ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ СТИЛИСТИКАСИ КАФЕДРАС

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STYLISