работу по самоконтролю – выполнение заданий тестов по теоретической грамматике.

3.3.2. Работа преподавателя по организации СРС и контроль ее результатов

Данный вид работы предполагает:

- выдачу вопросов для самостоятельного контроля знаний по дисциплине;
- проведение текущего контроля усвоения теоретического материала;
- проведение консультаций по вопросам, вызывающим затруднения;
- выдачу заданий для выполнения рефератных работ;
- распределение тем курсовых работ;
- составление планов курсовых работ;
- проведение консультаций по курсовым работам;
- составление тем дипломных работ и их распределение;
- регулярные консультации по дипломным работам.

3.3.3. Образец теста для самостоятельной работы студентов:

1. The term “phraseology” was introduced by

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| A. V. Vinogradov | B. Charles Bally |
| C. N. Amosova | D. A. Koonin |

2. A phraseological unit is characterized by, stability (lexical and grammatical), expressivity and emotiveness.

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| A. integrity of meaning | B. identity of meaning |
| C. distinctive features | D. extensive features |

3 Integrity of meaning is typical of _____ .

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| A. unities | B. idioms |
| C. phraseological combinations | D. variableword-combinations |

4. Vinogradov’s classification of phraseological units is based on _____.

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------|
| A. etymology | B. semasiology |
| C. semantic integrity | D. structure |

5. Prof. Koonin offered a detailed classification of phraseological units.
 A. structural **B. etymological**
 C. logical **D. historical**
6. A profound study of English phraseology has been undertaken by
 A. Galperin **B. Koonin**
 C. Bloch **D. Mokienko**
7. Grammatical variant of the phraseological unit “as safe as a house” is_.
 A. assafe as a castle **B. as safe as houses**
 C. assafe as homes **D. safe as houses**
8. The phraseological unit “a bull in a china shop” is_____.
 A. nominative-communicative **B.interjectional**
 C. communicative **D. nominative**
9. Prof. Amosova thinks that tophraseology.
 A. only idioms belong **B. only proverbs belong**
 C. only sayings belong **D. proverbs and sayings don't belong**
10. A part-of-speech classification of phraseological units was offered by_____.
 A. Prof. Arnold **B. Prof. Shansky**
 C. Prof. Galperin **D. Prof. Cherkasskaya**
11. Etymological classification of phraseological units was offered by____.
 A. L. Smith **B. Arnold**
 C. U. Weinreich **D. I. Haugen**
12. The phraseological unit “a black sheep” is_____.
 A. native **B. borrowed from the Bible**
 C. borrowed from mythology **D. borrowed from Shakespeare's works**
13. The phraseological unit “eat smb. out of house and home” is_____.
 A. borrowed from mythology **B. borrowed from Shakespeare**
 C. borrowed from the Bible **D. borrowed from French_____**
14. The phraseological unit “cast pearls before swine” is _____.
 A. borrowed from mythology **B. borrowed from the Bible**
 C. native **D. borrowed from Latin**

15. The phraseological unit “the thread of Ariadna” is _____.
- A. borrowed from French
B. borrowed from Latin
C. borrowed from mythology
D. native
16. Choose the right idiom for translation of the sentence:
Прокурор мечетъ в него грома и молнии.
- A. to foam at the mouth
B. to go off the deep end about smth.
C. to hurl thunderbolts at smb (smth)
D. to blow one’s top
17. Choose the right idiom: He can’t help his feelings, his love is stronger than his will and I naturally advised him _____.
- A. to pull himself together
B. to take himself in hands
C. to hold himself in hands
D. to keep a hold on himself
18. Three types of phraseological synonyms are: ideographic, stylistic and _____.
- A. logical
B. stylistic-ideographic
C. contrastive
D. connotational
19. Idioms “go to one’s last home” and “kick the bucket” are _____.
- A. phraseological antonyms
B. stylistic synonyms
C. ideographic synonyms
D. phraseological variants
20. A specific case of wordplay which lies in the relation between the PU and the corresponding free combination of words is called _____.
- A. pun
B. cleft
C. deletion
D. permutation
21. _____ is the use of two PUs running close to each other, complementing the _____ image and creating phraseological space.
- A. phraseological reiteration
B. phraseological saturation
C. phraseological allusion
D. phraseological pun
22. Give English equivalent for the Russian: покупать котав мешке.
- A. to buy a cat in a bag
B. to buy a pig in a poke
C. to throw money to the wind
D. to make the money fly
23. Give English Equivalent for the Russian: иметь зубна...
- A. To have a tooth against
B. to have teeth against
C. to have a grudge against
D. to have an inkling against

24. Give English equivalent for the Russian: убить двух зайцев
A. to kill two rabbits with one stone B. to kill two birds with one stone
C. to kill two rabbits with one shot D. to kill two birds with one shot
25. Give antonym to the English idiom “to know the ins and outs”
A. see one’s way B. see how the land lies
C. to get one’s bearings D. to be at a loss

3.3.4. Виды контроля результатов СРС

- текущий контроль;
- защита рефератов;
- включение учебного материала в экзаменационные вопросы;
- текущий контроль работы студентов над курсовыми работами и дипломными проектами;
- защита курсовых работ;
- защита дипломных работ.

3.3.5. Примерная тематика курсовых работ:

1. Функционирование фразеологизмов в современном англоязычном художественном тексте.
2. Создание эмоциональной сущности художественного текста посредством самооценочного высказывания.
3. Художественный англоязычный текст как среда функционирования метафоры.
4. Роль невербального фактора в раскрытии внутреннего мира персонажа (на материале современного англоязычного художественного текста).
5. Фразеологизм как отражение национального мировидения и культурно-языковых контактов (на материале английского и русского языков).
6. Функционирование фразеологических единиц в английском языке (на материале текстов песен британских исполнителей).
7. Фразеологические единицы тематического поля «образование» в современном АЯ (на материале текстов СМИ).
8. Национально-культурная специфика фразеологизмов тематического поля «Бизнес» в русском и английском языках.
9. Творчество У.Шекспира как источник фразеологизмов.
10. Особенности перевода имен собственных в составе фразеологических единиц с английского языка на русский.

11. Фразеологические единицы с компонентом - зоонимом в английском и русском языках.
12. Сопоставительный анализ антропоцентрических фразеологических единиц английского, русского и татарского языков.
13. Денежные единицы в английских фразеологизмах.
14. Лексические и экстралингвистические особенности общественно-политического текста.
15. Фразеологические единицы терминологического происхождения.
16. Сопоставительный анализ фразеологических единиц с компонентами, означающими пространство в английском и русском языках.
17. Фразеологические единицы современного английского языка на примере произведений Ш. Бронте.
18. Фитонимы в английских фразеологизмах.
19. Семантические особенности ФЕ с компонентом «женщина».
20. Узуальные преобразования адъективных ФЕ в английском и русском языках.
21. Окказиональные преобразования адъективных ФЕ в английском и русском языках.

II. THE SYNOPSIS OF THE COURSE

Theme 1. Phraseology as a brunch of general linguistic.

Annotation (Summary): Phraseology, its definition. A profound study of English phraseology undertaken by different scholars. Distinctive features of phraseological units such as integrity of meaning, stability, separability, expressivity and emotiveness. Types of classifications of phraseological units. Sayings and proverbs as a part of phraseology.

Keywords: phraseology, word – combinations, idioms, classifications, Stylistics, stability, inseparability, proverbs, fusions.

Questions for discussion:

1. What's Phraseology? Give the definition of Phraseology as a science.
2. Distinctive features of Phraseological units.
3. Different types of classifications of Phraseological units.
4. Proverbs and Sayings as a part of Phraseology.
5. Identification of Phraseological units in the texts in English and in Russian, evaluation of their status.
6. Etymological characteristics of Phraseological units. Work with Phraseological dictionaries.

Literature :

1. Амосова Н.Н. Основы английской фразеологии [Текст]/ Н.Н. Амосова - СПб, 2011. 765 с.
2. Арнольд И.В. Стилистика современного английского языка: Стилистика декодирования/ И.В. Арнольд. Л.: Просвещение, 1973. – 303 с.
3. Виноградов В.В. Очерки по истории русского литературного языка XVII—XIX вв: учебник для студентов филол. фак. ун-тов/ В.В. Виноградов. – 3-е изд. - М.: Высш. Шк., 1982. 528 с.
4. Кунин А.В. Курс фразеологии современного английского языка/ А.В. Кунин. – М.: Высшая школа, 1986. – 336 с.
5. Смит Л. Smith L.P. Words and Idioms Studies in the English Language/ L.P. Smith. – London, 1948. – 229 p.

Theme 2. Etymological peculiarities of Phraseological units. Phraseological units of the English language. Phraseological units of the Russian language.

Annotation (Summary): Native Phraseological units. Phraseological units, reflecting some English traditions and customs, trade and superstitions of the English people as well as with some realities and historical facts. English phraseological units connected with classical

literature, history and mythology. Borrowed Phraseological units. Etymological peculiarities of Russian Phraseological units.

Keywords: native phraseological units, borrowings, trade, occupation, Bible, English word-stock, origin.

Questions for discussion:

1. Etymology of Phraseological units. Native Phraseological Units of English. (distinguish and describe all the groups).

2. Borrowed Phraseological units of English (describe all the subgroups in detail).

3. Etymological peculiarities of Russian Phraseological units. a) Native Phraseological units (give the examples); б) Borrowed Phraseological units (give the examples of Phraseological units).

4. Correlation of semantic structure of Phraseological units. Identification of Phraseological equivalents, analogy, correspondence.

Literature:

1. Арсентьева Е.Ф. Сопоставительный анализ фразеологических единиц, выражающих характер человека, в английском и русском языках: Дис. ... канд. филол. наук /Е.Ф.Арсентьева. – Казань: Тат.кн. изд-во, 1983. – 213 с.

2. Бабкин А.М. Русская фразеология, ее развитие и источники. [Текст] /А.М. Бабкин - СПб: Наука, 2012. 654 с.

3. Виноградов В.В. Об основных типах фразеологических единиц в русском языке [Текст] // Виноградов В.В. Лексикология и лексикография: Избр. Тр. - М.: Наука, 2011. 432 с.

4. Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка. М., 1996.

5. Кунин А.В. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь. 3-е изд., стереотип [Текст]. / А.В. Кунин – М.: Русский язык, 2013. 324 с.

6. Литвинов П.П. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь с тематической классификацией [Текст]. / П.П. Литвинов – М.: Яхонт, 2014. 677.6.

Theme 3. Phraseological meaning. Phraseological synonyms.

Phraseological antonyms.

Annotation (Summary): Like lexical meaning, phraseological meaning may also be considered as the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system. The majority of phraseological units are monosemantic, but polysemy is also typical of phraseology. Phraseological synonyms are the same in the plane of the content but different in the plane of expression. They belong to the same grammatical class. There are

ideographic, stylistic and stylistic-ideographic. Phraseological units of the same part of speech but opposite in meaning are phraseological antonyms.

Keywords: Lexical meaning, synonyms, antonyms, denotation, connotation, component, subcomponent, emotive, expressive, evaluative, monosemantic, polysemy, plane of expression, plane of content.

Questions for discussion:

1. Connotation of Phraseological units. Different types of evaluative connotation.
2. Phraseological synonyms. Types of Phraseological synonyms.
3. Phraseological antonyms. Types of Phraseological antonyms.
4. Identification of Phraseological synonyms and antonyms. Work with texts and dictionaries.

Literature:

1. Авербух, К.Я. Лексические и фразеологические аспекты перевода : учеб.пособие для студ.высш.учеб.заведений. - М. : Академия, 2009. - 176с.

2. Апресян Ю.Д. Лексическая семантика: Синонимические средства языка /Ю.Д.Апресян. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – М.: Школа "Языки русской культуры": Вост. лит., 1995. – 472 с.

3. Архангельский В.Л. Устойчивые фразы в современном русском языке. Основы теории устойчивых фраз и проблемы общей фразеологии/ В.Л. Архангельский. – Ростов н/Д.: Изд-во Рост. Ун-та, 1964. – 315 с.

4. Кунин А. В. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь / А. В. Кунин. – 4-е изд., перераб. и доп[Текст]. – М. : Рус. яз., 2012. 942 с.

5. СмитЛ. Smith L.P. Words and Idioms Studies in the English Language/ L.P. Smith. – London, 1948. – 229 p.

6. Хорнби А.С. Конструкции и обороты английского языка [Текст] // Хорнби А.С. Ростов-на-Дону: Феникс, 2002. 433с.

Theme 4.Phraseological units.Deformation in speech.

General notes. Additions.

Substitutions or replacements.Permutations.Deletions.

Annotation (Summary): The study of phraseological units cannot be confined to their meanings. Play on words and creative use of language has always been part of the English tradition. English literature, newspaper articles, public speeches of politicians are abound in deformed Phraseological units. Some idioms are lexically flexible and can be easily transformed. There are many idioms which permit only minimal variation or

are totally invariant. Some idioms have no permutational possibilities in terms of their internal grammar. If transformed, such idioms lose their idiomaticity.

Keywords: additions, substitutions, replacements, permutations, deletions, transformations, wisdom of many generations, compositional analysis, figurative interpretation, non-idiomatic construction.

Questions for discussion:

1. General notes on the way English and Russian Phraseological units are changed.
2. Addition as one of the ways of transformation of Phraseological units.
3. Substitution and replacement – ways of transformation of Phraseological units.
4. Determination of phraseological transformations in the text. Differences in usage of Phraseological units in English and Russian.

Literature:

1. Hirsch, E.D. et al. The New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy. – Boston; New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2002.
2. Izotova A. English Idiomatic Phraseology in Fiction. – M., 1998.
3. Izotova A. English Idioms: Usage and Tradition. – M., 2001.
4. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. – M.:Русскийязык, 1992.
5. Longman Dictionary of English Idioms. – The Pitman Press, Bath, 1980.

Theme 5. The Use of Phraseological units in Discourse (I).

Extended Metaphor, Phraseological Puns in Discourse, Cleft Use.

Annotation (Summary): Discourse analyses attempts to identify and describe linguistic regularities and irregularities in utterances which cannot be accounted for at sentence level, study language in use across sentence boundaries. We speak about the use of extended metaphor, pun, cleft use and phraseological allusion. Punning is a specific case of wordplay. Its stylistic effect lies in the relation between the Phraseological unit and the corresponding free combination of words with their literal meanings. Cleft usesplits upthe PU, at the same time retaining a set of stylistic and semantic resources for linking it into an entity ensuring cohesion in discourse.

Keywords: discourse, regularities, irregularities, utterance, punning, metaphor, cleft use, pervasiveness, transference, cohesive network, sub-image.

Questions for discussion:

1. The use of phraseological units in discourse or the contextual use of phraseological units.
 2. Types of extended phraseological metaphor.
 3. Punning is one of the stylistic devices. Interaction of Phraseological unit with the corresponding free word group.
 4. Ways of creating conditions for cleft use of phraseological units.
 5. Identification of phraseological transformations in the text.
- Differences in usage of Phraseological units in English and Russian.

Literature:

1. Алехина А.И. Исследование системной организации фразеологии современного английского языка. Проблема фразеологических отношений и фразеологических структур: Автореф. дис. ... д-ра филол. наук /А.И.Алехина. – Л.: Дашков и К, 1986. – 33 с.
2. Hirsch, E.D. et al. The New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy. – Boston; New
3. Кунин А. В. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь / А. В. Кунин. – 4-е изд., перераб. и доп[Текст]. – М.: Рус. яз., 2012. 942 с.
4. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. – М.:Русскийязык, 1992. Longman Dictionary of English Idioms. – The Pitman Press, Bath, 1980.
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Theme 6.The Use of Phraseological units in Discourse (II) Phraseological Allusions.Phraseological Reiteration.Phraseological Saturation of Discourse.

Annotation (Summary): Allusion egresses the meaning of the PU in a more concentrated form, it focuses on the most important piece of information. Phraseological reiteration is a form of cohesion which mayinvolve the repetition of the whole PU, its parts or isolated components that refer back to it.The simplest form of phraseological saturation is the use of the two PUs running close to each other, complementing the image and creating space.

Keywords: phraseologicalallusion, explicit image-bearing component linguistic, context, the given instantiation, discourse, the origin of the allusion, phraseological reiteration, extended metaphor, bare reiteration, saturation, sustain.

Questions for discussion:

1. The role of phraseological allusion in the text.
2. What form of cohesion can produce the phraseological reiteration?

3. What for is phraseological saturation used in the text?

Literature:

1. Арнольд И.В. Стилистика современного английского языка/ И.В. Арнольд. – Л.: Просвещение, 1873. – 304 с.
2. Блэк М. Метафора // Теория метафоры [Текст]./ М. Блэк - М., 2012. 321 с.
3. Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка[Текст]. / А.В. Кунин - М.: Международные отношения, 2011. 675с.
4. Гумбольдт В. фон. Г 94 Избранные труды по языкознанию: Пер. с нем. / Общ.ред. Г.В. Рамишвили; Послесл. А.В. Гулыги и В.А. Звезгинцева. — М.: ОАО ИГ «Прогресс», 2012. 342 с.
5. Даль В.И. Пословицы и поговорки русского народа/ В.И. Даль. – Спб.: Диалог, 1997. – XX, 523 с.
6. Whiting B.J. The Nature of the Proverb/ F.F. Weeks// Harvard University Studies & Notes in Philology & Literature, 1932. - №14. – p. 273 – 307.

Theme 7. Phraseological Euphemisms in Modern English. Etymology of Euphemisms. Groups of phraseological Euphemisms in Modern English. Phraseo-semantic classification of Euphemisms.

Annotation (Summary): This lecture is devoted to the study of phraseological euphemisms in Modern English. As a linguistic phenomenon it has been analyzed since the XIXth century but only in the last decades the problem of euphemisms acquired its widespread popularity. From the point of view of the semantics phraseological euphemisms (PE) may be subdivided into several groups: euphemisms naming death, poverty, hard financial situation, mental deformities (disability), some acts or conditions from the sphere of physiology, referring to the sexual sphere. Phraseological euphemisms belonging to one and the same phraseo-semantic group may further be subdivided into synonymic groups as there are different grammatical classes in one and the same group – verbal, substantive, adjectival, etc.

Keywords: euphemisms, euphemisation, ameliorative language evaluation, extralinguistic, denomination, transferred meaning, human vices, physical handicaps, polysemantic phraseological unit, to be indecent, connotational components of meaning, denotational components, concept, emotional evaluation, synonymic euphemisms.

Questions for discussion:

1. What is the purpose of euphemisms? Etymology of euphemisms.
2. What are the most important groups of phraseological euphemisms?
3. Phraseological euphemisms belonging to one and the same phraseo-semantic group may further be subdivided into synonymic groups. Types of these synonymic groups.

Literature:

1. Grinberg L.E., Kuznets V.D., Kumacheva A.V., Melser G.V. Exercises in Modern English Lexicology. - /L.E. Grinberg, V.D. Kuznets, A.V. Kumacheva, G.V. Melser. – М., 1960.
2. Кунин А.В. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь. 3-е изд., стереотип [Текст]. / А.В. Кунин – М.: Русский язык, 2013. 324 с.
3. Литвинов П.П. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь с тематической классификацией [Текст]. / П.П. Литвинов – М.: Яхонт, 2014. 677с
4. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. – М.: Русский язык, 1992. Longman Dictionary of English Idioms. – The Pitman Press, Bath, 1980.

III. QUESTIONS FOR THE TEST on the special course “Comparative Phraseology of English and Russian languages”

1. Phraseology as a brunch of general linguistic
2. The Criteria of phraseological units.
3. Types of classification of phraseological units.
4. Proverbs and sayings as part of phraseology.
5. Etymological peculiarities of phraseological units.
6. Etymological peculiarities of phraseological units.
7. Native phraseological units.
8. Borrowed phraseological units.
9. International Phraseological units.
10. Phraseological meaning.
11. Phraseological synonyms.
12. Phraseological antonyms.
13. Deformation in speech.
14. Additions.
15. Permutations.
16. Deletions.
17. Extended Metaphor.
18. Phraseological Puns in Discourse.
19. Cleft Use.
20. Phraseological Allusions
21. Phraseological Reiteration.
22. Phraseological Saturation in Discourse
23. Phraseological equivalents. Analogies. Descriptive translations.
24. Usage of Antonymous constructions.
25. Translation of lacuna phraseological units.
26. Absolute mono equivalents.
27. Relative equivalents.
28. Selected synonyms (analogy

IV. SYSTEMATIC GUIDENCE FOR STUDENTS

Методические указания студентам очной формы обучения представлены в виде:

- методических рекомендаций при работе над конспектом лекций вовремя проведения лекции;
- методических рекомендаций по самостоятельной работе надизучаемым материалом и при подготовке к семинарским занятиям;
- групповая консультация;
- методических рекомендаций по изучению рекомендованной литературы;
- методических рекомендаций по выполнению курсовых работ;
- методические рекомендации по подготовке рефератов;

Методические рекомендации при работе над конспектом лекций во время проведения лекции.

В ходе лекционных занятий вести конспектирование учебного материала. Обращать внимание на формулировки, раскрывающие содержание тех или иных явлений и процессов, научные выводы и практические рекомендации. Желательно оставить в рабочих конспектах поля, на которых делать пометки из рекомендованной литературы. Задавать преподавателю уточняющие вопросы с целью уяснения теоретических положений, разрешения спорных ситуаций.

В ходе подготовки к семинарам изучить основную литературу, ознакомиться с дополнительной литературой, новыми публикациями в периодических изданиях: журналах, газетах и т.д. При этом учесть рекомендации преподавателя и требования учебной программы. Дорабатывать свой конспект лекции, делая в нем соответствующие записи из литературы, предусмотренной учебной программой. Подготовить тезисы для выступлений по всем учебным вопросам, выносимым на семинар. Готовясь к докладу или реферативному сообщению, обращаться за методической помощью к преподавателю. Составить план-конспект своего выступления. Продумать примеры с целью обеспечения тесной связи изучаемой теории с реальной жизнью. Студент может дополнить список использованной литературы современными источниками, не представленными в списке рекомендованной литературы, и в дальнейшем использовать собственные подготовленные учебные материалы при написании курсовых и дипломных работ.

Методические рекомендации студентам по самостоятельной

работе над изучаемым материалом и при подготовке к семинарским занятиям

Важной составной частью учебного процесса в вузе являются семинарские и практические занятия.

Семинарские занятия проводятся главным образом по общественным наукам и другим дисциплинам, требующим научно-теоретического обобщения литературных источников, и помогают студентам глубже усвоить учебный материал, приобрести навыки творческой работы над документами и первоисточниками.

Планы семинарских занятий, их тематика, рекомендуемая литература, цель и задачи ее изучения сообщаются преподавателем на вводных занятиях или в методических указаниях по данной дисциплине.

Прежде чем приступить к изучению темы, необходимо прокомментировать основные вопросы плана семинара. Такой подход преподавателя помогает студентам быстро находить нужный материал к каждому из вопросов.

Начиная подготовку к семинарскому занятию, необходимо, прежде всего, указать студентам разделы учебников и учебных пособий, чтобы они получили общее представление о месте и значении темы в изучаемом курсе. Затем следует рекомендовать им поработать с дополнительной литературой, сделать записи по рекомендованным источникам.

Подготовка к семинарскому занятию включает 2 этапа:

1й – организационный;

2й - закрепление и углубление теоретических знаний.

На первом этапе студент планирует свою самостоятельную работу, которая включает:

- уяснение задания на самостоятельную работу;
- подбор рекомендованной литературы;
- составление плана работы, в котором определяются основные пункты предстоящей подготовки.

Составление плана дисциплинирует и повышает организованность в работе.

Второй этап включает непосредственную подготовку студента к занятию. Начинать надо с изучения рекомендованной литературы. Необходимо помнить, что на лекции обычно рассматривается не весь материал, а только его часть. Остальная его часть восполняется в процессе самостоятельной работы. В связи с этим работа с рекомендованной литературой обязательна. В процессе работы студент должен стремиться понять и запомнить основные положения

рассматриваемого материала, примеры, поясняющие его, а также разобраться в иллюстративном материале.

Заканчивать подготовку следует составлением плана (конспекта) по изучаемому материалу (вопросу). Это позволяет составить концентрированное, сжатое представление по изучаемым вопросам.

При необходимости следует обращаться за консультацией к преподавателю. Идя на консультацию, необходимо хорошо продумать вопросы, которые требуют разъяснения.

Большое значение имеет совершенствование навыков конспектирования у студентов.

Преподаватель может рекомендовать студентам следующие основные формы записи: план (простой и развернутый), выписки, тезисы. Результаты конспектирования могут быть представлены в различных формах.

План – это схема прочитанного материала, краткий (или подробный) перечень вопросов, отражающих структуру и последовательность материала.

Подробно составленный план вполне заменяет конспект.

Конспект – это систематизированное, логичное изложение материала источника. Различаются четыре типа конспектов:

План-конспект – это развернутый детализированный план, в котором достаточно подробные записи приводятся по тем пунктам плана, которые нуждаются в пояснении.

Текстуальный конспект – это воспроизведение наиболее важных положений и фактов источника.

Свободный конспект – это четко и кратко сформулированные (изложенные) основные положения в результате глубокого осмысливания материала. В нем могут присутствовать выписки, цитаты, тезисы; часть материала может быть представлена планом.

Тематический конспект – составляется на основе изучения ряда источников и дает более или менее исчерпывающий ответ по какой-то схеме (вопросу).

На семинаре каждый его участник должен быть готовым к выступлению по всем поставленным в плане вопросам, проявлять максимальную активность при их рассмотрении. Выступление должно строиться свободно, убедительно и аргументировано. Необходимо, чтобы выступающий проявлял собственное отношение к тому, о чем он говорит, высказывал свое личное мнение, понимание, обосновывал его и мог сделать правильные выводы из сказанного. При этом студент может обращаться к записям конспекта и лекций, непосредственно к первоисточникам, использовать знание художественной литературы и искусства, факты и наблюдения современной жизни и т. д.

В заключение преподаватель, как руководитель семинара, подводит итоги семинара. Он может (выборочно) проверить конспекты студентов и, если потребуется, внести в них исправления и дополнения.

Методические рекомендации студентам по изучению рекомендованной литературы

Эти методические рекомендации раскрывают рекомендуемый режим и характер различных видов учебной работы (в том числе самостоятельной работы над рекомендованной литературой) с учетом специфики выбранной студентом очной формы.

Изучение дисциплины следует начинать с проработки настоящей рабочей программы, особое внимание, уделяя целям и задачам, структуре и содержанию курса.

Студентам рекомендуется получить в Библиотечно-информационном центре института учебную литературу по дисциплине, необходимую для эффективной работы на всех видах аудиторных занятий, а также для самостоятельной работы по изучению дисциплины.

Методические рекомендации по выполнению курсовой работы

Теоретическая часть курсовой работы выполняется по установленным темам с использованием практических материалов по месту работы студента. К каждой теме курсовой работы рекомендуется примерный перечень узловых вопросов, список необходимой литературы.

Излагая вопросы темы, следует строго придерживаться плана. Работа не должна представлять пересказ отдельных глав учебника или учебного пособия. Необходимо изложить собственные соображения по существу излагаемых вопросов, внести свои предложения. Общие положения должны быть подкреплены и пояснены конкретными примерами. Излагаемый материал при необходимости следует проиллюстрировать таблицами, схемами, диаграммами и т.д.

Необходимо изучить литературу, рекомендуемую для выполнения курсовой работы. Чтобы полнее раскрыть тему, студенту следует выявить дополнительные источники и материалы. При написании курсовой работы необходимо ознакомиться с публикациями по теме, опубликованными в журналах.

Курсовая работа выполняется и оформляется в соответствии с "Методическими рекомендациями по выполнению и защите курсовых работ".

Выполненная курсовая работа представляется на рецензирование в срок, установленный графиком учебного процесса, с последующей ее устной защитой (собеседование).

Курсовая работа является самостоятельным творчеством студента, позволяющим судить о знаниях в области риторики.

Наряду с этим, написание курсовой работы преследует и иные цели, в частности, осуществление контроля за самостоятельной работой студента, выполнение программы высшей школы, вместе с экзаменом, является одним из способов проверки подготовленности будущего специалиста.

Студент, со своей стороны, при выполнении курсовой работы должен показать умение работать с различной литературой, давать анализ соответствующих источников, аргументировать сделанные в работы выводы и, главное – раскрыть выбранную тему.

По общему правилу написание курсовых работ начинается с выбора темы, по которой она будет написана. Желательно, чтобы тема была актуальной. С выбором темы неразрывно связаны подбор и изучение студентом литературы и самостоятельное составление плана работы.

Прежде всего, необходимо изучить вопросы темы по хрестоматийным источникам (учебники, учебные пособия и пр.), где материал излагается в наиболее доступной форме, а затем переходить к более глубокому усвоению вопросов выбранной темы, используя рекомендованную и иную литературу.

В процессе исследования литературных источников рекомендуется составлять конспект, делая выписки с учетом темы и методических указаний. После изучения литературы студент должен продумать план курсовой работы и содержание ответов на поставленные вопросы.

Вместе с общими вопросами настоящих методических указаний студент должен четко соблюдать ряд требований, предъявляемых к курсовым

работам, имеющим определенную специфику. Это, в частности, требования к структуре курсовых работ, ее источникам, оформлению, критериям ее оценки, ссылкам на нормативные акты, литературные источники, последовательность расположения нормативных актов и др. Структуру курсовых работ составляют:

- план работы;
- краткое введение, обосновывающее актуальность исследуемой
- проблемы;
- основной текст (главы, параграфы);
- заключение, краткие выводы по исследуемой проблеме;
- список использованной литературы, материалов практики и др.

При оформлении курсовой работы студент должен пользоваться установленным образцом. Ориентировочный объем курсовой работы может варьироваться, в зависимости от тематики, и составлять от 20 до 25 страниц машинописного текста. Не рекомендуется выполнять работы на школьных тетрадях.

Курсовая работа должна быть обязательно пронумерована и подписана

на последней странице после списка литературы и сдана в деканат либо научному руководителю. На оценку курсовой работы влияют, по общему правилу, следующие критерии:

- степень раскрытия темы;
- объем использованной научной литературы, нормативных актов, практики;
- стиль изложения и творческий подход к написанию работы; правильность и развернутая аргументация выводов;
- аккуратность оформления работы и др.

При несоблюдении вышеперечисленных требований, предъявляемых к курсовой работе, она не принимается или оценивается неудовлетворительно и возвращается для устранения недостатков, либо доработки с указанием в развернутой рецензии упущений и ошибок.

Студенту необходимо иметь в виду, что причинами неудовлетворительной оценки работы могут быть, например, следующие недочеты:

- работа выполнена только на базе учебника или учебного пособия и представляет собой их дословное изложение (конспект);
- работа выполнена путем механического списывания из учебника (учебных пособий), статей;
- работа написана неграмотно и неряшливо оформлена, независимо от содержания, не использованы рекомендованные законодательные и другие акты.

При оформлении работы списки использованной литературы делятся на две части: основную (источники, на которые имеется ссылка в курсовой работе) и дополнительную (все иные источники, изучаемые в связи с подготовкой к написанию курсовой работы). Вся литература должна располагаться в алфавитном порядке. С полным библиографическим описанием.

Методические рекомендации по подготовке рефератов для студентов очной формы обучения

Подготовка рефератов направлена на развитие и закрепление у студентов навыков самостоятельного глубокого, творческого и

всестороннего анализа научной, методической и другой литературы по актуальным проблемам дисциплины; на выработку навыков и умений грамотно и убедительно излагать материал, четко формулировать теоретические обобщения, выводы и практические рекомендации.

Рефераты должны отвечать высоким квалификационным требованиям в отношении научности содержания и оформления.

Темы рефератов, как правило, посвящены рассмотрению одной проблемы. Объем реферата может быть от 12 до 15 страниц машинописного текста, отпечатанного через 1,5 интервала, а на компьютере через 1 интервал (список литературы и приложения в объем не входят).

Текстовая часть работы состоит из введения, основной части и заключения.

Во введении студент кратко обосновывает актуальность избранной темы реферата, раскрывает конкретные цели и задачи, которые он собирается решить в ходе своего небольшого исследования.

В **основной части** подробно раскрывается содержание вопроса (вопросов) темы.

В **заключении** кратко должны быть сформулированы полученные результаты исследования и даны выводы. Кроме того, заключение может включать предложения автора, в том числе и по дальнейшему изучению заинтересовавшей его проблемы.

В список литературы (**источников и литературы**) студент **включает только те документы, которые он использовал при написании реферата.**

В **приложении** (приложения) к реферату могут выноситься таблицы, графики, схемы и другие вспомогательные материалы, на которые имеются ссылки в тексте реферата.

Реферат должен быть выполнен за один месяц до начала экзаменационной сессии. Студенты, не представившие в установленный срок реферат, либо получившие оценку «неудовлетворительно», к сдаче экзамена не допускаются.

V. SYSTEMATIC GUIDENCE FOR TEACHERS

На практических занятиях студенты овладевают первоначальными профессиональными умениями и навыками, которые в дальнейшем закрепляются и совершенствуются в процессе учебной и педагогической практики.

В процессе практических занятий обобщаются, систематизируются, углубляются и конкретизируются теоретические знания, вырабатывается способность и готовность использовать теоретические знания на практике, развиваются интеллектуальные умения.

Ведущей дидактической целью **семинара** является систематизация и обобщение знаний по изучаемой теме, разделу, формирование умений работать с дополнительными источниками информации, сопоставлять и сравнивать точки зрения, конспектировать прочитанное, высказывать свою точку зрения и т.п.

В соответствии с ведущей дидактической целью, содержанием семинара может быть представление и обсуждение, подготовленных студентами, рефератов, докладов, различные виды учебных дискуссий.

Студенты в процессе семинаров развивают критичность мышления, способность самостоятельно реагировать на нестандартные ситуации, возникающие в процессе взаимодействия.

Для повышения результативности проведения практических занятий, семинаров необходимо:

- использование в практике преподавания активных и интерактивных форм проведения занятий;
- применение коллективных и групповых форм работы, максимальное использование индивидуальных форм с целью повышения ответственности каждого студента за самостоятельное выполнение полного объема работ;
- разработка заданий и упражнений, сопровождающихся методическими указаниями;
- разработка заданий для тестового контроля (в том числе компьютерного) подготовленности обучающихся к занятиям – контроля исходного уровня знаний и конечного контроля качества освоения темы (раздела, модуля).

В структуре практического занятия традиционно выделяют следующие этапы (с указанием их примерного соотношения в % от общего времени занятия):

1. Организационный этап (до 5 % общего времени занятия).

а) Проверка присутствующих, готовности обучающихся к занятию и т.п.

б) Сообщение темы занятия, ее актуальности, целей, плана занятия в соответствии с программой дисциплины и календарно-тематическим планом.

2. *Контроль исходного уровня знаний* (до 10 % общего времени занятия).

а) обсуждение вопросов, возникших у студентов при подготовке к занятию.

б) исходный контроль (задания в тестовой форме, опрос, проверка письменных домашних заданий и т.д.).

в) коррекция исходных знаний обучающихся.

3. *Обучающий этап* (до 20 % общего времени занятия).

Педагогический рассказ, показ, предъявление алгоритма решения задач, инструкций по выполнению заданий, методик и др.

Целесообразно включить в этот раздел основные элементы фактического материала по теме занятия (важнейшие определения, классификации и др.).

4. *Самостоятельная аудиторная работа обучающихся* (до 40% общего времени занятия).

Именно на этом этапе педагог должен добиться достижения цели занятия. Самостоятельная аудиторная работа обучающихся может быть представлена в виде экспериментальной работы, решения ситуационных задач, обсуждения проблемных вопросов, работы с компьютером и т.п.

Результатом самостоятельной работы обучающихся на занятии могут быть как письменные (самостоятельные работы и др.), так и устные ответы.

5. *Контроль конечного уровня усвоения знаний* (до 20 % общеговремени занятия).

Контроль знаний обучающихся, полученных на практическом занятии, семинаре, является наиболее ответственной частью, так как определяет степень достижения цели.

Не следует сокращать этот раздел, нужно стремиться провести краткое индивидуальное собеседование со всеми обучающимися или проверить письменные работы, протоколы, выводы, заключения или другие материалы, позволяющие оценить качество усвоения материала, освоения компетенций.

В ходе этого этапа преподаватель должен при необходимости скорректировать ответы обучающихся, указать на типичные ошибки и способы их устранения.

6. *Заключительный этап* (до 5 % общего времени занятия).

В заключительной части занятия преподаватель резюмирует содержание занятия, используя упрощённые формулы

запоминания, отвечает на вопросы, дает оценку работы группы, отмечает успешных и недостаточно подготовленных студентов, назначает отработки, сообщает тему следующего занятия, задает домашнее задание.

Структура занятия универсальна, но с учетом специфики формы занятия может быть модифицирована.

В структуре семинара выделяют следующие этапы

1. Организационный этап:

а) проверка присутствующих, готовности обучающихся к занятию и т.п.

б) сообщение темы занятия, ее актуальности, целей, плана занятия.

2. Контроль исходного уровня знаний.

3. Теоретический разбор материала по вопросам семинара.

4. Заключительный этап - подведение итогов семинара.

Оценочные средства для контроля уровня подготовки

Итоговая оценка по курсу «Корпоративное управление» складывается из двух составляющих: текущей (50 % от итоговой оценки) и зачетной (50 % от итоговой оценки) оценки магистранта. При этом текущая оценка включает в себя работу магистранта на семинарских и самостоятельных занятиях и выполнение контрольных работ. В таблице 1 приведена общая логика подсчета баллов магистранта, определяющих его текущую оценку.

Максимальное количество баллов 50 можно набрать на семинарских занятиях. Остальные 50 баллов необходимо набрать на зачете. Зачетный билет состоит из двух вопросов и оценка складывается следующим образом.

На каждый вопрос можно набрать по 25 баллов. При этом существует следующая градация:

25 баллов – излагает суть конспекта и дополняет своим материалом.

22 балла – четко излагает суть конспекта

18 баллов – ориентируется в конспекте, но недостаточно.

14 баллов - слабо ориентируется в конспекте.

Таким образом, при определении итоговой оценки мы получаем следующую картину:

Если за семинар и за экзамен в сумме получается от 86 до 100 баллов, значит это соответствует оценке отлично «5».

Если за семинар и за экзамен в сумме получается от 71 до 85 баллов, значит это соответствует оценке отлично «4».

Если за семинар и за экзамен в сумме получается от 55 до 70 баллов, значит это соответствует оценке отлично «3».

Приложение

Основные виды учебных занятий

(в соответствии с федеральными государственными образовательными стандартами)

Семинар – форма учебного процесса, представляющая собой групповое обсуждение студентами темы, учебной проблемы под руководством преподавателя.

Основные функции семинара:

- развивающая (развитие критического, творческого мышления, умения убеждать, обосновывать, отстаивать свою точку зрения);

- организационно-ориентационная (проявляется в форме рекомендации по подготовке студентов к семинару, направляемой преподавателем непосредственно или через методические пособия);

- мотивационная (обсуждение проблем дает возможность участникам глубже познакомиться с проблематикой изучаемой науки, разнообразием точек зрения, обнаружить пробелы в своих знаниях, что стимулирует познавательные потребности);

- обобщающая (обобщения и систематизации знаний играет основную роль, поскольку главное в семинарском занятии не столько передача новой информации, сколько расширение, закрепление и углубление знаний, умений, навыков, способов их получения и применения);

- оценочная (формирование оценочных суждений и т.д.);

- воспитательная (происходит ценностное взаимообогащение);

- контролирующая (позволяет отслеживать прочность, содержательность, глубину и систематичность самостоятельной работы студентов).

Семинар в сравнении с другими видами занятий требует от студентов довольно высокого уровня самостоятельности – умения работать с несколькими источниками, сравнивать, делать собственные обобщения и выводы.

Выделяют **три типа семинаров**:

1. Семинары, имеющие основной целью углубленное изучение определенного тематического курса.

2. Семинары для основательной проработки определенных тем курса.

3. Семинары исследовательского типа по отдельным проблемам науки.

Семинар связан со всеми видами учебной работы, поэтому его эффективность во многом зависит от качества лекций и самостоятельной работы студента.

Семинары различаются как по учебным задачам, источникам получения знаний, так и по методическим приемам их проведения:

- семинар повторительно-обобщающего типа проводится, как правило, в конце изучения темы (раздела, модуля) с акцентом либо на повторение, либо на обобщение;

- семинар – сочетание обобщения с изучением нового материала;

- семинар, построенный полностью на изучении нового материала.

Формы семинаров:

▪ Семинар в форме живой беседы с аудиторией.

▪ Семинар в форме обсуждения рефератов, докладов.

Практическое занятие — метод репродуктивного обучения, обеспечивающий связь теории и практики, содействующий выработке у студентов умений и навыков применения знаний, полученных на лекциях, семинарах и в ходе самостоятельной работы. Содержание занятия и методика его проведения должны обеспечивать развитие творческой активности личности.

Цели практических занятий:

▪ помочь обучающимся систематизировать, закрепить и углубить знания теоретического характера;

▪ научить студентов приемам выполнения практических заданий;

▪ научить работать с книгой, служебной документацией и схемами, пользоваться справочной и научной литературой;

▪ формировать умение учиться самостоятельно, т.е. овладевать методами, способами и приемами самообучения, саморазвития и самоконтроля.

Практическое занятие может проводиться по разным схемам.

В одном случае все обучающиеся выполняют задания самостоятельно, а преподаватель контролирует их работу (поисковый метод).

В тех случаях, когда у большинства студентов работа вызывает затруднения, преподаватель может дать необходимые пояснения (частично-поисковый метод).

VI. LECTURES

Lecture 1. Phraseology as a branch of general linguistics.

Phraseology, its definition. The Criteria of phraseological units. Types of classification of phraseological units. Proverbs and sayings as part of phraseology.

1. Phraseology is a representative part in the vocabulary of any language, which appears at the early stages of the development of the language. From the 18 century phraseological units were explained in different dictionaries and linguistic works. Phraseology deals with stable word-combinations characterized by a certain transference of meaning at least in one of the components: *white lie, cold weapon, святаяложь, холодноеоружие*, or in more than one: *to beat about the bush, to take the bull by the horns, выйтиизсебя, учертанакуличиках*.

The term "Phraseology" was introduced by Charles Bally a Swiss scholar "over 80 years ago. He treated phraseology as a branch of stylistic. The first to raise the question of phraseology was professor Polivanov, a prominent Soviet scholar. Academician V.V. Vinogradov was the first to work out a classification of phraseological units, which gave rise to extensive investigation of phraseology in other languages.

A profound study of English phraseology has been undertaken by prof. N.N. Amosova and prof. A.V. Koonin. It is necessary to stress that the chief contribution to the development of phraseology as a science has been made by our native linguists: Gvosdarev, Sharinskiy, Smirnitkiy, Mokienco and others.

A great contribution to the development of comparative phraseology was made by representatives of Kazan school: Soloduh, Arsentjeva, Dolgoplov, Gatiatullina.

2. Despite differences of opinion, most authors agree upon some points dealing with the distinctive features of phraseological units, such as:

1. Integrity of meaning (or transference of meaning offered by prof. Koonin)
2. Stability (lexical and grammatical)
3. Separability .
4. Expressivity and emotiveness.

To see the difference between a variable word-combination and a phraseological unit let us compare a PU and a variable word-combination with identical lexical components, such as "*to take the bull by the horns*" and its equivalent in the Russian Language "*взятьбыказарога*".

1). In both languages they have the same phraseological meaning: deal with a difficult or dangerous situation in a direct or brave way: *I decided to take the bull by keeping it by the horns:*

Ветеринаросторожновялбыказарогаиосмотрелранунаголове. In the PU “*take the bull by the horns*” neither of its components is separately associated with any reference of objective reality, and the meaning of the whole PU cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components. This is because the PU is characterized by the integrity of meaning. Integrity of meaning is typical of idioms, which we understand as wholly transferred units.

2). In the variable word-combination the word “bull”, may, if necessary, be substituted by any other noun, denoting animal and the whole will mean “to hold any animal by the horns”. No such substitution is possible in the PU “*to take the bull by the horn*” because the replacement of the noun will destroy the PU. No changes are possible in the PU “*взятьбыказарога*” (ср. *корову, овцу, козуйтд*).

These changes are impossible due to lexical stability of the PU. Lexical stability is usually accompanied by grammatical stability. In our case, for example, in the variable word-combination the noun horns – *pora* can be used in the singular and the whole will mean “*to take the animal*”. These of the components “*horns*” in the singular will turn the PU into a variable word-combination.

3). PUs are characterized by separability. It means that the structure of the PU is not something undivisible, certain modifications are possible within certain boundaries. We can say “*as hungry as a wolf*” or “*as hungry as a hunter*.” – These are lexical variants. In Russian we can say “*голодный как волк*”, “*голодный как собака*”. These are also lexical variants. We can say “*as safe as a house*” and “*as safe as houses*” – these are grammatical variants.

4). It should be noted, that PUs fulfill three functions:

a) nominative – they name things and phenomena;

b) communicative – they carry a certain communication;

c) expressive and emotive. It means that PUs are also characterized by stylistic colouring. In other words, they evoke emotions and add expressiveness. For example, the PU “*to kick the bucket*” as well as Russian “*сыгратьвящик*” meaning “*to die*” is humorous, disrespectful; “*at the eleventh hour*” meaning “*at the last moment*” is more expressive than the PU “*at the last moment*” which is neutral.

3. PUs may be classified in different principles: etymologically, semantically, functionally, and structurally.

A. The most well-known classification is that of ac. V.V. Vinogradov who singles out:

a) phraseological fusions;

b) phraseological unities;

c) phraseological combinations.

This subdivision of PU is based on the degree of their motivation (semantic integrity).

Phraseological fusions are completely demotivated word-combinations. The meaning of the whole PU cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components. Fusions were thought to be equivalents to words, e.g. “*pull smb’s leg*”, “*give the cold shoulder to smb.*” Or in Russian: “*водитъзанос*”, “*датьпошапке*”.

Integrity of meaning is often combined with lexical and grammatical stability.

Phraseological unities are partly motivated; their meaning is more or less easily deduced from the meaning of their components, e.g. “*as busy as a bee*”, “*show the hills to smb.*”, or in the Russian language: “*вертетьсякакбелкавокесе*”, “*заткнутьзапояс*”.

Phraseological combinations are traditional word-combinations in which one of the components is phraseologically bound, whilst (пока) the other is used in its literal (direct) meaning: “*pay attention*”, “*drop a hint*” (a word), “*морскойволк*”, “*девушкасизюминкой*”, “*насунутьброви*”.

It is possible to say “*bear a grudge*”, but impossible – “*bear kindness, love etc*”. Thus, within certain limits phraseological combinations may be coined (вымышлены, созданы) according to structural-semantic patterns.

B. A detailed functional, structural and semantic classification is offered by professor A.V. Koonin. The main classes are based on the function the unit fulfills in speech. According to it, Pus may be as follows:

1) Nominative (PU which denote things, actions, phenomena and so on) “*a bull in a china shop*”, “*cakes and ale*”, “*Cross the T’s and dot the I’s*”, “*as the crow flies*”, “*when the pigs fly*”, “*darken smb’s door*”, “*give a green light to smb*”, “*fit smb like a glove*”, “*cut smb a shilling*”. In Russian: “*козел отпущения*”, “*розовая мечта*”, “*витать в облаках*”, “*на седьмом небе*”.

2) Nominative-communicative (PU that may be transferred into sentences): «*to break the ice*» - «*the ice is broken*», «*to put the cart before the horse*» - «*the cart is put before the horse*», “*to cross the Rubicon*» - «*the Rubicon is crossed*», “*to give smb the cold shoulder*” – “*smb is given the cold shoulder*”. In the Russian language: “*водит за нос*” – “*кого-то водят за нос*”, “*обвести вокруг пальца*” – “*кого-то обвели вокруг пальца*”.

3) Interjectional (PU standing for certain interjections): “*by love!*”, “*hear, hear! Jesus Christ!*” “*Damn you eyes*”. In the Russian language: «*Ну за что на свете!*», «*Ну за какие деньги!*», «*Как бы не так!*» и др.

4) Communicative (PU with the structure of a sentence). Here belong sayings: “*the fat is in the fire*”, “*That’s another pair of shoes*”, “*The shoe is on the other foot*”. In the Russian language: “*дело в шляпе*”, “*иметь*”.

забот полон рот”, “буря в стакане воды” и др.

Proverbs (which have some moral meaning): «birds of feather flock together», «blood is thicker than water», “half a loaf is better, than no bread”.

In the Russian language: “не тот глухой, кто глух, а тот, кто не желает слышать”, “поспешишь - людей насмешишь”, “нет худа без добра”, “из двух зол выбирай меньшее”.

C. Prof. N Amosova represents another approach. She thinks that only a limited number of set expressions, that is phrasemes and idioms belong to phraseology.

Phrasemes always consist of two components: one serves as the determining context, the other has a “Phraseologically bound meaning”, i.e. it does not retain its lexical meaning, e. g. “small talk” “talk” is determining context, “small” has a phraseologically bound meaning. So it is impossible to say “big talk”. In other words, determining context calls only for a certain word whose meaning is phraseologically bound, e. g: “husband’s tea” (not “wife’s tea”). In the Russian language: “морской волк” (не медведь, лиса и т. д.), “бежать сломя голову” (а не шею, руки, ноги).

N.N. Amosova insists on fixed contexts being unique. This is somewhat a risky ground, for a PU may acquire a variant or lose an old one. In a word, she ignores variants. Another weak point is that N.N. Amosova excludes from phraseology its very important part that is proverbs and sayings.

D. There also exists a part-of-speech classification of PU (a functional classification offered by prof. I.V. Arnold). This classification is based on the grammatical unity of PU and their functioning in the language as word equivalents. Thus PUs may be subdivided into:

1. **Noun equivalents:** “odds and ends” (N+N), «green room» (A+N), «a bull in a china shop» (N+prep.+N+N), “Ships that pass in the night” (N+ sub. Clause). Ср.: “Содом и Гоморра”, “белая ворона”, “белка в колесе”, “волк в овечьей шкуре”.

2. **Verb equivalents:** «show a clean pair of heels», “to beat about the bush,” “take the bull by the horns”, «be at one’s wit’s end». In the Russian language: “ломать голову”, “биться головой о стену”, “заблудиться в трех соснах”, “ставить палки в колеса” и др.

3. **Adverb equivalents:** “in the long run”, “спустя рукава”, “в чем мать родила” и др.

4. **Adjective equivalents:** “ill at ease”, “safe and sound”. In the Russian language: “крепок задним умом”, “мал золотник, да дорог”, “без сучка, без задоринки” и др.

5. **Interjectional PU:** “Well I never!”, “All my eye!”. In the Russian language: “Боже мой, ни за что на свете!”

E. We should also mention of the etymological classification of PU made by L. Smith. He distinguished the following groups of PU which are etymologically connected with:

1. **Agriculture:** “*to put hands to the plough*”, “*as you sow, you will mow*”, “*make hay while the sun shines*”. In the Russian language: «не в свои сани не садись», «поворачивай оглобли», “прибрать вожжи к рукам” и др.

2. **Marine life:** “*swim against the current*”, “*to be at sea*”, “*to take the wind out of one’s sails*”. In Russian: “плыть против течения”, “плыть по течению”, “ловить рыбу в мутной воде”, “поднять паруса” и др.

3. **Military life:** “*armed at all points*”, “*lay down one’s arms*”, “*gain ground*”, and in the Russian language: «бить в цель», «сложить оружие», «один в поле воин», «сдать позиции».

4. **Sports:** “*hit below the belt*”, “*hit the mark*”, and in the Russian language: “ударнижепояса”, “выйти из игры”, “наострить лыжи”, “отбросить коньки”.

5. **Hunting:** “*to run after two hares*”, “*to be on the track of*”, “*to kill two birds with one stone*”, and in Russian: “делитышку руну битою медведя”, “задумая зайца милогонисься, ни одногоне поймаешь”, and “холостой выстрел”.

In the process of historical development some PUs lose their etymological ties and acquire new meanings. Each classification has its strong and weak points.

4. Linguists opinions on whether sayings and proverbs belong to phraseology or not, differ. Some linguists (Amosova, Tagiev) think that unless linguistic units form parts of sentences, it is wrong to include them into the phraseological system because they are independent units of communication.

Many other scholars, however, (Vinogradov, Koonin, Galperin, Cherkasskaya, Arnold, Chernyshova, and Shansky) think, that sayings and proverbs do belong to phraseology.

In fact, **PUs and Proverbs and Sayings** have very much in common:

- 1) Their structure and lexical components are usually fixed;
- 2) They occur in speech as ready - made units;
- 3) Their meanings are figurative.

5. Proverbs are often **sources of new PUs:** “*a rolling stone gathers no moss*” - “*a rolling stone*”, “*a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*” - “*a bird in the hand*” and “*a bird in the bush*” and in Russian : “выбить почву из под ног” – “выбить почву”, “биться как рыба облед” – “как рыба облед”, “задумая зайца милогонисься, ни одногоне поймаешь”

– “*знаться адвумязайцями*”.

Thus, all these considerations prove that proverbs and sayings are part of phraseology.

GLOSSARY:

Denotation - The relationship between a word and the non-linguistic, 'outside' world. For instance one could say that the denotation of *cup* is a small vessel-like object for holding beverages.

Description - (отлат. descriptio - описание) – A language construction used to replace a proper or common name of the subject.

Fusion - Phraseological fusions are completely demotivated word-combinations. The meaning of the whole PU cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components. Fusions were thought to be equivalents to words,

Genetic classification - The arrangement of languages into groups on the basis of their historically recognisable relationships and not going on any similarity in structure.

Idioms – An idiom is a phrase or a fixed expression that has a figurative, or sometimes literal, meaning. An idiom's figurative meaning is different from the literal meaning. There are thousands of idioms, and they occur frequently in all languages.

Integrity of meaning – The whole PU cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components. This is because the PU is characterized by the integrity of meaning. Integrity of meaning is typical of idioms, which we understand as wholly transferred units.

Idioms – An **idiom** is a phrase or a fixed expression that has a figurative, or sometimes literal, meaning. An **idiom's** figurative meaning is different from the literal meaning. There are thousands of idioms, and they occur frequently in all languages.

Phraseological - Pertaining to phraseology; consisting of a peculiar form of words. This verbal or phraseological answer.

Phraseology - A representative part in the vocabulary of any language, which appears at the early stages of the development of the language. From the 18 century phraseological units were explained in different dictionaries and linguistic works. The term “Phraseology” was introduced by Charles Bally a Swiss scholar “over 80 years ago. He treated phraseology as a branch of stylistic.

Phraseological units - Non-motivated (partially or completely) phrases that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units; the other important features of phraseological units are stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure.

Phraseological unities - Partially non-motivated word-groups as their meaning can usually be understood (derived) through the **metaphoric**

meaning of the whole phraseological unit. They have comparatively high degree of lexical components and grammatical structure. There must be less than 2 notional words in metaphorical meanings.

Phraseological unities - can have homonymous free phrases, used in direct meanings. Eg.: *to skate on thin ice* —» *to risk to play the first fiddle* - * *to play the first role as hungry as a wolf (a hunter)* - * *very hungry green light* —> *you may do what you can*.

Proverb - Sayings and proverbs do belong to phraseology. In fact, PUs and Proverbs and Sayings have very much in common: their structure and lexical components are usually fixed; they occur in speech as ready - made units; their meanings are figurative.

Stylistics - Stylistics is a branch of general linguistics. Stylistics – is regarded as a language science which deals with the results of the act of communication.

Stability - No substitution is possible in the PU, because the replacement of the noun will destroy the PU. These changes are impossible due to lexical stability of the PU. Lexical stability is usually accompanied by grammatical stability.

Lecture 2.

Etymological peculiarities of phraseological units. English Phraseological units. Russian Phraseological units. Native phraseological units. Borrowed phraseological units

1. The English word – stock is characterized by great heterogeneity. The same is true when we speak about phraseological units. According to their origin, all phraseological units in English can be subdivided into two large groups: native and borrowed. The first group is much more numerous than the second one, but the authors of such units are, as a rule, unknown, e.g.: *"bite off more than one can chew"*, *"pay through the nose"*.

2. Native English phraseological units are connected with the traditions, customs, trade and superstitions of the English people as well as with some realities and historical facts:

A. Phraseological units, reflecting some English traditions and customs,

Eg: *"by/ with bell, book and candle"* (humorous) one of the forms of excommunications (отлучение от церкви) from church ends with words: *"Do to the book, quench the candle, ring the bell"*), *"good wine needs no bush"*, (according to the old custom tavern-keepers used to hang ivy bushes in order to show that they sell wine).

B. Phraseological units, connected with some English realities, e.g.:

"carry coals to Newcastle" (Newcastle is the center of the English coal industry), *"put smb in the cart"* (a vehicle in which criminals were taken to the place of execution was called a cart).

C. Phraseological units connected with some superstitions of the English people, e.g. *“a black sheep”* (according to the old English superstition, a black sheep is marked with the devil’s seal).

D. Phraseological units reflecting some English historical facts e.g.: *“as well as hanged (hung) for a sheep as a lamb”* (an echo of the old English law according to which a sheep’s thief had to be punished by hanging).

These are units of non-terminological character.

Shakespeare’s works played a very important role in the enrichment of the English language with phraseological units. Their number exceeds 100, but most of them are used in Shakespeare’s plays only once and only in the fixed form:

“eat sb out of house and home” (King Henry! Y),

“a fool’s paradise” (Romeo and Juliet),

“give the devil his due” (“King Henry Y),

“the green - eyed monster” (“Othello”),

“paint the lily” (“King John”).

They may undergo some changes. For example, *“wear one’s heart upon one’s sleeve for daws to peck at”* (“Othello”) is usually used in modern English in its shortened form *“wear one’s heart upon one’s sleeve”*.

The unit *“gild the lily”* has appeared as a result of two phraseological unit contaminations *“gild refined gold”* and *“paint the lily”*.

The English idiom *“lay it on with a trowel”* was used by Shakespeare in the Passive Voice: Colia: Well said: that was laid on with a trowel. (“As you like it”). Now it is also used in the Active Voice.

Some units have acquired the second meaning in Modern English: *“a Daniel came to judgment”* was by Shakespeare in the sense of “an honest judge, a judge who is not corrupted”, the second meaning of it, used nowadays, is *“a wise man”*.

A lot of phraseological units were taken from works of other English writers and poets:

John Milton – *“fall on evil days”*,

Jonathan Swift – *“all in the day’s work”*,

Charles Dickens – *“how goes the enemy”* and *“never say die”*,

Walter Scott – *“beard the lion in his den”*,

Richard Kipling - *“the tail wags the dog”*,

George Gordon Byron *“as fiery as a marriage bell”*

John Berry *“little Mary”* (the title of the play)

E. Phraseological units, connected with some trade or occupation represent the most numerous group. They appeared in the speech of farmers: *put the plough before the oxen, to make one’s bread, to put one’s shoulder to the will*; sailors: *to be at sea, to take the wind out of one’s sails*; hunters: *to run after two hares, to shoot the aim*; fishermen: *red as lobster, to fish in*

troubled waters; craftsmen: *to be a poor tool at smth, strike while iron is hot* and were at first used as free word-combinations. They became fixed word-combinations due to the following reasons:

- 1) frequent repetition in speech,
- 2) change of meaning at least in one of the components,
- 3) integrity of meaning, ability to express one notion, not equivalent to its components.

3. The Bible is considered to be the main literary source of a great number of English phraseological units. It's out of the question that the Bible has been the most sacred and cited book for many centuries. That's why not only separate words but also a lot of idiomatic expressions from it have become part and parcel of the English language. They are treated now as completely assimilated borrowings. The most common of them are: "*cast pearls before swine*", "*in the twinkling of an eye*", "*the root of the evil*", "*a wolf in a sheep's clothing*" and others.

But there are cases, when the prototype from the Bible is used literary while the corresponding phraseological unit has a figurative meaning, e.g.: "*to kill the fatted calf*", (a) заколоть откормленного теленка, встречая блудного сына; b) приготовить с радостью и долгожданной встречей) its meaning in the parable about the prodigal son was "*to slaughter a fat calf*".

Now this unit has the sense "*to treat to the best food and drinks one has in his house*".

Some changes may occur in the form of the unit e.g. the idiom: "*a drop in the bucket*" is the converted form of the bible expression: "*Behold the nations as a drop of the bucket*".

A large number of English phraseological units are connected with classical literature, history and mythology; many of them may be called international units, e.g.:

From ancient mythology; "*a labour of Cysiphos*", "*the thread of Ariadna*" (bookish);

From ancient Greek and Roman literature: "*like a Trojan*", "*Winged words*";

From Greek history and legends: "*the Gordian knot*" (as a rule, it is used from "*to cut the (Gordian) knot*";

From Plato's works: "*hand on the torch*" (bookish), "*Platonic love*".

From Aesop's fables: "*blow hot and cold*", "*an ass in a lion's skin*", "*cry wolf too often*".

There are some units, borrowed **from Latin**: "*like cures like*" (similia similibus curantur), "*one fool makes many*" ("uniun dementia dementes efficit multos").

French: "*castles in Spain*" (chateaux en Espagne), "*blow the candle at*

both ends”, “*the game is not worth the candle*” (bruler la chandelle par les deux bouts). As a rule, borrowings from French are full translation- loans: “cry havoc” (crier havot).

German: “*blood and iron*” (blut und Eisen), “*speech is silver, silence is gold*” (sprechen ist silber, schweigen ist gold)

Spanish: “*blue blood*” (sangre azul), the fifth column,

Dutch: “*an ugly duckling*”,

Italian: “*every dog is a lion at home*”,

Sometimes it is difficult to determine the source of borrowing of some units, e.g. of the proverb: “*a close mouth catches no flies*”. It’s difficult to say whether it is borrowed from Italian” in “*boccaserratamai non entromosca*”, or from Spanish “*en bocacerrada no entan moscas*.”

A lot of borrowings came from the USA. They are considered to be intralanguage borrowings. Some of them are completely assimilated: “*bark up the wrong tree*”, “*sell like hot cakes*”.

American authors have also contributed to the enrichment of the English language.

Longfellow: “*ships that pass in the night*”,

Cooper: “*bury the hatchet*”,

London: “*the call of the wild*”.

The majority of such units were borrowed through written speech.

Etymological peculiarities of Russian phraseological units.

1. Native phraseological units

2. Borrowed phraseological units.

Phraseological units of the Russian language etymologically may be subdivided into two groups;

1. Native PU

2. Borrowed PU

1. The majority of Phraseological units in present-day Russian are of native origin; “*ищиветра в поле*”, “*водой не разольешь*”, “*какогня бояться*”, “*расквасить нос*” и др.

Native phraseological units in the Russian language from the etymological point of view may be of three types:

a) **PU of common Slavonic origin**, which occur in a number of Slavonic languages, eg.: “*водитъ за нос*” (укр. “Водиш за ніс”, болг. “Водя за нос”, польск. “wodziczanos”).

b) **PU of East - Slavonic origin** which appeared in the Russian language in 6-15 centuries, during old Russian period They occur in a number of east - Slavonic languages; Ukrainian, Byelorussian: “*подгорячу руку*”, “*поправдесказать*”, “*за шумелов голове*” и др.

c) **Proper Russian Phraseological units**, which appeared after the 15 century, when Ukrainian and Byelorussian languages were separated from

each other. These PU represent the most numerous group, they appeared in language as free word-combinations. Due to constant usage and change in meaning (metaphorical transfer), they became phraseological units; “краснаядевица”, “пропастьдаром” (словодаромздесьозначаетбесполезно), “вовсюивановскую”, “вчаспочайнойложке”, “набезрыбьеирак –рыба”. These phraseological units have undergone a long historical development before they became set expressions.

d) Another type of phraseological units were **built according to the models of free word - combinations and functioned in the language like neologisms**. They appeared at once as fixed word-combinations with transferred meaning: “березоваякаша”(поаналогиигречневая, овсяная), “кормитьзавтраками”, “сапогивсмятку”, без “безножазарезать”, “городитьчушь” идр. We can see, that sometime they are deprived of any logical meaning: “носитьводурешетом”, “толочьводувстуге”, “переливатьизпустоговпорожнее”. We must mention, that this type of PU is typical of the English language as well: “to plough the sand”, “to beat the air”.

2. Among borrowed PU there is a great number of old - Slavonic borrowings from Bible and other church and religious sources: “всейдушой”, “сольземли”, “исчадиеада” (исчадие - детище), “радибога”, “какзеницуока”, “доскончаниявека”, “гласвопиющеговпустыне”. Some of the components of these word-combinations are not used separately in Modern Russian language: “исчадие, зеницаоко, скончание, глас” идр.

3. There are borrowed PU from different European languages:

a) from French: “броситьтень” (*jeter les ombres*), “носитьотпечаток” (*porter empreint*), “ломитьсявоткрытуюдверь” (*enfoncer une porte ouverte*), “убитьвремя” (*tuer le temps*), “лучшепоздно, чемникогда” (*meux vaut tart que jamais*).

b) from Latin: “состояниевойны” (*status belli*), “порочныйкруг” (*drculus vitiosus*).

c) from English: “синийчулок” (*blue stocking*), “железныйзанавес” (*iron curtain*), “жизненныйуровень” (*standard of life*), “холоднаявойна” (*cold war*).

d) from German: “вотгдесобаказарыта” (*Da ist der Hund begraben*), “крылатые слова” (*geflugte Worte*).

e) from different authors:

Крылов: “а ларчик просто открывался”, “слона-то я и не приметил”, “наделала синица шуму”, “медвежья услуга”.

Гоголь: “ большому кораблю - большое плавание”, “мертвые души”, “ есть еще порох в пороховницах”.

Грибоедов: *“с чувством, с толком, с расстановкой”, “свежо придание, да вериться с трудом”, “служить бы рад, прислуживаться тошно*

Пушкин: *“жалок тот, в ком совесть нечиста”, “не мудрствуя лукаво”, “окно в Европу”, “а счастье было так возможно”, “глаголом жги сердца людей”.*

Некрасов: *“рыцарь на час”, “кому на Руси жить хорошо”.*

Чехов: *“человек в футляре”, “двадцать два несчастья”, “как бы чего не вышло”.*

Карамзин: *“ничто не вечно под луной”.*

Гончаров: *“жалкие слова”, “обыкновенная история”.*

Кольцов: *“на заре туманной юности”* и др.

GLOSSARY:

Bible - The Bible is a collection of texts sacred in Judaism and Christianity. It is a collection of scriptures written at different times by different authors in different locations. Jews and Christians consider the books of the Bible to be a product of divine inspiration.

Borrowing - The act of adopting some aspect of one language into another. It may be lexical (the most obvious and common type of borrowing) but also syntactic, morphological or phonological. The latter types of borrowing require that some section of the population be in direct contact with the second language. Lexical borrowing can be due to written influence as with the English loanwords in Modern German yielding so-called 'cultural borrowings'. Borrowing is one of the chief means of expanding the vocabulary of a language.

Collocations - Typical word combinations that regularly occur in English speech and writing are called collocations. In other words, collocations are those word combinations and short phrases which your English teacher asked you to memorize as examples of use when you studied new words. The verb "to collocate" has the following meanings: to place together, to arrange in proper order.

Etymology - An area within historical linguistics which is concerned with the origin and development of the form and meaning of words and the relationship of both these aspects to each other.

Mythology – 1.A body of myths, as that of a particular people or that relating to a particular person; 2.a set of stories, traditions, or beliefs associated with a particular group or the history of an event, arising naturally or deliberately fostered.

Word-stock - Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language is far from being homogenous. It consists of two layers - the native stock of words and the borrowed stock of words. Numerically the borrowed stock of words is considerably larger than the native stock of words.

Lecture 3.

Phraseological meaning. Phraseological synonyms.

Phraseological antonyms.

1. The term “**phraseological meaning**” was suggested by two native linguists Arkhangelsky and Koonin in 1964 irrespective of each other. Like lexical meaning, phraseological meaning may also be considered as the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system. It may have several components:

A. The denotational or signification-denotational component which is the content and the volume of the notion realized in the meaning and, consequently, in the vocabulary definition of the unit: eg.: “*hit below the belt*” - “*strike unfairy*”, “*сольземли*” - наиболее творческая часть населения.

B. The connotational component is much more important in phraseological meaning, than in lexical meaning. Connotation is semantic value, it reveals the emotive-evaluative end stylistically marked attitude of the speaker towards reality. Most linguists distinguish four subcomponents of connotation: emotive, evaluative, expressive and stylistic (or stylistic reference). Phraseological unit may have all the above mentioned subcomponents or only some of them in different combinations. Some examples:

Emotive: “*God bless me*” (my soul) - an expression of surprise:

“*God bless his soul*” (heart) - an expression of fondness, gratefulness, kind feelings, etc. **Positive emotion (charge):** “*a sight for sore eyes*” **Negative emotive (charge):** “*damn your eyes*” **Expressive:** “*as pale as paper*” - “*as pale as death*” - very pale, “*work like a horse*”, “*work one’s fingers to the bone*” - work very hard.

Compare in Russian: “*работать в поте лица*”, “*работать как лошадь*”, “*гнуть спину*”

Evaluative: positive “*a clever dog*” - a very clever guy, negative: “*as bold as brass*” - impudent;

In Russian : “*тупой как пробка*”, “*олух царя небесного*” и др. Stylistically phraseological units may be subdivided into literary and non-literary (**labels in dictionaries - Coll., lit., euph., poet., etc.**).

Neutral: “*be at a loss*”, “*be at a cross roads*”.

Jargon: “*balmy (barmy) on the crumpet*” (off the crumpet)

As a rule, the majority of phraseological units are monosemantic, but polysemy is also typical of phraseology “*be on the go*” -

1. Be busy, not to have even one minute to have a rest,
 2. to be going to leave, “right end left” -
1. Everywhere;

2. Recklessly.

In the Russian language: “*вдоль и поперек*”;

1. Во всех направлениях, повсюду, везде.
2. Долина была усеяна тюльпанами вдоль и поперек.
3. До мелочей, очень подробно. Я знаю это подробно.
“*играть роль*” -

1. Иметь то или иное значение.

2. Иметь огромное значение, сильно влиять на кого-либо,

3. Быть, являться кем-либо или чем-либо. «*Он драпируется и постоянно играет роль. То он является государственным человеком, то прикидывается художником*».

2. Phraseological synonyms are phraseological units which are the same in the plane of the content but different in the plane of expression. They belong to the same grammatical class (substantive, verbal, etc). So we can't consider such units as: “*For ages*” and “*a month of Sundays*” as synonyms.

We can distinguish three types of phraseological synonyms: ideographic, stylistic and stylistic-ideographic:

A. Ideographic synonyms differ in shades of meaning or have different notional components of meaning. Their archesemes coincide, but they have some minor differential semes. Their figurativeness may coincide or differ, e.g. the same figurativeness: “*as hell*” - “*devilishly*” and “*like hell*” - “*very urgently*”, different figurativeness: “*draw (pull) long bow*” - exaggerate, fib and “*make a mountain out of a molehill*” - exaggerate. In Russian: “*стреляный воробей*”, “*тертый калач*” - опытный человек: «стреляный воробей» - этот бывший полицейский. «Из этой еще что вздумашь - то и сделаешь, а та - тертый калач».

B. Stylistic synonyms have the same notional components of meaning, but differ in connotational components of meaning e.g. - to die - “*go the way all flesh*” (lit), “*go to one's last home*” (euph.), “*kick the bucket*” (coll.), “*go up the flume*” (Amer. slang). Another example: “*keep one's mouth shut*” (coll. fam.). And “*keep one's trap shut*” (rude, slang). Examples from the Russian language: “*отойти в мир иной*” (лит), “*уйти к праотцам*” (кн., уст.), “*сыграть в ящик*” (гр. разг.), “*копыта отбросить*” (гр. жарг).

C. Stylistic - ideographic synonyms have some different notional and connotational components of meaning e.g.: “(right) under smb's nose” - very near and “within a stone's throw” (neutral) - “near at hand”, “near to”. В русском языке: “быть в полном рассудке” – быть в здравом (твердом) состоянии (нейтр.), и “быть в своем уме” – быть в нормальном психическом состоянии (разг).

3. Phraseological units of the same part of speech but opposite in meaning are called phraseological antonyms.

The following types of **phraseological antonyms** may be singled out in English and Russian: **A. Phraseological antonyms with the same grammatical structure and the same figurativeness.** They may be of several classes:

1) **verbal class:** “to sink the shop” – “to talk shop”; “заваривать кашу” – “расхлебывать кашу”. In some antonyms negations are used: “to pay attention to smb” – “pay no attention to smb”; “израстает свеч” – “изранестает свеч”.

2) **adjectival class:** “in high spirits” – “in low spirits”, “черепахиным шагом” – “семимильным шагом”.

3) **nominative class:** “a bed of thorns” – “a bed of roses”, «деловиляпе», «дело – труба».

4) **adverbial class:** “play one’s cards well” – “play one’s cards badly” – “работать засучив рукава” – “работать спустя рукава”, “язык хорошо подвешен” – “язык – плохо подвешен”.

B. Phraseological antonyms with different grammatical structure, and different images. They may be of two classes:

1) Phraseological antonyms with some common components: “live from hand to mouth” – “live like a fighting cock”, “попасть в точку” – “попасть пальцем в небо (попасть в просак)”.

2) **Phraseological antonyms which have no common components:** “beat about the bush” – “come to the point”, “валить дурака” – “взяться за ум”.

Semantically **Phraseological antonyms** may be divided into the following classes:

a. The class “begin - stop” (doing smth) – “put smth on foot” – “ring down the curtain”, “первая ласточка” – “последняя спица в колеснице”.

b. The class “well- badly” – “right- wrong, fairly- unfairly”: “come to the right shop” – “come to the wrong shop”, “earn an honest penny” – “live by one’s wits”, “in good faith” – “in bad faith”, “in hot blood - in cold blood”, “in high spirits” – “in low spirits”.

In the Russian language: “тяжелый на подъем” – “легкий на подъем”, “еловая голова” – “светлая голова”, “жить как кошка с собакой” – “жить душа в душу” и др.

c. The class “more- less”

Quality: “as plentiful as blackberries” – “as scarce as hen’s teeth” (Amer. Austr.). “пустой кошелек” – “тугой кошелек”, “как сельдей в бочке” – “шаром покати”.

Distance: “as close as quarters”, “under one’s nose”, “at one’s elbow” – “as far cry from”, “под носом” – “у черта на куличиках”, “за тридевять земель”, “куда Макар телят гонял” и др.

Abstract qualities (simple - complicated, etc.).

“child’splay” – “Herculeantask”; “пройти на ура” – “потерпеть фиаско”, “найти разгадку” – “зайти в тупик”.

d. The class “action” or “absence of any activity”:

“work one’s fingers to the bone” - not to move (stir) a finger; “работатъкаклошадъ” – “лодырягонять”, “битьбаклуши”, “засучиврукава” – “спустярукава” идр.

e. The class “richness - poverty”: “roll in money – “go rack and ruin”; “каксырвмасле” – “перебиватъсяхлебанакавас” идр.

f. The class emotional and intellectual qualities: “know all the inns and outs of smth” – “not to make head or tail of smth.”, “валятьдурака” – “взятьсязаум”, “царемвголове” – “безцарявголове”.

g. “beauty – ugliness”: “as pretty as princess (picture)” – “as ugly as a sin”: “каккартинка”, “пугаловогороде”.

GLOSSARY:

Connotation - Additional meaning which arises due to the associations a word has.

Denotation - The relationship between a word and the non-linguistic, 'outside' world. For instance one could say that the denotation of *cup* is a small vessel-like object for holding beverages.

Description - (отлат. descriptio - описание) – A language construction used to replace a proper or common name of the subject.

Grammatical meaning - A type of meaning which is determined by the grammatical context in which a form occurs. Typical elements with grammatical meaning are prepositions, articles or conjunctions.

Idiom - A set of words which always co-occur and where the meaning is not necessarily derived by concatenating the individual parts of the idiom, e.g *to take coals to Newcastle* 'to do something entirely superfluous'.

Lexical meaning - A type of meaning which is specifiable independently of other words or of grammatical context. The lexical meaning of *table* is 'a piece of furniture with a horizontal surface designed to be sat at'. The meaning of a word which is specifiable independently of other words — ultimately with reference to the non-linguistic world — and which is independent of the grammar of the language.

Antonyms phraseological – Units which belong to the same part of speech but opposite in meaning.

Semantics - The study of meaning in language. This is an independent level and has several subtypes, such as word, grammatical, sentence and utterance meaning.

Synonym - A word which is taken to have the same meaning as one or more other words. The collocations in which words occur may — indeed usually do — differ as seen with *cranium* and *skull* which are distinguished

according to register: the former is a medical term, the latter an everyday one.

Synonyms ideographic - differ in shades of meaning or have different notional components of meaning. Their archesemes coincide, but they have some minor differential semes.

Phraseological synonyms - Phraseological units which are the same in the plane of the content but different in the plane of expression.

Stylistic synonyms have the same notional components of meaning, but differ in connotational components of meaning.

Stylistic - ideographic synonyms have some different notional and connotational components of meaning.

Lecture 4.

Phraseological units. Deformation in speech. General notes. Various ways of phraseological unit transformations. Additions. Substitutions or replacements. Permutations. Deletions.

1. The study of phraseological units cannot be confined to their meanings. It extends to the way the English employs idioms, their attitude towards these specific units of language. As we know, play on words and creative use of language has always been part of the English tradition. This tendency is now observed to PU (or idioms in Western linguistic). For the English the link between an idiom and the referent is still alive, that's why they very often divide the Phraseological units into separate words and play with them.

English literature, newspaper articles, public speeches of eminent politicians abound in deformed Phraseological units.

The attitude to idioms in the English and Russian cultures is very different. The play on idioms in the English language continues an old tradition of puns and other types of play on words, characteristic of Shakespeare, O. Wilde, L. Carroll and many other writers. In the Russian culture idioms are regarded as the wisdom of many generations and are treated accordingly, whereas in English they usually serve as the material for exercising one's linguistic creativity.

Recent researches conducted by foreign linguists (Gibbs, 1994, Gibbs and Raymond, 1994, Gibbs, Nayak, Cutting, 1995) demonstrate that the metaphors on which PU are based are still alive for the speakers and are a prominent part of their everyday conceptual system. This conception of idioms also explains, why, the majority of PU is analyzable and can be deformed. Many scholars go further and suggest that people attempt to do some compositional analysis when understanding idiomatic phrases, and are to assign the parts of an idiom with independent meaning, which contribute to an idiom's overall figurative interpretation (Gibbs, Nayak, Cutting,

1955).

That explains, why so many idioms are lexically flexible and can be easily transformed. Some scholars even state that any idiom can be lexically changed in a creative manner and it will be still understood “if there is sufficient pragmatic context” (Gibbs, Nayak, Bolton, Keppel, 1989).

2. Many idioms can be transformed in various ways according to the communicative needs of language-users.

Additions.

Additions are not normally permitted within an idiom. But as with novel substitutions, language- users may introduce extraneous elements into idioms to make their message more precise:

Rudyard Kipling *took the art world bull by the horns* when he wrote, “*It’s clever, but is it art*”.

Much more interesting as an example of innovations is those instances, when an added adjective (or word/ words) is/ are treated as if it were literal, whereas what is really intended is the idiomatic meaning:

One of the examiners said that this was a feather in his cap but he said it was a small feather.

This emphasis on the literal “face” of an idiom by means of an extraneous adjective is a variety of word play.

One should remember that any addition to an idiom must be designed to reinforce its meaning and not simply elaborate on the expression. Some idioms (e.g. *Kick the bucket, smell a rat, etc.*) are unlikely to tolerate any additions, even innovative ones.

Substitutions or replacements.

There are many idioms which permit only minimal variation or are totally invariant (e.g. *Fat chance you’ve got!*)
Of minimal variation:

a. *We went there one evening. I twisted Richie’s arm. I said he’s your brother-in- law...*

b. *If you can’t turn up let us know - if necessary I can twist the arms of a few friends and get them come.*

But language-users are innovative; they make their own substitutions in an idiom while contriving to retain its idiomaticity:

... we should not entirely trust the Japanese even when they are not bearing gifts.

(PU “*trust not the Greeks when they come bearing gifts*”).

All those who thought Nissan could never make a car like 333 ZX order your humble pie now. (PU “to eat humble pie”).

Mary stepped in where Janeites feared to tread. (PU “Fools rush in where angels fear to tread “).

In all these examples no change is intended in the meaning of the idiom;

there is only an attempt to make precisely applicable to a particular situation by using appropriate substitutions. So the manipulation does not hinder the correct understanding of the text.

Permutations.

The possibility of rearranging the words of an idiom as we do those in non-idiomatic constructions, e.g.: *Jack killed the enemy - the enemy was killed by Jack* varies from idiom to idiom just **as substitution and adding to**.

Some idioms have no permutational possibilities in terms of their internal grammar. If transformed, such idioms lose their idiomaticity, e.g.: "*John smelt a rat*"- *John is a rat-smeller, which is nonsense*). While the optional permutation is a matter of free variation, the obligatory permutation realizes an invariant rule of the language:

a. *To split hairs* over these cases being civil or criminal offences is unworthy of us all.

b. *The jury lost itself in the minutiae (δεμαυ) of legal argument and hair-splitting rather than using common sense.*

a. *Those people are hoping they don't have Arthur as chairman.*

- *Oh, I don't know it served to break the ice.* ("it" refers to Arthur's opening speech).

b. He thinks a party would be a good ice-breaker. These "**compressions**" are generally used unconsciously by the speaker/writer and do not strike the hearer as being unusual. They indicate the ease and fluency, which mark the native speaker or the competent foreigner in handling the language.

Another very common form of permutation is **passivization**:

a. *Gorbachev leaves no stone unturned at the summit.*

b. He released a statement saying that no stone would be left unturned to find the criminals.

Passivization is a permissible transformation, which can be carried out on some idioms such as given above. Language-users may also sometimes reserve subject and object in order to create a foregrounded one-off variation of an idiom: *For a while in Hobart this week it looked faintly as if the canary had swallowed the cat.* This kind of reversal (инверсия) seems to be on the analogy of "*the tail wagging the dog*" where the reversal is the normal form of the idiom and constitutes its meaning and its point.

Deletions.

While some idioms are well established in their truncated forms so much that these forms are now the norm (e.g. "*red herring*" from "*draw (trail) a red herring across the track (path)*", "*a rolling stone*" from "*a rolling stone gathers no moss*"), others rely on the hearer's knowledge of the original for comprehension.

Deletion is a process common at all levels though different sorts of levels require other terms (e.g. Elision, contraction) be used to describe its effects: the absence of an element normally present.

Idioms that are current in the language in their full form but which appear with parts deleted indicate the confidence and fluency of the language-user. Nonnative speakers whose knowledge of idioms has been derived from dictionaries may find such deletions impeding identification and interpretation of particular idioms. *“The idol has feet of clay”* becomes “x has clay feet”, *“dangle a carrot before the donkey”* is reduced to *“dangle a carrot”* or simply *“carrot”* with an appropriate modifier:

a. *“Thatcher waves trade carrot”* (headline)

b. The Prime Minister has offered some very appealing political carrots in his economic program.

Current studies have shown that in most idioms it is possible to single out the components, which are more relevant for detecting the meaning of an idiom, than other constituents (Tabossi, 1988). Without them the comprehension of an idiom would be impossible. The experiments have demonstrated that the idiom can be identified only after the “key” has been accessed by the reader or listener.

It is logical then, that whenever the speaker deforms an idiom, he preserves its key word and the reader is able to understand the deformed phrase, because he knows the metaphorical meaning of this word, which is obtained being part of an idiom or a number of idioms.

The role of the “key” word is so important, that we may even presume that it conveys the main part of the meaning of the corresponding idiom, whereas other components give additional information.

Other examples of deletion:

While this home fire burns, Bob can relax, feel safe... (“keep the home fires burning”).

Norman Sherry is the epitome of the no-stone-untuned school of biographers ... (“leave no stone unturned”).

Though deletion is possible in idioms (such as those cited above), there are large numbers of idioms, where deletion is unlikely, even impossible (get in touch with smb, so much so, etc.).

On the whole, each time the user (the speaker, the writer) considers it necessary, he can easily decompose the idiom into separate parts and employ it as he wants. In doing this he will expect to be understood, because the reader possesses the same cultural knowledge as he does, and perceives the idiom in the same way: not as a “dead metaphor”, but as an expression with a quite transparent figurative meaning.

GLOSSARY:

Additions - language- users may introduce extraneous elements into

idioms to make their message more precise: Rudyard Kipling took the art world bull by the horns when he wrote, "It's clever, but is it art?"

Deletion - a process common at all levels though different sorts of levels require other terms (e.g. Elision, contraction) be used to describe its effects: the absence of an element normally present.

Compositional analysis - The Compositional Analysis effort aims at developing the theoretical foundations and conceptual tools for an efficient prototype implementation of a modular program-analyzer, based on appropriate extensions of System.

Passivization is a permissible transformation, which can be carried out on some idioms. Language-users may also sometimes reserve subject and object in order to create a foregrounded one-off variation of an idiom.

Permutations - The possibility of rearranging the words of an idiom as we do those in non-idiomatic constructions, e.g.: *Jack killed the enemy - the enemy was killed by Jack* varies from idiom to idiom just as substitution and adding to.

Replacements or Substitutions - There are many idioms which permit only minimal variation or are totally invariant (e.g. Fat chance you've got!)

Transformation - Regular modification of the main linguistic model resulting in creation of the secondary linguistic structure.

Lecture 5.

The Use of Phraseological units in Discourse (I). Extended Metaphor. Phraseological Puns in Discourse. Cleft Use.

Discourse analysis is a discipline, which attempts to identify and describe linguistic regularities and irregularities in utterances which cannot be accounted for at sentence level, study language in use across sentence boundaries and explore the organization of texts.

The term "**discourse**" is widely used nowadays in modern linguistics. So we may speak about the use of *phraseological units in discourse* or the **contextual use of phraseological units**. The most common patterns of the contextual use of PUs are the following: **extended metaphor, pun, cleft use and phraseological allusion**.

1. The term "metaphor" means the transference of some quality of one object to another, parts of the human body may create phraseological units denoting different attitude to labour: hold one's hands (to do nothing, be lazy), "twiddle one's thumbs", "not to lift a finger" etc., in the Russian language: "непошевелить пальцем", "сидеть сложа руки", "глазми хлопать".

Extended phraseological metaphor is part of the writer's creative activity. It is characterized by **pervasiveness**, thus it is not a single metaphor, but a string of sub-images, creating associative metaphors, tied together covering an entire area of experience.

They all cluster around the base metaphor of the PU creative a cohesive network of various types of associative bond: immediate or remote, forward or backward or associations by contiguity, of linking things which occur together in space and time. In extended metaphor each of the subsequent sub-images is influenced by the previous ones presented in the context. New associations and sub-images are facilitated by the previously established items of the metaphoric chain. The metaphoric network calls for associative thinking and cognitive approach to interpretation and analysis. **(1.) One type of extended phraseological metaphor is the successive use of sub-images** without any structural modifications of the PU: “*A new broom*”/”*a new broom sweeps clean*”.

That she wasn't at all a new broom swept the dust from pillar to post and left everybody spitting till some poor devil got the dust-pan and collected the dirt. (Lawrence).

Phraseological extended metaphor is not so typical of the Russian language. We may find just few examples: „*пятое колесо в телеге*” - *пятое колесо, (о лишнем, ненужном человеке)*, “*вставлять спицы в колеса*” - *вставлять спицы – чинить препятствия*.

Я-то к чему тут приметался? Что за глупое пятое колесо! (И.С. Тургенев).

Links between the successive developments of the phraseological image are secured by cohesion of the base (initial, dictionary) form which is an intrinsic feature of the PU. Parts of the PU are used in the text to generate new sub-images and new associative metaphors: “*like looking for a needle in a haystack*”.

(2.) “Then of course we’ve got to find antibody that we want, and that’s the problem with the new technology. It’s really like the needle in the haystack. We’ve got to go through the haystack, straw by straw, pulling out the needle”.

Contextual metaphoric use is a natural consequence of using PUs in creative way. Each sub-image promotes and develops metaphorical links, which constitute a network of related figurative items, all going back to the PU. **The sub-images are critical for the creation of texts**; they can be interpreted only by reference to the base image of the PU. In the following example the metaphorical continuum is secured by recourse to the PU over a number of successive pages in which the PU first appears in its initial form. Two pages later it is followed by a contextual extension of the image at the moment of mounting tension which is resolved by initial use, constituting a frame construction:

(3.) “*To skate on thin ice*”.
“It was really remarkable tribute to her powers of skating on thin ice that

the word "good" should still have significance". (Galsworthy, The White Monkey).

— "Desert said suddenly: "Stop! Don't move! He is down there in the street ..."

"Fleur sat down, she felt weak in her legs. The ice seemed suddenly of appalling thinness - the water appallingly cold". (Galsworthy, The White Monkey).

"Get home before Michael! She felt relieved, almost exhilarated. So much for skating on thin ice." (Galsworthy, The White Monkey).

2. In phraseology pun has received much attention and is well known.

Punning on PUs is a specific case of wordplay. Its stylistic effect lies in the relation between the PU and the corresponding free combination of words with their literal meanings:

(1). "A skeleton in the cupboard" (укаждойизбушки, своипогремушки).

Bernard: *What guilty secret?*

Jack: *Some skeleton in the cupboard.*

Jenny: (handing him back his glass) *No, no, body in die garden.* (Cooper).

In case of pun there is a **sudden return to direct meaning** in one or several components of the base form. The traditional pattern of taking turns in dialogue lends itself to punning very well.

In the next dialogue the interjectional PU.

"Hear, hear!" is an unattended verbal stimulus and the recall failure emerges as the leading element. When asked to say it again, Bilbo himself gets confused and flustered (взволнованный, растерянный) trying to save the situation. He echoes the word "hear" as a transitive verb in its direct meaning. Flustered acts like a cue (сигнал) signaling a shift in the semantic level:

"Hear, hear!"

"Hear, hear!" said Bilbo, and accidentally said it aloud.

"Hear what?" they asked turning suddenly towards him and he was so flustered that he answered, "Hear what I have got to say!" (Tolkien)

(2). **Punning** on the common image of a heart as a red pincushion is the case of contextual use of the PU "to cry one's heart".

"I came into the house one rainy dusk and asked where Frances was. "She is," said our cook "up in the front room crying her heart out". The fact that a person could cry so hard that his heart would come out of his body, as perfectly-shaped as a red velvet pin-cushion, was news to me. For some reason I had never heard the expression, so common in American families whose hopes and dreams run so often counter to attainment. I went upstairs mid ...My search for her heart took some fifteen minutes. I tore the

bed apart and kicked up the rugs and even looked in the bureau drawers”.
(Thurber)

3. Cleft use splits up the PU, at the same time retaining a set of stylistic and semantic resources (for linking it into, an entity ensuring cohesion in discourse).

Cleft use stipulates that the first part of the PU must be **semantically and stylistically adequate** in itself. It must be sufficient **to generate a link to cross the gap**. So the first part stands for the whole, which facilitates the retrieval of the phraseological image in the mind’s eye of the reader or the interlocutor.

One of the most common ways of creating a cleft in a PU in the author’s narrative or monological discourse is the use of the parenthesis.

In the example given below the parenthesis *“What she called”* appears in the middle of the PU, modifying the meaning. Cleft use often goes hand in hand with other patterns to create a stronger effect:

(1) *“To give smb. a bit (a piece) of one’s mind”*
(высказаться откровенно); *Кнох... I told her she’d only just come out to China and didn’t know what she was talking about, and then she gave me what she called a bit of her mind. I was obliged to remark that if that was a bit I didn’t much care about knowing the rest”.* (Maugham).

In Russian:

“Жали их как только вздумается... тут тебе кулачество, и чиновники городские... и естественно, что довели миллионную массу, как говорится, до белого каления”. (Фурманов)

Ср. *“Довести до белого каления”.*

Cleft use is frequently carried over into the next sentence or sentences:

(2) *Art is long and life is short*

“The art is long”, Sloan heard himself saying aloud...

“And life is short”, “I know that”. Dr. Bressingham completed the quotation brusquely”

(3). One of the most common cases of cleft use is **coupling it with other types of contextual use**, especially extended metaphor and pun:

“You made your bed, now lie on it: as you make your bed, so you must lie on it”.

“The garden at Vale view was a patch of tender colour which the miners often stopped to admire in their way back from their shift. Chiefly these colours came from flowering shrubs in which Christine had planted the previous autumns, for now Andrew would allow her to do no heavy work at all”.

“You’ve made the place!” he told her with authority

“Now sit on it”, “Her favourite seat was at the end of the little glen (узкая лесистая долина) where, beside a tiny water splash, she could hear

the soothing converse of the stream. An overhanging willow offered protection from the rows of houses above. The difficulty with the rest of the garden of Vale View was that they had only to sit outside the porch for all the front windows of the rows to be tenanted "... (Cronin)

As a rule, the pattern of the **cleft use** implies a discontinuity: a sudden change an abrupt break or a hesitation, which precedes the second part of the PU and its contextual extension:

(4.) *Can the leopard change its sports? (горбатого могила исправит)*

"King Richard: Rage must be withstood (устоять, выдержать); Give me his gage (заклад): lions make leopard tame.

Thomas Mowbray: Yea but not change his spots: take but my shame.

And I resign my gage". (Shakespeare).

GLOSSARY:

Cleft use stipulates that the first part of the PU must be semantically and stylistically adequate in itself. It must be sufficient to generate a link to cross the gap. So the first part stands for the whole, which facilitates the retrieval of the phraseological image in the mind's eye of the reader or the interlocutor.

Discourse analysis - The investigation of the structure and patterning of discourse. It contrasts explicitly with analyses of written language or of contrived examples in linguistic works.

Metaphor - The transference of some quality of one object to another.

Extended phraseological metaphor - Part of the writer's creative activity. It is characterized by pervasiveness, thus it is not a single metaphor, but a string of sub-images, creating associative metaphors, tied together covering an entire area of experience.

Pun - A sudden return to direct meaning in one or several components of the base form. The traditional pattern of taking turns in dialogue lends itself to punning very well.

Punning - On the common image of a heart as a red pincushion is the case of contextual use of the PU *"to cry one's heart"*.

Regularities - A regularity is the fact that the same thing always happens in the same circumstances.

Utterance - Any stretch of spoken speech, a sentence or phrase with emphasis on the characteristics of the spoken medium in contrast either with the written form or with more abstract forms of a linguistic analysis.

Transference - The transference of something such as power, information, or affection from one person or place to another is the action of transferring it.

Lecture 6.

The Use of Phraseological units in Discourse(II) Phraseological Allusions. Phraseological Reiteration. Phraseological Saturation in Discourse.

1. Phraseological allusion is one of the most sophisticated patterns of the contextual use of phraseology.

As the PU never appears in its full base form in the case of allusion, it is crucial to extract this phraseological information from memory and form it up in the mind's eye.

Non-native speakers and foreign language learners frequently have to resort to dictionaries to aid the process of recall. In order to access the base form it is necessary to identify the explicit image-bearing component(s) (key components), as they play the key role in bringing to mind the meaning of the PU supported by a wider context.

These components remain in the focus; they create a symbolic representation of the PU. Consciously or unconsciously the reader seeks to make explicit the missing components and retrieve the base form which is exploited in the given instantiation.

Allusion egresses the meaning of the PU in a more concentrated form, it focuses on the most important piece of information. The implicit components by the reader or listener as they are brought to mind by the context.

Thus, **phraseological allusion is an implicit mental reference to the image of a phraseological unit which is represented in discourse by one or more explicit image-bearing components, hinting at the image.**

It is quite common, that longer PUs undergo instant changes in discourse:

(1.) *“He should have a long spoon that sups (ужинать) with the devil.*

Trinculo: I should know that voice: it should be - but he is drowned: and these are devil: O, defend me!

Stephano: This is a devil, and no monster. I will leave him. I have no long spoon”. (Shakespeare).

In an extreme case of phraseological allusion only one base component is retained in discourse.

(2.) *“A cat has nine lives”.* (живучкакошка)

“Burge-Lubin: But damn it, man - I beg your pardon Archbishop, but really, really -

Archbishop: Don't mention it. What were you going to say?

Burge-Lubin: Well, you were drowned four times over. You are not a cat you know”. (Shaw).

The presence of image-bearing component cat acts like a recall key in the face of the absence of the full form.

The complete impact of a phraseological allusion comes to the reader who is fully aware of the origin of the allusion, i.e. the PU that is alluded to. Failure to perceive the message of phraseological allusion may be exploited as a specific technique:

(3.) *“The road to hell is paved with good intentions”.*

“To speak truth, sir, I don't understand you at all: I cannot keep up the conversation, because it has got out of my depth ...” “Justly thought, rightly said Miss Eyre, and at this moment I am paving hell with energy. “Sir?” “I am laying down good intentions, which I believe durable as flint (кремень). Certainly, my associates and pursuits (стремления) shall be other than they have been.”

(Ch. Bronte).

Jane's question “*Sir?*” is a cue. It suggests a semantic difficulty in the comprehension of the allusion. She fails to catch it immediately, as Mr. Rochester's idiomatic speech makes it hard for Jane to keep up the conversation. This is a case of **unresolved allusion** from the point of view of the second interlocutor.

2. Phraseological reiteration is a form of cohesion which may involve the repetition of the whole PU, its parts or isolated components that refer back to it. It may be coupled with any of the techniques of the contextual use of Pus, e.g.: **extended metaphor, pun, allusion**, etc.

The greater the distance between the repeated parts (the whole unit or isolated components), the more difficult it is for the reader, listener or translator to recognize and identify the phraseological links, and hence increased awareness would be needed to meet the challenge.

In the following example the isolated phraseological component refers back to the phraseological unit in a dialogue discourse:

To leave no stone unturned

“We mustn't leave a stone unturned and there's a stone for you.”

“A stone, Mr. Dombey!” faltered Walter. (Dickens).

The bare reiteration of the whole of the PU in core use may produce a powerful effect. In the following case the PU *to come to pass* repeated three times in one sentence, each time without contextual changes. However, even **verbatim repetition** may create an effect in an emotionally meaningful bit, conveying distress and misery:

To come to pass

*“He didn't talk about love and tears: only that this was something which had **come to pass**, and which, given Johanna's state of mind was bound **to come to pass**, and **coming to pass** might have taken a more painful form, bringing far more nastiness and misery than at present”.* (Lawrence),

In the next example **the reiteration** goes together with a pun: the duality of exposure reveals the figurative and the literal levels of meaning:

“You have made your bed and you must lie on it” (что посеешь, то пожнешь)

“Arnold: But you weren't obliged to marry me. You've made your bed, and I'm afraid you must lie on it.

Elizabeth: “I've quite made up my mind to leave you, Arnold” (Maugham).

3. The simplest form of phraseological saturation is the use of the two PUs running close to each other, complementing the image and creating space.

“In the soup” – в беде, в затруднении.

“Up to the neck” – посамуюшею

“Charles: I have one or two things to say that a good deal concern you. Patrick: But is you're hammered we're in the soup, Daddy. Charles; Up to the neck, my boy”. (Maugham).

The interlocutor is quick up the thread and continues the metaphoric line: the two PUs constitute one united image of being engulfed by trouble.

In the following example the contextual use is sustained and carried over to the next paragraph, and the stretch of the text is permeated with phraseological meaning:

“A drowning man will clutch at a straw”.

“In one's element” “Kate felt a bit like a mermaid trying to swim in a wrong element. She was swept away in some silent tide to the old, antediluvian silence, where things moved without contact. She moved and existed without contact. Even the striking of the hours had ceased. As a drowning person sees nothing but waters, so Kate saw nothing but the face of the timele waters. So, of course, she clutched at her straw”. (Lawrence).

The next example is a **phraseologically saturated stretch of the text**, covering a whole page. We meet here both **core and contextual use**, a striking case of **cleft use**, a contextual **metaphoric extension** of two components: **bag and cat**, **reiteration** and **contextual analogues**, all saturating the context:

“To let the cat out of the bag”, “To buy a pig in a poke” (купить котавмешке), “Tit for tat” (зубзазуб), “An eye for an eye (and a tooth for a tooth)”.

“Gentle reader, I am going to let the cat out, of the bag. I am going to do so, because I never ask anyone, even the most desirous, to buy a pig in a poke. After this very nice little peace-like-a-river touch, I am going to let the cat out of the bag (, , ,)”

“Out of this very promising-looking bag of a story which I have this minute shown you tied with a pretty blue ribbon of peace, I am going to let out, - what? - the cat! I am going to let the cat out of the bag. Or even two whirling, fur-flying cats, all claws and sparks. (...)”

“But whether he knew it or not isn't the point. I know it, and I am telling this history. And I like to let my cat out of the bag right off, so that nobody shall think it's a chaste unicom or a pair of doves in a cage”.

“Dear- Gilbert, he had found his mate and his match. He had found one who would give him tit for tat, and title for tattle. He had found his soul's affinity, and his body's mate; a she-cat who would give him claw for claw, a bitch who would give him snarl for snarl, a falcon who would demand an eye for an eye. Here's to them!” (Lawrence).

GLOSSARY:

Allusion, phraseological - Animplicit mental reference to the image of a phraseological unit which is represented in discourse by one or more explicit image-bearing components, hinting at the image.

Instantiation - 1) The act or an instance of instantiating; 2) The representation of (an abstraction) by a concrete example

Phraseological reiteration -Saying something again or a number of times, typically for emphasis or clarity

Saturation - The state or process that occurs when no more of something can be absorbed, combined with, or added, filling (something or someone) with something until no more can be held or absorbed

Sustain - Cause to continue or be prolonged for an extended period or without interruption

Lecture 7.

Phraseological Euphemisms in Modern English.Etymology of Euphemisms.Groups of phraseological Euphemisms in Modern English.Phraseo-semantic classification of Euphemisms.

I. The term “euphemism” (from Greek “eu” – “well”, “phemi” – “I am speaking”) has been used to denote a definite stylistic device for many centuries. As a linguistic phenomenon it has been analyzed since the XIXth century but only in the last decades the problem of euphemisms acquired its widespread popularity.

Linguists analyze different types of euphemisms as parts of lexical system of different languages. The problem of phraseological euphemisms hasn't been in the focus of scientists' attention yet. On the whole, the process of euphemisation is considered to be a complex and many-sided linguistic phenomenon characterized by three interrelated and interconnected aspects: social, psycholical and linguistic proper.

The most important is the linguistic one which is connected with ameliorative language evaluation of something negative existing in the real world.

- Linguists are united in their opinion that euphemisms are extralinguistic in their nature. Still there is a great divergence of opinions concerning social and psychological causes of euphemisms, the most important criteria of euphemisation, stylistic reference and the usage of euphemisms in real speech. All this testifies to the actuality of the problem analyzed.

- The novelty of the problem is dictated by the fact that phraseological euphemisms haven't been the object of scientific investigation so far. In a limited number of works they were analyzed together with other phraseological units belonging to some phraseo-semantic fields (e.g. "death"). Still they present some interest as indirect denominations of rather typical and even common phenomena of our everyday life. The fact that they have transferred meaning also adds importance to the investigation.

Phraseological euphemisms were picked out from A.Koonin's "English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary" according to the label "эвф.", some other phraseological dictionaries and books on phraseology. The author of the above mentioned dictionary includes this label into the system of stylistic labels marking at the same time that the system of stylistic labels is, to some extent, conventional. At the same time not all euphemisms are marked in the dictionary with this label. Some of them have other labels, e.g. "in a (the) family way" (pregnant) "разг." (colloquial), "be out (take, leave) of one's senses" (быть не в своём уме) "разг." (colloquial), "shoot (sling, throw) the bull" "амер. жарг." (Amer. jargon), "be off one's nut" "жарг." (jargon), etc. According to the point of view of modern linguists they express notions which are considered inappropriate or rude. The image on which they are based is not rough or unpleasant, so they also belong to the group of phraseological euphemisms.

1) First of all, phraseological euphemisms will be studied from the point of view of the notions they express.

2) Secondly, one synonymic group of phraseological euphemisms will be investigated from the point of view of different types of synonyms.

II. From the point of view of the semantics phraseological euphemisms (PE) may be subdivided into several groups, the most important of them are:

1. Euphemisms naming death and everything connected with it, e.g. "to breathe one's last (one's last breath, gasp)", "to depart this life", "to pay one's debt to nature", "to go to one's last home", "to go the way of all flesh", "to kick the bucket", "to hop the twig", "to join the majority", "to be no more", "God's acre", etc.:

*The next day, his parents were flown to New Mexico by special Army plane, and they stayed at their son's bedside, until he **breathed his last**.*

(R.Lapp. "Atoms and People").

A strapping lad like Cliffy Benton to be smashed up and put out of his life, and all the parsons can do about it is stuff religion down y'r throat, and try to make y' believe Cliffy's gone to glory: 'God knows best.'

(K.Prichard. "Golden Miles").

Patrick Henry has already gone to his long home; Samuel Adams was soon to follow.

(Ch.Beard and M Beard. "The Rise of American Civilisation").

He did not talk to them; they had already been told exactly what each of them was to do, and who was to do what in case the first-chice man kicked the bucket or was otherwise out.

(S.Heym. "The Crusaders").

He pardoned us off-hand, and allowed us something to live on till he went the way of all flesh.

(Ch.Dickens. "Sketches by Boz", "Mr. Watkins Tottle").

Religious and moral factors are the driving forces of this group of phraseological euphemisms:

- fear before death and,
- sometimes, the desire not to hurt a person,
- to show one's tact and courtesy

can be considered to be the emotional basis of such PE. This group of PE is rather numerous.

2. Euphemisms naming social evils, crimes, human vices and their consequences, e.g. *"three sheets in (to) the wind"* (Вдрызгпьяный. 2) Мореположено. 3) В дымпьяный), *"in one's cups"*, *"send somebody to glory"*, *"send somebody to kingdom-come-послатьк-товцарствобожье"*, *"the Duke of Exeter's daughter"* - дыба, орудиенитки ", *shoot the bullболтать, чесатьязык(ом), трепаться"*, *"kiss the сирпризубить (чащу) ; пить, выпивать"*, *"have (take) a drop -бытьнавезде - бытьнавеселе/немногоподдать"*, *"have one too many -перебрать, хватитьлишнего"*, *"have had a fewto be slightly drunk"*, etc.:

They threatened to make me hug the Duke of Exeter's daughter.

(W.Scott. "The Fortunes of Nigel").

...he is a good unconscious spy on Brass, and tells, in his cups, all that he sees and hears.

(Ch.Dickens. "The Old Curiosity Shop").

'Did you have a chance to say a few words to the Governor tonight, Luke?' he asked anxiously. "Sure, I was over there shooting the breeze with him just a few minutes ago'.

(E.O'Connor."The Last Hurrah").

Moral principles serve as a social determinant of phraseological euphemisms of this rather large group. Social evils and human vices have always been a rich source of creating such PEs.

3. Euphemisms naming poverty, hard financial situation, e.g. “*be in Queer Street (in a difficulty)*”, “*live from hand to mouth*”, “*not to have a shirt to one’s back*”, “*not <to have> a penny to bless oneself with*”; “*without a penny to one’s name*”, “*keep body and soul together*”, make <both, two> ends meet”:

*Brown came to see me yesterday, and from what he told me, the poor chap doesn’t seem to **have a shirt to his back**. He has been out of employment for over a year now!*

*One of his guests, a writer of poetical drama, was a man who three months after he had earned a thousand pound, never **had a penny with which to bless himself***”.

(J.K.Jerome. “Paul Kelper”).

Poverty has always been a very undesirable and unpleasant condition, especially in the English society. No wonder that poor people tried to conceal their poor financial situation using or inventing indirect names for it.

4. Euphemisms naming mental deformities (disability), e.g. “*be out (take, leave) of one’s senses*”, “*be off one’s nut*”, “*go nuts*”, “*soft (touched, weak) in the head*”, “*a strange bird*”, “*a weird (strange) customer*”, “*a weird (strange) card (duck)*”, etc.:

*Woman, you’ve gone too far! You’re **out of your senses!***

(D.Carter. “Fatherless Sons”).

*“He said he didn’t want to see you...” Babbit reared over him. The attendant hastily changed to a coaxing. ‘You can come back and try tomorrow. Probably the poor guy **is off his nut**’.*

(S.Lewis. “Babbit”).

*She did one good thing – the dumb girl in that Russian play. But she can’t **speak for nuts**; you’re following the sense of her words all the time.*

(J.Galsworthy. The Silver Spoon”).

*He looked out the pub window at the sky-high mountain peaks that seem to be nudging Vancouver into the sea. ‘Sometimes I think I’ll **go nuts**, staring at those things’.*

(D.Carter. “Fatherless Sons”).

Mental and physical handicaps cause the sense of pity, sometimes disgust. No wonder that there appeared a lot of phraseological euphemisms to name them.

5. Euphemisms naming some acts or conditions from the sphere of physiology, e.g. “*pay a call*”, “*a call of nature*”, “*in the straw*”, “*in a (the) family way*”, “*in nature’s garb*”, “*not a stitch on*”, “*in a state of nature*”, “*in one’s skin*”, etc.:

*The tall dark girl came to see Doctor Reefy because she was **in the family way** and had become frightened.*

(Sh.Anderson. "Winesburg, Ohio").

Angelina. Your friend, the bald man, the one who calls for you, where is he?

Philip. He is at the moment responding to a call of nature.

(I.Shaw. "The Gentle People").

*The little bay was so sheltered that we could bathe **without a stitch to our backs**.*

It is interesting to note that the polysemantic phraseological unit "*not (without) a stitch to one's back*" is a phraseological euphemism in both meanings: 1. absolutely naked; 2. very poor.

Physiological function, the condition of pregnancy and human nakedness are considered to be indecent or not worth speaking about in normal society according to moral principles existing in such a society.

6. Euphemisms referring to the sexual sphere, e.g. "*a lady of easy virtue*", "*a light (easy) woman*", "*a real battleaxe*", "*a house of ill fame*", "*make love*" (in the second meaning):

*In my bedroom we would pass the hours **making love** or talking and only too often quarrelling.*

(Gr.Green. "The Comedians").

*It is entirely populated by crooks, stock-exchange jugglers, corrupt policemen, and ... **ladies of easy virtue**.*

(J.Lindsay. "All on the Never-Never").

III. Phraseological euphemisms belonging to one and the same phraseo-semantic group may further be subdivided into synonymic groups as there are different grammatical classes in one and the same group – verbal, substantive, adjectival, etc.

Phraseological synonyms belong to the same grammatical class and are phraseological units which are the same in the plane of content but different in the plane of expression.

The majority of linguists distinguish three types of phraseological synonyms:

- Ideographic;
- Stylistic;
- Stylistic-ideographic.

Ideographic synonyms differ in shades of meaning or have different notional components of meaning. Their archesemes coincide but they have one or more minor differential semes in the denotational component of meaning.

Stylistic synonyms have the same notional components of meaning but differ in their stylistic reference.

Stylistic-ideographic synonyms have some different notional and connotational components of meaning.

There are also synonyms that coincide both in denotational and connotational components of phraseological meaning. Such synonyms are called **equivalent (or equipollent) ones**.

There have analyzed the synonymic group of phraseological euphemisms with the meaning **“to die”**. This synonymic group is rather numerous as the concept of death finds its reflection in all languages and the attitude towards this “event” is similar. **“All people are mortal”** is a well-known expression, so speakers of different languages as representatives of different nations and nationalities try to conceal the unpleasant emotions and painful news. Phraseological units are based on different images, the majority of such images may be considered elevated, as in such units as *“go to a better world”*, *“go to glory”*, *“go to heaven”*, *“go to kingdom-come”*, *“go to one’s last (long) home”*, etc. Others are based on some “common” images, e.g. *“take the ferry”*, *“be (go) up the flume”* (in the second meaning), *“to be no more”*. Only a very limited number of phraseological euphemisms of this synonymic group “use” the images which can cause ironical or jocular attitude, e.g. *“kick the bucket”*, *“to hop the twig”*.

All phraseological units belonging to this group of phraseological synonyms denote one and the same action, that’s why their denotational components coincide. Differences may be observed either in emotional evaluation or stylistic reference of phraseological units. First of all we distinguish **equivalent (equipollent) phraseological synonymic euphemisms** which coincide in both components of their phraseological meaning (denotational and connotational). Coincidence in their connotational components means coincidence in their evaluation, emotiveness, expressivity and stylistic reference. Death is presented in them as something positive, going to the better world, to God. Such expressions are etymologically connected with belief in God, with the Bible or were borrowed from Latin, e.g. *“go to one’s last (long) home”* was used in the Bible, Ecclesiastes XII, 5. The origin of the phraseological euphemism *“join the <great> majority”* dates to the Latin expression *“abiit ad plures”*.

Let’s present equivalent phraseological synonymic euphemisms: *“join one’s ancestors”*, *“be gathered to one’s fathers”*, *“go beyond the veil”*, *“go the way of nature”*, *“go to a better world”*, *“go to glory”*, *“go to kingdom-come”*, *“go to one’s last (long) home”*, *“join the <great> majority”*.

It is interesting to note that there are no **ideographic phraseological synonyms** in this group of PEs. Such cases are very rare, in our group of synonyms it is caused by the fact that all phraseological synonyms have the same meaning **“to die”** without some additional shades of denotational meaning as it is observed in other groups of phraseological synonyms.

The group of **stylistic synonyms** constitute the above mentioned PEs (belonging to the group of equivalent synonyms and being stylistically

neutral), on the one hand, and such synonyms as “go west” (colloquial), or “go the way of all flesh” (bookish), on the other hand. **They denote the same notion, coincide in their denotational component, are based on different images and belong to different stylistic layers.**

The last group of phraseological synonyms – **stylistic-ideographic**, in our case is presented by phraseological euphemisms belonging to different stylistic layers and differentiating in emotional colouring as a subcomponent of connotation. It means that some phraseological units such as “kick the bucket”, “be (go) up the flume” (in the second meaning), “throw up the sponge” are characterized by a jocular or ironical emotiveness in comparison with other units of this synonymic group. Thus they differ in the emotive connotational subcomponent. Besides such units as “kick the bucket” (jargon), “be (go) up the flume” (American colloquial), “go west” (colloquial), “go hence”, “go beyond the veil”, etc. differs in their stylistic reference. So such phraseological euphemisms belong to the group of stylistic-ideographic synonyms.

A very good way to see the difference between the three groups of phraseological synonyms is to see the behaviour of PEs belonging to different groups in context:

*‘You think I’m going to **join the majority**.’ ‘...Well, put it that way if you like.’*

(J.Galsworthy. “Caravan”, “A Stoic”).

*About one year after his wife’s death Mr.Pontifex also **was gathered to his fathers**.*

(S.Butler. “The Way of All Flesh”).

There is a very interesting illustration of several PEs belonging to this group used in one and the same context:

*‘You see, one of the boys **has gone up the flume**’ – ‘Gone where?’ ‘**Up the flume – thrown up the sponge**, you understand.’ ‘**Thrown up the sponge?**’ ‘Yes, **kicked the bucket**’ – ‘Ah! Has departed to that mysterious country **from whose bourne no traveler returns**.’ ‘Return! I reckon not. Why, pard, he’s dead.’*

(M.Twain. “The Innocents at Home”).

The analysis of phraseological synonymic euphemisms with the meaning “to die” has shown that the synonymic group consists of different groups of synonyms: equivalent, stylistic and stylistic-ideographic. They describe the same event with the help of different images on which the PEs are based. A rather large number of PEs of this group shows us the importance of phraseological euphemisms used to satisfy the need to soften such painful news as somebody’s death.

GLOSSARY:

Euphemisms, phraseological - According to the point of view of modern linguists they express notions which are considered inappropriate or rude. The image on which they are based is not rough or unpleasant.

Ameliorative language evaluation - Making of a bad judgement about the amount, number, or value of something; negative assessment.

Extralinguistic - Not involving or beyond the bounds of language

Denomination - A particular denomination is a particular religious group which has slightly different beliefs from other groups within the same faith.

Human vices - immoral or wicked behavior; criminal activities involving prostitution, pornography, or drugs; [count noun] an immoral or wicked personal characteristic; [count noun] a weakness of character or behaviour; a bad habit.

Pervasiveness -(especially of an unwelcome influence or physical effect) spreading widely throughout an area or a group of people; Something, especially something bad, that is pervasive is present or felt throughout a place or thing.

Indecent - 1) Not conforming with generally accepted standards of behaviour, especially in relation to sexual matters indecent acts; 2) Not appropriate or fitting.

Concept - an abstract idea; an idea or mental image which corresponds to some distinct entity or class of entities, or to its essential features, or determines the application of a term (especially a predicate), and thus plays a part in the use of reason or language

SYSTEMATIC GUIDANCE FOR STUDENTS:

Revise all the material studied at the lectures and seminars and complete the suggested test.

Control Test.

VII. SEMINARS:

SEMINAR 1.

SYSTEMATIC GUIDENCE FOR STUDENTS:

I. Working with lecture 1:

1. Before reading the lecture you should study and learn the Glossary, recommended for this part. Try to remember the translation and interpretation of suitable terminology and phraseological combinations that are needed for comprehension of Lecture 1.

2. Read Lecture 1 and answer the attached questions. In case if you need more information **Practical work:**, use the recommended literature.

II. Practical work:

1. Study all the points for seminars. Make abstracts for every point.

2. After thorough studying of the material of Lecture 1 you are to complete the multiple choice test.

I. Theoretical part:

1. What's Phraseology? Give the definition of Phraseology as a science.
2. Distinctive features of Phraseological units.
3. Different types of classifications of Phraseological units.
4. Proverbs and Sayings as a part of Phraseology.
5. Identification of Phraseological units in the texts in English and in Russian, evaluation of their status.
6. Etymological characteristics of Phraseological units. Work with Phraseological dictionaries.

II. Practical tasks:

1. What is the subject of phraseology?
 - a) fixed collocations together with free ones
 - b) functionally and semantically inseparable word-groups
 - c) syntagm denoting one idea
2. Which Russian scientist was the first to study word-groups on a scientific level?
 - a) V.V. Vinogradov
 - b) A.A. Schachmatov
 - c) A.V.Kunin
3. Who was the first linguist to initiate investigations of English phraseology in our country?
 - a) V.V. Vinogradov
 - b) A.V. Kunin
 - c) E. Nida
4. What is not a feature of a phraseological unit?
 - a) stability

- b) semantic inseparability
 - c) functional variability
5. Which feature of the notion makes the basic criterion of differentiation a set phrase?
- a) stability
 - b) semantic inseparability
 - c) functional inseparability
6. Which criterion lays in basis of differentiation of an idiom?
- a) stability
 - b) semantic inseparability
 - c) lack of motivation
7. What does the term word-equivalent stress?
- a) stability
 - b) semantic and functional inseparability
 - c) lack of motivation
8. Usually phraseological units are:
- a) newly-formed
 - b) ready-made
 - c) variable from case to case
9. The meaning of most phraseological units:
- a) can be easily deduced from the meanings of its components
 - b) cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components
 - c) can be regarded as sum of meanings
10. Completely non-motivated word-groups are called:
- a) phraseological collocations
 - b) phraseological fusions
 - c) phraseological unities
11. Partially motivated word-groups are called:
- a) phraseological collocations
 - b) phraseological fusions
 - c) phraseological unities
12. Motivated and partially variable word-groups are called:
- a) phraseological collocations
 - b) phraseological fusions
 - c) phraseological unities
13. Which linguist introduced the above classification?
- a) L. Bloomfield
 - b) V.V. Vinogradov
 - c) A.V. Kunin
14. Which feature of phraseological units is viewed interlingually, in comparison with similar units of other languages?
- a) stability

- b) variability
- c) idiomacity

15. Who introduced the functional approach to phraseological units?

- a) V. V. Vinogradov
- b) A. I. Smirnitsky
- c) A. V. Kunin

SEMINAR 2

SYSTEMATIC GUIDENCE FOR STUDENTS:

I. Working with lecture 2:

1. Before reading the lecture you should study and learn the Glossary, recommended for this part. Try to remember the translation and interpretation of suitable terminology and Phraseological combinations that are needed for comprehension of Lecture 2.

2. Read Lecture 2 and answer the attached questions. In case if you need more information, use the recommended literature.

II. Practical work

1. Study all the points for seminars. Make abstracts for every point.

2. It's necessary to study the material of Lecture 2, compare the usage, translation, application of English and Russian Phraseological word-combinations. And after that you are to test your knowledge of Phraseological units.

I. Theoretical part:

1. Etymology of Phraseological units. Native Phraseological Units of English. (distinguish and describe all the groups).

2. Borrowed Phraseological units of English (describe all the subgroups in detail).

3. Etymological peculiarities of Russian Phraseological units. a) Native Phraseological units (give the examples);

б) Borrowed Phraseological units (give the examples of Phraseological units).

4. Correlation of semantic structure of Phraseological units. Identification of Phraseological equivalents, analogy, correspondence.

II. Practical tasks:

I) Find the most exact Russian equivalent to English idiomatic one expression.

1) adropinthebucket

- a) кот в мешке
- b) капля в море
- c) белая ворона
- d) капля в ведре

2) **aflyintheointment**

- a) сыр в масле
- b) корова на льду
- c) ложка дёгтя в бочке мёда
- d) увязнуть в проблема

3) **carrycoalstoNewcastle**

- a) в Тулу со своим самоваром
- b) бросать слова на ветер
- c) брать на прицел
- d) вот где собака зарыта

4) **buyapiginapoke**

- a) вставляя палки в колёса
- b) бросать слова на ветер
- c) купить кота в мешке
- d) быть обманутым

5) **thickasblackberries**

- a) время от времени
- b) точить лясы
- c) хоть пруд пруди
- d) держать язык за зубами

6) **seetheelephant**

- a) признавать ошибки
- b) быстро разбогатеть
- c) приобрести жизненный опыт
- d) идти в ногу

II) **Match the compound and its meaning:**

1. cocktail	a) pictures of strong muscular men, especially as used in advertisements or sex magazines
2. ducktail	b) a smartweed having pink or purplish flowers shaped leaves with a spot resembling a thumbprint
3. cheesecake	c) a kind of small shark
4. rosetfish	d) an alcoholic drink consisting of a spirit or spirits mixed with fruit juice
5. beefcake	e) a male hairstyle, in which the hair is slicked back on both sides to overlap at the back of the head
6. befeater	f) a type of wild or garden orchid with a flower shaped like a pouch
7. ladyfinger	g) a small thin sponge cake
8. lady's – slipper	h) a long thin green vegetable from southern countries
9. lady's – thumb	i) a wild rose having pink or white flowers
10 dogrose	j) a yeoman of the English royal guard or a warder of

III) Guess the meaning of the following expressions:

the voice of one man is the voice of no one -

in private –

if at first you don't succeed -

God only knows! -

white elephant -

SEMINAR 3**SYSTEMATIC GUIDANCE FOR STUDENTS:****I. Working with lecture 3:**

1. *Before reading the lecture you should study and learn the Glossary, recommended for this part. Try to remember the translation and interpretation of suitable terminology and Phraseological combinations that are needed for comprehension of Lecture 3.*

2. *Read Lecture 3 and answer the attached questions. In case if you need more information, use the recommended literature.*

II. Practical work

1. *Study all the points for seminars. Make abstracts for every point.*

2. *Work with the passage from the novel "A perfect woman" (by L. P. Hartley):*

a) *read the passage, translate it;*

b) *find the following phraseological word-combinations in the passage, try to understand the difference between the given synonyms and antonyms;c) make up sentences with all word-combinations; d) Retell and analyze the passage from the novel "A perfect woman" (by L. P. Hartley).*

I. Theoretical part:

1. *Connotation of Phraseological units. Different types of evaluative connotation.*

2. *Phraseological synonyms. Types of Phraseological synonyms.*

3. *Phraseological antonyms. Types of Phraseological antonyms.*

4. *Identification of Phraseological synonyms and antonyms. Work with texts and dictionaries.*

II. Practical tasks:

1. **Work with the passage from the novel "A perfect woman" (by L. P. Hartley)**

It was the second summer of the war. Isabel was nearly nineteen, and longing to be called up for service. But her father had unexpectedly put his foot down. The war had been for him an experience of unmitigated horror. His saintliness was founded on an unquestioning belief in the goodness of

human nature. Without that belief it couldn't function, and he became, in fact, though not in name, a pacifist.

Isabel did not notice how withdrawn he had become, for he was always withdrawn, it was a mark of his saintliness; so she was utterly taken by surprise when her mother told her that he could not bear the thought of her putting on a uniform.

"He thinks he'll lose you if you do," she said.

Isabel couldn't help laughing. "Lose me!" she blurted out. "Why, he's never found me!"

"Don't talk like that," said her mother sharply, and Isabel at once apologized for a remark which would have seemed funnier at school than it did in the home circle. Then her mother told her of the effect the war had had on her father: how he could no longer take interest in his hobbies, bird-watching and stamp-collecting. Worst of all, from the professional point of view, he couldn't bring himself to preach about the war. The parish waited in vain for a lead from its Rector.

It was the first time that Mr. Knighton had interfered with anything Isabel wanted to do, or with anything her mother wanted her to do: but Mrs. Knighton was determined that his wishes would be respected. Unwillingly, Isabel complied. Mrs. Knighton pulled strings; the school authorities, raising their eyebrows at the idea of a girl with Isabel's record seeking exemption from service (a bitter pill for her to swallow), also pulled them; and that was how Isabel came to find herself enrolled in one of the Ministries as a very junior civil servant.

At first she felt hopelessly at sea,

a) read and translate the given passage;

b) find the following phraseological word-combinations in the passage, try to understand the difference between the given synonyms and antonyms:

1) put one's foot down

take a stand against

set one's face against

2) takesmb. by surprise

catchsmb. napping

takesmb. unawares

take aback

knock down with a feather

3) have/give an effect on

leave no effect

make/produce an impression

have/give/produce an effect, produce an impression

4) in vain

to no purpose to some purpose

1. To watch and listen to the song and video: Animal Idioms (video is in attachment).

2. Listening to the prepared report:

Phraseological units and idioms connected with the names of animals Phraseology as a complex area of the linguistic system is a developing field of research and has attracted interest from many sides.

The linguistic attention has been paid to the semantic, syntactic and textual properties of phraseological units, to different approaches of their synchronic and diachronic description, and to cultural specificity. Phraseology is a study of set or fixed expressions, such as idioms, phrasal verbs, and other types of multi-word lexical units, in which the component parts of the expression take on a meaning more specific than or otherwise not predictable from the sum of their meanings when used independently. Animal component serves to highlight entities that play a role in people's daily life, and to establish and maintain an individuality in society. Object of analysis of onomastics, animal component have been investigated by philosophers, logicians, anthropologists and psychologists, but only sporadically by linguists: e.g. with different approaches and concerns. There are a great number of animal component in English phraseological units because of their great importance in human communication, where they are signs of cultural, linguistic, geographical, ethnic and social identity. Their analysis can offer an insight into the interplay between language and culture in phraseology.

Different methods of investigation were used in the research. Among them are the next: general research methods (analysis, comparison, classification, systematization) and translational research methods (semantic, communicative).

The study data is formed by phraseological units with animal component which reveals analogies and similarities between objects subject (animal) world and "nepredmetnoho" world of human feelings and emotions. The material was selected from dictionaries and phraseological English dictionaries such as Oxford Dictionary of Idioms, Longman Dictionary of English Idioms and others.

First of all, the role of phraseology is invaluable. It expresses emotions, depicts the culture, traditions and history of a nation. That is why so many scientists and linguists pay attention to this sphere of linguistics. Secondly, there are different points of view about what phraseological unit is and how to differentiate and classify them. For example, according to Vinogradov, there are phraseological combinations, unities and fusions; Koonin's classification is based on the combined structural - semantic principle and so on. Thirdly, there are several ways of translation English phraseological units such as translation by phraseological equivalents, analog. These

methods are the best but their quantity is limited. So translator may use other methods of translation like calking (literal translation), descriptive translation and contextual replacement. The choice of the method depends on the context, target group and also the subjective features of translator.

In English there are many words and phrases in which the names of the animals are metaphorically used to denote human qualities, in this case we observe resemblance of qualities of animals and people, e.g.: *a bear - a surly person; cat, sheep, snake, lion, monkey, parrot, goose, duck*, etc. Horse is used as a kind of prefix to indicate size or coarseness: *horse-laugh - a loud laugh*; cf. Russian - *ржание, horse-play - грубоеразвлечение, игра, horse-sense - грубоватый, здравый смысл*. A few verbs belong to this class of animal names: *to ape, to monkey - to imitate; to rat - to desert smb. in difficulty*. There is a great many of idiomatic phrases containing the names of animals, insects, birds, etc.: *it rains cats and dogs; to flog a dead horse; dog-cheap; to have a bee in one's bonnet*.

The names of different animals are commonly used to mean their furs and sometimes - *meat: fox, rabbit, hare, sable, tiger*, etc. Names of different organs can be used metonymically: *lend me your ears! - послушайте меня! head - голова, начальник; he has a good eye for old books - наметанный глаз; brain - мозг, голова (ум!)*.

3. Study the following idioms:

Dog Idioms

A dog's life – прозябание;

To work like a dog – многиусерднотрудиться;

In the doghouse – внемилости;

To treat someone like a dog – плохоскем-либообращаться;

The dog days – оченьжаркиедни;

To sleep like a dog – крепкоспать;

The hair of the dog — спиртное, оставленное на опохмелку;

To make a dog's dinner of something — несправитьсясзадачей, провалитьдело.

Horse Idioms.

A dark horse – малоизвестный кандидат;

A dead horse – исчерпаннаятема;

A horse opera- вестерн;

To hold one's horses – вести себя более сдержанно;

From the horse's mouth – из первых уст;

To back the wrong horse – поддерживать проигрывающего;

A horse of a different colour – совсем другое дело;

To eat like a horse – очень много есть;

To work like a horse – много работать;

To play the horses – играть на скачках;

To put the cart before the horse – спешить, делать в неверном порядке;
To flog a dead horse – делать безрезультатно, тратить силы зря.

Bull Idioms.

Like a bull in a china shop – неуклюже, неповоротливо;
A cock-and-bull story – сказка про белого бычка, байка;
To hit\score the bull's eye – попасть точно в цель;
Bullhead – тупица, болван;
Bull session – мужские беседы, разговоры;
To take the bull by the horns – смело приступить к делу.

Cat Idioms

Enough to make a cat laugh – очень смешно;
To let the cat out of the bag – раскрыть все секреты;
To rain cats and dogs – ливень;
To lead a cat and dog life – постоянно ссориться, враждовать;
To turn cat in the pan – стать перебежчиком;
To fight like Kilkenny cats – драться до конца, до взаимного уничтожения;
Barber's cat- трепло;
There isn't enough room to swing a cat – маломеста;
To put a cat among the pigeons – устроить панику, пустить лису в курятник;

That cat won't jump- этот номер не пройдет.

Sheep Idioms

The black sheep – изгой, тот, кого не любят, презирают;
To follow like sheep – слепо следовать;
To cast/ make sheep's eyes at smb. – бросать влюбленные взгляды;
as silly as a sheep – очень глупый.

Ox Idioms

As strong as an ox – очень сильный;
as patient as an ox – очень терпеливый;
The black ox – старость, несчастье.

Pig Idioms

To buy a pig in a poke – купитькота в мешке;
Pigheaded – упрямый;
To pig out – наедаться;
Pigs might fly – И чего только не случается!
To make a pig's ear of something – делать что-то очень плохо, неумело.

Goat Idioms

To get smb.'s goat – раздражать, злить;
as stubborn as a goat – очень упрямый;
to act/ play the giddy goat – валять дурака, вести себя глупо.

Rat Idioms

Aratrace – аврал, напряженная работа, огромная конкуренция;

To smell a rat – заподозрить неладное;

To have rats in the attic – быть невсвоемуме;

Wet like a drowned rat – насквозь промокший.

Hare Idioms

To kiss the hare's foot – опаздывать;

(as) fast as a hare – быстро и трусливо убежать;

(as) mad as a March hare – совершенно безумный;

(as) timid as a hare – робкий, стеснительный.

Wolf Idioms

To cry wolf – поднимать ложную тревогу;

To keep the wolf from the door – бороться с нищетой;

To have/ hold the wolf by the ears –

находиться в безвыходном положении;

To wolf down – есть жадностью;

Wolf whistle – восхищенный свист привиде красивой женщины.

Bear idioms

To play the bear – вести себя грубо;

As cross/surly/sulky as a bear – очень злой;

Bear garden – шумное сборище.

Monkey Idioms

To put smb.'s monkey up – разозлить;

To have a monkey in the back – быть на рожонкоманом;

To make a monkey of – сделать посмешищем;

Monkey business – бессмысленная работа, валяние дурака;

Monkey tricks – проказы, шалости.

Camel Idioms

The straw that broke the camel's back – последняя капля.

Tiger Idioms

To fight like a tiger – отважно сражаться;

A rapertiger – нечто, что представляет только кажущуюся угрозу;

(as) fierce as a tiger – свирепый.

Elephant Idioms

White elephant – обременительное или разорительное имущество;

To have a memory like an elephant – иметь уникальную память, помнить все;

To see/ to get a look at the elephant – познать жизнь, набраться опыта.

Lion Idioms

To gird one's lions – тщательно подготовиться;

(as) bold/brave as a lion – очень храбрый;

To roar like a lion – громко реветь кричать;

To show / see the lions – показывать / осматривать
достопримечательности;

To put one's head in the lion's mouth – рискованно,
поступать опрометчиво;

Lion's share – большая часть; Lion in the path/way –
опасное препятствие.

Fox idiom (as) sly as a fox – очень хитрый

4. Watch the prepared presentation: Phraseological units connected with the names of animals and to do the test (video is in attachment).

SEMINAR 5

SYSTEMATIC GUIDANCE FOR STUDENTS:

I. Working with lecture 5:

1. Before reading the lecture you should study and learn the Glossary, recommended for this part. Try to remember the translation and interpretation of suitable terminology and Phraseological combinations that are needed for comprehension of Lecture 5.

2. Read Lecture 5 and answer the attached questions. In case if you need more information, use the recommended literature.

II. Practical work:

1. Study all the points for seminars. Make abstracts for every point.

2. Listen and watch the video and try to guess the meaning of some idioms.

3. Read the texts, prepare them for retelling, and let other students guess what phraseological units are spoken about.

I. Theoretical part:

1. The use of phraseological units in discourse or the contextual use of phraseological units.

2. Types of extended phraseological metaphor.

3. Punning is one of the stylistic devices. Interaction of Phraseological unit with the corresponding free word group.

4. Ways of creating conditions for cleft use of phraseological units.

5. Identification of phraseological transformations in the text.

Differences in usage of Phraseological units in English and Russian.

II. Practical tasks:

1. Listen and watch the video and try to guess the meaning of some idioms (video is in attachment).

2. Read these texts:

a) Prepare them for retelling.

b) Let other students guess what phraseological units are spoken about in them.

1. ADAM'S APPLE

Адамовояблоко

Adam's apple is the name given to the part that sticks out in the human throat. It moves up and down as the person speaks. The queer name began with the popular belief that a piece of the apple (the forbidden fruit) which Adam ate stuck in his throat, and made this curious swelling. It is really the front part, of the larynx, and appears in boys when they are in their teens. (*See also*: To eat of the tree of knowledge.)

2. AFTER US, THE DELUGE

Посленасхотьпотоп

After us, the deluge, the translation of *Après nous, le deluge*, means 'I don't care what happens when I am dead and gone'. The saying is generally ascribed to Madame de Pompadour, the mistress of Louis XV. Some say that she made the remark to her lover when the latter was worried about the future of France after the defeat by Frederick the Great in 1757. According to others, Madame de Pompadour used the phrase to laugh off all the remonstrances of ministers at her extravagance. Some twelve years afterwards Metternich, the Austrian statesman, used the same words, meaning that after his death his state might go to the dogs for all he cared.

3. ALL ROADS LEAD TO ROME.

ВседорогиведутвРим

The words *All roads lead to Rome* mean there are many ways of accomplishing an end. It is a proverbial expression which probably originated when Rome was the chief city of the world. The words occur in one of the fables by La Fontaine, a famous French fabulist of the XVII century. The fable has it that three righteous men wished to earn their salvation. They decided to take different roads: one of them became a just lawyer, another, a conscientious physician, the third, a hermit; but as all roads lead to Rome, all the three hoped to reach their destination in the end.

4. THE APPLE OF DISCORD.

Яблокораздора

The phrase *the apple of discord* is used to denote a cause of dispute, a moot point. The allusion is to the Greek myth of the golden apple that the goddess of discord threw among the guests at the wedding of Thetis and Peleus, to which she had not been invited. The apple bore the inscription "for the fairest". Hera (Juno), Aphrodite (Venus) and Athena (Minerva) became competitors for it. Being unable to settle the point, they referred the question to Paris, a Trojan prince. Each of the three goddesses offered Paris a precious gift if he would award her the prize. Hera offered him a kingdom; Athena, great success in battle; Aphrodite said she would give him the most beautiful woman in the world for his wife. Paris chose Aphrodite as the fairest. This inflamed the jealousy and hatred of Hera and Athena to all the

Trojan race (to which Paris belonged), and resulted in the Trojan war and the fall of Troy. That night when standing by chance outside the chamber of her parents she heard for the first time their voices engaged in a sharp altercation.

The apple of discord had, indeed, been dropped into the house of the Millburn's.

5. IN THE ARMS OF MORPHEUS.

Вобъятях Морфея

In classical mythology, Morpheus was the god of dreams and the son of Hypnos, the god of sleep. He is generally represented as an old man, wearing wings, and surrounded by poppies, his favourite flowers, because poppies induce dreams. *To be in the arms of M Orpheus* is to be asleep or dreaming. The phrase often occurs in classical poetry. In modern speech it is used only ironically.

6. THE AUGEAN STABLES.

Авгиевы конюшни

In modern speech the Augean stables are a symbol of worthless lumber a reformer must sweep away before his work can begin. The phrase *to cleanse the Augean stables* means to bring about a drastic reform in some (usually public) evil. It comes from Greek mythology.

Augeas, a fabled king of Elis, in Greece, was the owner of some 3,000 beautiful oxen; the animals, however, were so wild that their stalls had not been cleaned once in thirty years. The stables were in a terrible state of filth. The task of cleansing them was assigned to Hercules, the popular hero of ancient Greek legends, who easily effected it by breaking down a part of the wall, and turning through the stables two rivers that flowed close by, thus washing out thoroughly the horrible mire and filth within. Performing the task was one of the twelve labours of Hercules.

7. A BLUE BEARD (Blue beard)

Синяя борода

Blue Beard is a brutal husband, a merciless tyrant. It is the name of a character in a popular tale

included in the collection by Charles Perrault, first printed in 1697 as *Other Goose's Tales*,

The main character of Perrault's story is a rich castle lord. Soon after his marriage he goes away. His young wife is entrusted with all the keys of the castle, but is forbidden on pain of death to open one special room. During the absence of her lord the 'forbidden fruit' is too tempting to be resisted, the door is opened, and the young wife finds the floor covered with the dead bodies of her husband's former wives. In terror she drops the key, which becomes indelibly stained with blood. Blue Beard, on his return, discovers that his wife has disobeyed him and threatens to cut off her head. But her

brothers arrive in the nick of time, save their sister's life and put Blue Beard to death.

8. A BLUE STOCKING.

Синий чулок

A *blue stocking* is used to describe a woman having or affecting literary tastes and learning. The term comes from the Blue Stocking Society, a name given in 18th century to the evening parties at the houses of Mrs. Montagu, an English letter-writer and traveller, and the ladies of her circle. These women attempted to substitute for card-playing, which then formed the principal recreation, more intellectual modes of spending the time, including conversations on literary subjects in which eminent men of letters and science often took part. The meetings were nicknamed Blue Stocking Society, from the fact that the men attending might wear the blue worsted stockings of ordinary day-time dress instead of the black silk of evening.

Now a blue stocking is a derisive nickname for a learned and very studious woman, a female pedant.

9. THE BONDS (TIES) OF HYMEN. (Bonds of marriage).

Узы Гименя

In Greek and Roman mythology, Hymen is the name of the god of marriage (the word itself means in Greek 'a wedding hymn'). The expression *the bonds (ties) of Hymen* is the synonym for marriage. The common legend is that Hymen is the *son* of Apollo. No marriage took place without his sanctioning it. He was pictured by the ancients as a handsome youth crowned with flowers, holding in one hand the flame-coloured nuptial veil destined to cover the bride, and in the other the nuptial torch.

10. TO BURN ONE'S BOATS.

Сжечь (свои) корабли

The phrase to *burn one's boats* means to destroy (or cut oneself off from) one's means of escape, to act so that there can be no question of retreat. The ancient Greeks and Romans sometimes set fire to their boats when they invaded a foreign country. By destroying their means of retreat they strengthened their courage for the assault. Armies were encouraged in this manner by Agathocles, tyrant of Syracuse, in his expedition against Carthage, North Africa (310—307 B. C.); by the Emperor Julian in his expedition against Persia (363 B. C.), etc.

He thought of his past, its cold splendour and insouciance. But he knew that for him there was no returning. His boats were burnt.

11. TO BURY ONE'S TALENT.

Зарыть талант в землю

A talent was an ancient monetary unit, a gold or silver coin. The phrase to *bury one's talent* is taken from a Gospel parable. A slave buried in the ground the money (a talent) given to him by his master. When the man

returned and asked the slave what he had done with the money, the latter replied that he had hidden the talent in the ground and had it quite safe. The master reproached his slave for being lazy, adding that he could have lent the money to the traders and

thus have made more money.

In the course of time the word talent changed its meaning and came to denote the natural endowments of man. To bury one's *talent means to disregard one's* abilities and gifts, to make no use of them.

He considered that it was not at all a proper place for me and declared that I should be foolish in the extreme to bury myself and, he added, my talents, in a remote West Highland glen.

12. CAESAR'S WIFE.

Жена Цезаря

The words *Caesar's wife* are used to describe a person on whom even the shadow of suspicion must not be allowed to fall.

Julius Caesar divorced his wife on the strength of a rumour: her name was often mentioned whenever people talked about one of his men. He did not take the trouble to enquire into the matter and establish the correctness of the accusation. As Caesar's own reputation in matters of morality was not above reproach, someone asked him why he had divorced his wife on a mere suspicion. His reply was that it did not matter for Caesar himself, but a woman who got herself talked about was not fit to be Caesar's wife; Caesar's wife must be above all suspicion.

This is a Trust Fund. Anything that it supports must be Caesar's wife. We both know that there are some damn good unqualified people in this job. But there are a lot of shockers too.

It mattered little if a King's passions ran away with him, but a Queen, like Caesar's wife, had to be above suspicion.

13. TO CAST PEARLS BEFORE SWINE.

Метать бисер перед свиньями

The Gospel expression *to cast pearls before swine* means to do, to offer, or to give something good to someone who is incapable of appreciating it, or who may defile or abuse it. The phrase comes from the Sermon on the Mount: "Give not that which is holy unto the dogs, neither cast ye your pearls before swine, lest they trample them under their feet."

I don't think I could confess to a little man in thick glasses. Pearls before swine.

14. CROCODILE TEARS.

Крокодиловы слезы

Crocodile tears are hypocritical tears or a hypocritical show of grief. The phrase is applied to a person who falsely puts on an appearance of grief. The origin of the phrase was the fabulous belief that crocodiles wept in order to

attract their victims to the spot, or even shed tears over their prey while in the act of devouring it. In fact crocodiles do shed tears while swallowing their prey, but they do it for purely biological reasons.

15. A DEADLY SIN.

Смертный грех

The phrase *a deadly sin* arose from the Gospel. In scholastic teaching systematized by Thomas Aquinas a deadly sin was classified as a serious transgression of the divine law, committed with deliberation, and giving rise to others. There was no way of redeeming a deadly sin, and the sinner was caused to suffer perpetual punishment for it. The traditional catalogue of the seven deadly sins was: pride, wrath, avarice, envy, idleness, lust and gluttony, the latter usually included drunkenness. In the course of time, however, the phrase lost its religious significance and came to be used ironically to denote a moral offence.

16. A DOG IN THE MANGER.

Собака на сене

The metaphor *a dog in the manger* is used to describe a churlish person who refuses to let another enjoy what he himself has no use for. The allusion is to Aesop's well-known fable of the dog that, though it had no use for the hay in the manger, growled at the horses and would not let them eat it.

There you are; the dog in the manger! You won't let him discuss your affairs, and you are annoyed when he talks about his own.

17. DOUBTING THOMAS.

Фома неверный (неверующий)

The phrase *a doubting Thomas* denotes a skeptic, a person who is not easy to convince. The story of the doubting Thomas appears, in the Gospel. Thomas, one of the Twelve Apostles, doubted the fact of the resurrection of Christ after the crucifixion. When told about it by Christ's disciples, he said to them: "Except I shall see in his hands the print of the nails, and put my finger into the print of the nails, and thrust my hand into his side, I will not believe!"

18. THE FORBIDDEN FRUIT.

Запретный плод

The phrase *the forbidden fruit* denotes anything coveted because it is prohibited or unattainable. It is an allusion to the fall of Adam and Eve in defiance of God's command in the Garden of Eden. (See: **To eat of the tree of knowledge**).

19. THE HEEL OF ACHILLES.

Ахиллесова пята

(A chilles' heel)

The phrase *the heel of Achilles* is used to describe a weak or vulnerable spot. The metaphor is drawn from mythology. Achilles, the hero of Homer's

epic poem the *Iliad* was the most famous of the Greek heroes in the Trojan War. According to the post-Homer legend, related by a Roman write, Thetis, the mother of Achilles knew of the prophecy that her son would become one of the most celebrated heroes, but was warned that he would be killed during the siege of Troy. So she tried to make Achilles invulnerable by dipping him in the river Styx, and succeeded except that the heel by which she held him, not being immersed, remained vulnerable.

In the Trojan War, Achilles was wounded by an arrow in this spot by Paris, and died of the wound.

20. THE HUB OF THE UNIVERSE.

Пупземли

The hub of the Universe is used to denote a city or any centre considered by its inhabitants to be of great importance. It is also said, ironically, of a man who imagines himself the central figure in a group or enterprise. The metaphor is derived from the Talmudic concept of the structure of the universe: the centre of Jerusalem is the temple, the centre of the temple — the Holy of Holies and the centre of that — the sacred stone, the hub of the universe. According to the legend, it was the first stone with which God began creating the world.

The hub in its literal meaning is the central part of the wheel rotating on the axle, from which the spokes radiate.

SEMINAR 6

SYSTEMATIC GUIDANCE FOR STUDENTS:

I. Working with lecture 6:

1. Before reading the lecture you should study and learn the Glossary, recommended for this part. Try to remember the translation and interpretation of suitable terminology and Phraseological combinations that are needed for comprehension of Lecture 6.

2. Read Lecture 6 and answer the attached questions. In case if you need more information, use the recommended literature.

II. Practical work:

1. Study all the points for seminars. Make abstracts for every point.
2. Watch the video and guess the meaning of the used idioms.
3. Revise the material studied and do the Test.

I. Theoretical part:

1. The role of phraseological allusion in the text.
2. What form of cohesion can produce the phraseological reiteration?
3. What for is phraseological saturation used in the text?

II. Watch the Video and guess the meaning of the following idioms (video is in attachment).

III. Practical tasks: Do the Test.

1. The term “phraseology” was introduced by

A. V. Vinogradov

B. Charles Bally

C. N. Amosova

D. A. Koonin

2. A phraseological unit is characterized by, stability (lexical and grammatical), expressivity and emotiveness.

A. integrity of meaning

B. identity of meaning

C. distinctive features

D. extensive features

3 Integrity of meaning is typical of

A. unities

B. idioms

C. phraseological combinations
combinations

D. variable word-

4. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units is based on _____

A. etymology

B. semasiology

C. semantic integrity

D. structure

5. Prof. Koonin offered a detailed
phraseological units.

classification of

A. structural

B. etymological

C. logical

D. historical

6. A profound study of English phraseology has been undertaken by _____

A. Galperin

B. Koonin

C. Bloch

D. Mokienko

7. Grammatical variant of the phraseological unit "as safe as a house" is _____

A. as safe as a castle

B. as safe as houses

C. as safe as homes

D. safe as houses

8. The phraseological unit "a bull in a china shop" is _____ .

A. nominative-communicative

B. interjectional

C. communicative

D. nominative

9. Prof. Amosova thinks that to

phraseology.

A. only idioms belong

only proverbs belong

C. only sayings belong

D. proverbs and sayings

don't belong

10. A part-of-speech classification of phraseological units was offered by

A. Prof. Arnold

B. Prof. Shansky

C. Prof. Galperin

D. Prof. Cherkasskaya

11. Etymological classification of phraseological units was offered by _____

A. L. Smith

B. Arnold

C. U. Weinreich

D. I. Haugen

12. The phraseological unit "a black sheep" is _____ .

A. native

B. borrowed from the Bible

C. borrowed from mythology
Shakespeare's

D. borrowed from
works

13. The phraseological unit "eat smb. out of house and home

“is _____

A. borrowed from mythology
Shakespeare

B. borrowed from

C. borrowed from the Bible
French _____

D. borrowed from

14. The phraseological unit “cast pearls before swine” is _____

A. borrowed from mythology

B. borrowed from the Bible

C. native

D. borrowed from Latin

15. The phraseological unit “the thread of Ariadna” is _____

A. borrowed from French

B. borrowed from Latin

C. borrowed from mythology

D. native

16. Choose the right idiom for translation of the sentence:

Прокурор мечет в него гром и молнии.

A. to foam at the mouth

B. to go off the deep end

about smth.

C. to hurl thunderbolts at smb (smth)

D. to blow one’s top

17. Choose the right idiom: He can’t help his feelings, his love is stronger than his will and I naturally advised him _____

A. to pull himself together

B. to take himself in hands

C. to hold himself in hands

D. to keep a hold on himself

18. Three types of phraseological synonyms are: ideographic, stylistic and _____

A. logical

B. stylistic-ideographic

C. contrastive

D. connotational

19. Idioms “go to one’s last home” and “kick the bucket” are _____

A. phraseological antonyms

B. stylistic synonyms

C. ideographic synonyms

D. phraseological variants

20. A specific case of wordplay which lies in the relation between the PU and the corresponding free combination of words is called _____

A. pun

B. cleft

C. deletion

D. permutation

21. _____ is the use of two PUs running close to each other, complementing the _____ image and creating phraseological space.

A. phraseological reiteration

B. phraseological saturation

C. phraseological allusion

D. phraseological pun

22. Give English equivalent for the Russian: покупать когавмешке.

A. to buy a cat in a bag

B. to buy a pig in a poke

C. to throw money to the wind

C. to make the money fly

23. Give English Equivalent for the Russian: иметь зубна...

A. To have a tooth against

B. to have teeth against

“Has Phuong forgotten something?”

“Oh no, but Joe told me you’d been to the Legation.

I thought it would be easier to talk here.”

“What about?”

He gave a lost gesture, like a boy put up to speak at some school function who cannot find the grown up words. “You’ve been away?”

“Yes. And you?”

“Oh, I’ve been travelling around.”

“Still playing with plastics?”

He grinned unhappily. He said, “Your letters are over there.”

I could see at a glance there was nothing which could interest me now: there was one from my office:in London and several that looked like bills, and one from my bank.

I said, “How’s Phuong?”

His face lit up automatically like one of those electric toys which respond to a particular sound. “Oh, she’s fine,” he said, and then clamped his lips together as though he had gone too far.

“Sit down, Pyle,” I said. “Excuse me while I look at this. It’s from my office.”

I opened it. How inopportunistically the unexpected can occur. The editor wrote that he had considered my last letter and that in view of the confused situation in Indo- China, following the death of General de Lattre and the retreat from HoaBinh, he was in agreement with my suggestion. He had appointed a temporary foreign editor and would like me to stay on in Indo-China for at least another year. “We shall keep the chair warm for you,” he reassured me with complete incomprehension. He believed I cared about the job, and the paper.

I sat down opposite Pyle and re-read the letter, which’ had come too late. For a moment I had felt elation as on the instant of waking before one remembers.

“Bad news?” Pyle asked.

“No,” I told myself that it wouldn’t have made any difference anyway: a reprieve for one year couldn’t stand up against a marriage settlement.

“Are you married yet?” I asked.

“No,” he blushed — he had a great faculty in blushing. “As a matter of fact I’m going to get special leave. Then we could get married at home — properly.”

“Is it more proper when it happens at home?”

“Well, I thought — it’s difficult to say these things to you, you are so darned cynical, Thomas, but it’s a mark of respect. My father and mother would be there — she’d kind of enter the family. It’s important in view of the past.” “The past?”

“You know what I mean. I wouldn’t want to leave her behind there with any stigma...”

“Would you leave her behind?”

“I guess so. My mother’s a wonderful woman — she’d take her around, -introduce her, you know, kind of fit her in. She’d help to get a home ready for me.”

I didn’t know whether to feel sorry for Phuong or not — she had looked forward so to the skyscrapers and the Statue of Liberty.

a) read and translate the given passage;

b) find the following phraseological word-combinations in the passage, try to understand the difference between the given synonyms and antonyms:

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| 1) at a glance | on second thoughts |
| at first sight | on the face of it |
| 2) at (the) least | at (the) most |
| 3) as a matter of fact | in fact |
| in point of fact | in actuality |
| in actual fact | in effect |

4) get married

take for better for worse

5) look forward to

set one’s heart on

lay one’s account on (with)

c) make up sentences with all word-combinations.

d) Retell and analyze the passage from the novel “The Quiet American” by G. Green.

SEMINAR 8

SYSTEMATIC GUIDANCE FOR STUDENTS:

I. Listening to the prepared report: Translating Idioms.

II. Practical work:

1) Watch video 1 and 2. Guess the meaning of the used idioms;

2) Watch the presentation and do the test.

I. Theoretical part:

1. Listening to the prepared report: Translating Idioms.

1) Phraseological equivalents or mono equivalents when only one variant is possible. It happens when PUs correspond semantically, lexically and grammatically, their connotations also correspond: “time is money” – “время деньги”, “the salt of the earth” – “соль земли”, “to kill the time” – “убить время”, “strike while the iron is hot” – “куй железо, пока горячо”, “as cold as ice” – “холодный, как лед”.

Among equivalents we may distinguish **comparative phraseological units**, such as:

“as cold as ice” – “холодный, каклед”,
“as sharp as a razor” – “острый, какбритва”,
“as cunning as a fox” – “хитрый, каклиса”;

proverbs:

“better late than never” – “лучшепоздно, чемникогда”,
“habit is a second nature” – “привычка – втораянатура”.

2) **Analogies** – phraseological units which have the same meaning but have different or close images:

“a drop in a bucket” – “каплявморе”,
“a fly in the ointment” – “ложкадегтявбочкемеда”,
“it is raining cats and dogs” – “леткаклизведра”.

3) **Descriptive translations** – when the original meaning is translated with the help of free word combinations, it is used when there is no equivalent in another language:

“torobPetertopayPaul” – “отдать одни долги и сделать новые”,
“to burn the candle on both ends” – “работатьсутрадовечера”.

4) **Usage of Antonymous constructions** – when negative meaning is translated with the help of positive word-combinations or vice versa

to keep one’s head – *не потерятьголову*
to keep one’s head above water – *невлезатьвдолги*

5) **Translation loanwords** when there are equivalents, but they have different images, which is important for understanding the text.

It is often used if there are metaphors, puns, phraseol. synonyms.

The moon is not seen when the sun shines (proverb) - *когдасветитсолнце, луныневидно.*

6) **Word for word translation** – differs from loan translation, changes the meaning; it gives wrong ideas, for example: *Kill the goose that lay golden eggs* – *убитьгуся, несущегозолотыеяйца (вместоубитькурицу, несущуюзолотыеяйца)*. *Looknotagifthorseinthemouth* – *дареному коню не смотри в рот (вместо дареному коню в зубы не смотрят)*. *Somanupten, somanuminds* – *сколько людей, столько умов (сколько голов, столько умов)*.

These are examples of word-for-word lexical translation.

In some cases combined translations may be used.

II. Translation of lacuna phraseological units:

When there is no equivalent in another language:

1) with the help of translation **loan words**.

The old lady of Threadneedle Street (*старая леди с Треднидл стрит* – об английском банке. Remarks may help to understand the translation: Threadneedle Street – a street where the oldest bank of England is situated.

2) emotive evaluation conveys someone's positive or negative attitude to smb. or smth. It may also have and frequently has the ideological nature while reflecting the ideological stand of the information source either openly (linguistically) or pragmatically (extralinguistically).

3) From the view-point of its emotive evaluation a context may be either positive or negative, depending on the wish and will of the author.

4) There are two classes of phrases in the Russian and English language: expressive-and-emotive and expressive only.

The first contains either positive or negative emotive evaluation. Expressive phrases are not able to do it. They only help to make the emotive evaluation in the content more expressive.

5) The quality of a phrase's emotive and evaluative content is determined by its ability to be used either in positive context only, or in negative context only, or in both positive and negative context. A phrase can be either or negative.

For instance, the expressive-and-emotive phrase “*скатертьюдорога*” conveys negative overtones (скрытыенамеки, подтекст) in a contemporary speech. Its English counterpart (аналог) “*Good riddance*” conveys negative overtones, too.

II. Practical tasks:

1) **Watch video 1 and 2.** (video is in attachment).

2) **Guess the meaning of these idioms.**

3) **Watch the presentation and do the test at the end of it.** (presentation is in attachment).

SEMINAR 9

SYSTEMATIC GUIDENCE FOR STUDENTS:

Revise all the material studied at the lectures and seminars and complete the suggested Control Test.

TEST:

1. Which aspect cannot be referred to the notion idiomacity?

- a) semantic inseparability
- b) stylistic inseparability
- c) firm motivation

2. What kind of motivation can be traced in proverbs and sayings?

- a) they are non-motivated
- b) the meaning is based on metaphor
- c) the meaning is composed of the meanings of the parts

3. The contextual approach to phraseological units was for the first time used by:

- a) N. N. Amosova
- b) S1. Ulmann

- c) R. H. Robins
- 4. An essential feature of a phraseological unit is:
 - a) free context
 - b) fixed context
 - c) newly-created context
- 5. Traditional collocations (Smitnitsky's term) are characteristic of:
 - a) set expressions
 - b) word-groups with variable members
 - c) idioms
- 6. Two-member word-groups in which one of the members has specialized meaning dependent on the second component are called:
 - a) idioms
 - b) phraseological fusions
 - c) Phrasemes
- 7. Units characterized by idiomacity of the whole group are called:
 - a) idioms
 - b) phraseological fusions
 - c) phrasemes
- 8. Transformation of free word-groups into mood-forms is called:
 - a) lexicalization
 - b) grammar
 - c) idiomacity
- 9. Development of a word-group into a word-equivalent is called:
 - a) lexicalization
 - b) grammar
 - c) idiomacity
- 10. What happens to a word-group if one of its components drops out of the language altogether?
 - a) it is regarded as obsolete
 - b) it lacks motivation
 - c) it loses stability
- 11. What differs a set expression from a word?
 - a) it can be divided into separately structured elements
 - b) it can function without any context
 - c) it is not a bilateral unit
- 12. The set expression "in the course of" belong to:
 - a) interjectional phrases
 - b) conjunctional phrases
 - c) prepositional phrases
- 13. Which of the following features manifests itself in the phrase "safe and sound"?
 - a) imagery

- b) alliteration
- c) connotation

14. Which of the following features manifests itself in the phrase "high and dry"?

- a) rhyme
- b) rhythm
- c) alliteration

15. Which of the following features manifests itself in the phrase "for love or money"?

- a) metaphor
- b) contrast
- c) simile

16. Which of the following features does not manifest itself in the phrase "to kill or cure"?

- a) simile
- b) alliteration
- c) synonymy

17. Who introduced the following pattern of a set expression development "a free combination → a clearly motivated stereotyped metaphorical phrase → an idiom with lost motivation"?

- a) B. A. Larin
- b) Ch. Bally
- c) A.V. Kunin

18. Who gave the first definition to a phraseological unit?

- a) B. A. Larin
- b) Ch. Bally
- c) A.V. Kunin

19. Who classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed?

- a) B. A. Larin
- b) Ch. Bally
- c) A.V. Kunin

20. What is not a primary way of forming phraseological units?

- a) conversion
- b) transforming the meaning of a free word-group
- c) expressiveness

21. What is not a secondary way of forming phraseological units

- a) conversion
- b) analogy
- c) contrast
- d) expressiveness

22. Who elaborated the structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words?

- a) A.V. Kunin
- b) V.V. Vinogradov
- c) A. I. Smirnitsky

23. What is not a type of one-top phraseological units?

- a) attributive-nominal groups
- b) prepositional-nominal groups
- c) units of the type "to give up"

24. What is not a type of two-top phraseological units?

- a) attributive-nominal groups
- b) prepositional-nominal groups
- c) verb-nominal units

25. Who suggested the classification of phraseological units as parts of speech?

- a) I. V. Arnold
- b) A.V. Kunin
- c) A. I. Smirnitsky

26. Why do J. Casaris and N. N. Amosova exclude proverbs from the object of phraseology?

- a) proverbs do not possess all the characteristics of phraseological units
- b) proverbs are independent units of communication
- c) proverbs are not stable enough

27. Who divides the whole bulk of phraseological units into unities and combinations?

- a) A. I. Smirnitsky
- b) T. V. Stroyeva
- c) V.V. Vinogradov

28. A rigid and unchangeable phraseological unit is called:

- a) a phraseological unity
- b) a phraseological combination
- c) a fusion

29. Units revealing change of meaning only in one of the components are called

- a) a phraseological unity
- b) a phraseological combination
- c) a fusion

30. Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky considers a phraseological unit:

- a) similar to word
- b) different from word in its application
- c) not a unit of vocabulary

31. Who suggested three classes of phraseological units: traditional phrases, phraseological combinations and idioms?

- a) A. I. Smimitsky
- b) T. V. Stroyeva
- c) V.V. Vinogradov

32. A unit, the meaning of which can be derived from the meaning of the component parts is called:

- a) a traditional phrase
- b) a phraseological combination
- c) an idiom

33. A unit, whose metaphorical motivation has faded and which are emotionally and stylistically neutral are called:

- a) a traditional phrase
- b) a phraseological combination
- c) an idiom

34. Imaginative, emotional and stylistically colored units are called:

- a) a traditional phrase
- b) a phraseological combination
- c) an idiom

35. The unit "to wash one's dirty linen in public" refers to:

- a) a traditional phrase
- b) a phraseological combination
- c) an idiom

VIII. GLOSSARY

Additions - are not normally permitted within an idiom. But as with novel substitutions, language- users may introduce extraneous elements into idioms to make their message more precise.

Allusion, phraseological - an implicit mental reference to the image of a phraseological unit which is represented in discourse by one or more explicit image-bearing components, hinting at the image.

Borrowing - the act of adopting some aspect of one language into another. It may be lexical (the most obvious and common type of borrowing) but also syntactic, morphological or phonological. The latter types of borrowing require that some section of the population be in direct contact with the second language. Lexical borrowing can be due to written influence as with the English loanwords in Modern German yielding so-called 'cultural borrowings'. Borrowing is one of the chief means of expanding the vocabulary of a language.

Cleft use stipulates that the first part of the PU must be semantically and stylistically adequate in itself. It must be sufficient to generate a link to cross the gap. So the first part stands for the whole, which facilitates the retrieval of the phraseological image in the mind's eye of the reader or the interlocutor.

Collocations - Typical word combinations that regularly occur in English speech and writing are called collocations. In other words, collocations are those word combinations and short phrases which your English teacher asked you to memorize as examples of use when you studied new words. The verb "to collocate" has the following meanings: to place together, to arrange in proper order.

Connotation - Additional meaning which arises due to the associations a word has.

Deletion - a process common at all levels though different sorts of levels require other terms (e.g. Elision, contraction) be used to describe its effects: the absence of an element normally present.

Denotation - The relationship between a word and the non-linguistic, 'outside' world. For instance one could say that the denotation of *cup* is a small vessel-like object for holding beverages.

Description - (отлат. descriptio - описание) – a language construction used to replace a proper or common name of the subject.

Dictionary - A reference work which offers varied information — usually arranged in alphabetical order — about words in a language, such as their spelling, pronunciation, meaning and possibly historical origins, additional shades of meaning, typical combinations (collocations) and status.

Discourse analysis - The investigation of the structure and patterning of discourse. It contrasts explicitly with analyses of written language or of contrived examples in linguistic works.

Etymology - An area within historical linguistics which is concerned with the origin and development of the form and meaning of words and the relationship of both these aspects to each other.

Euphemisms, phraseological - according to the point of view of modern linguists they express notions which are considered inappropriate or rude. The image on which they are based is not rough or unpleasant.

Genetic classification - The arrangement of languages into groups on the basis of their historically recognisable relationships and not going on any similarity in structure.

Gradable - A reference to certain adjectives which can show a degree of a quality rather than presence or absence, for instance small is gradable as one can say 'quite small', 'fairly small'. This term contrasts explicitly with non-gradable.

Homonym - Any set of words which share their form but have different meanings, e.g. *bar* 'legal profession' and *bar* 'public house'. The formal similarity is an accident of phonological development and the forms do not share a common historical root, contrast this situation with that of *polysemy*.

Idiom - A set of words which always co-occur and where the meaning is not necessarily derived by concatenating the individual parts of the idiom, e.g. *to take coals to Newcastle* 'to do something entirely superfluous'.

Grammatical meaning - A type of meaning which is determined by the grammatical context in which a form occurs. Typical elements with grammatical meaning are prepositions, articles or conjunctions.

Lexical meaning - A type of meaning which is specifiable independently of other words or of grammatical context. The lexical meaning of *table* is 'a piece of furniture with a horizontal surface designed to be sat at'. The meaning of a word which is specifiable independently of other words — ultimately with reference to the non-linguistic world — and which is independent of the grammar of the language.

Metaphor - the transference of some quality of one object to another.

Extended phraseological metaphor - part of the writer's creative activity. It is characterized by pervasiveness, thus it is not a single metaphor, put a string of sub-images, creating associative metaphors, tied together covering an entire area of experience.

Passivization - a permissible transformation, which can be carried out on some idioms such as given above. Language-users may also sometimes reserve subject and object in order to create a foregrounded one-off variation of an idiom.

Permutations - The possibility of rearranging the words of an idiom as it is done in non-idiomatic constructions.

Pragmatics - The study of language in use in interpersonal communication. Apart from the purely linguistic approach there is a philosophical type of pragmatics, as developed in the late 19th century by American philosophers such as William James and Charles Peirce.

Phraseological - pertaining to phraseology; consisting of a peculiar form of words. This verbal or phraseological answer.

Phraseology - a representative part in the vocabulary of any language, which appears at the early stages of the development of the language. From the 18th century phraseological units were explained in different dictionaries and linguistic works. The term "Phraseology" was introduced by Charles Bally a Swiss scholar "over 80 years ago. He treated phraseology as a branch of stylistic.

Phraseological fusions - completely non-motivated word-groups. The meaning of the components has no connection at least synchronically with the meaning of the whole phrase. Idiomaticity (**complete** non-motivation) is combined with **complete** stability of the lexical components and complete grammatical structure of the fusion. Eg.: skeleton in the cupboard - семейная тайна at sixes and sevens - в беспорядке a mare's nest - вздор to talk through one's hat

Phraseological units - non-motivated (partially or completely) phrases that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units; the other important features of phraseological units are stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure.

Phraseological unities - partially non-motivated word-groups as their meaning can usually be understood (derived) through the **metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit**. They have comparatively high degree of lexical components and grammatical structure. There must be less than 2 notional words in metaphorical meanings.

Phraseological unities - can have homonymous free phrases, used in direct meanings. Eg.: to skate on thin ice —> to risk to play the first fiddle - * to play the first role as hungry as a wolf (a hunter) -* very hungry green light —> you may do what you can

Phraseological collocations - partially non-motivated but they are made up of words having special lexical valency (the power to combine with other words) which is marked by a **certain** degree of stability. In them variability of components is strictly limited. They differ from the phraseological unities by the fact that one of the components is used in its direct meaning, the other - in indirect meaning. Eg.: to break (Mt) a promise, a rule, news, silence to meet (Mt) demands, requirements, needs to fall (Mt) ill, in love, in despair

Phraseological antonyms – units which belong to the same part of speech but opposite in meaning.

Presupposition - Any information which is taken for granted in a discourse situation, for instance the sentence *Did you enjoy your breakfast?* assumes that the interlocutor already had breakfast.

Proper Russian Phraseological units - which appeared after the 15 century, when Ukrainian and Byelorussian languages were separated from each other. These PU represent the most numerous group, they appeared in language as free word-combinations.

Proposition - A statement which can be assessed as being true or false, e.g. *The sun is shining* contains the proposition that 'the celestial body at the centre of the solar system is casting its light directly on the surface of the earth' and in any given situation this statement is either true or false.

Pun - a sudden return to direct meaning in one or several components of the base form. The traditional pattern of taking turns in dialogue lends itself to punning very well.

Reiteration, phraseological - a form of cohesion which may involve the repetition of the whole PU, its parts or isolated components that refer back to it. It may be coupled with any of the techniques of the contextual use of PUs.

Saturation, phraseological - the use of the two PUs running close to each other, complementing the image and creating space.

Semantic field - A collective term for sets of meanings which are taken to belong together, e.g. colour, furniture, food, clothes. Most of the vocabulary of any language is organised into such fields, i.e. there are few if any words which are semantically isolated.

Semantics - The study of meaning in language. This is an independent level and has several subtypes, such as word, grammatical, sentence and utterance meaning.

Sense relations The semantic relationships which obtain between words as opposed to those which hold between words and the outside world.

Signifiant - A linguistic item which signifies something; contrasts with *signifié* which is what is signified. The term derives from Ferdinand de Saussure.

Speech act - The act of speaking with another individual. This has become a discipline in its own right since the pioneering work of Austin in the early 1960's. It was put on a firm linguistic footing by Searle at the end of the decade and has since become part of the standard repertoire of all linguists.

Speech community - Any identifiable and delimitable group of speakers who use a more or less unified type of language.

Synonym - A word which is taken to have the same meaning as one or more other words. The collocations in which words occur may — indeed usually do — differ as seen with *cranium* and *skull* which are distinguished according to register: the former is a medical term, the latter an everyday one.

Ideographic synonyms differ in shades of meaning or have different notional components of meaning. Their archesemes coincide, but they have some minor differential semes.

Phraseological synonyms are phraseological units which are the same in the plane of the content but different in the plane of expression.

Stylistic synonyms have the same notional components of meaning, but differ in connotational components of meaning.

Stylistic - ideographic synonyms have some different notional and connotational components of meaning.

Theme - That part of a sentence which is the focus of interest and usually introduced at the beginning.

Rheme - A term applied to the new information conveyed in a sentence.

Transformation - Regular modification of the main linguistic model resulting in creation of the secondary linguistic structure.

Utterance - Any stretch of spoken speech, a sentence or phrase with emphasis on the characteristics of the spoken medium in contrast either with the written form or with more abstract forms of a linguistic analysis.

IX. GENERAL LITERATURE:

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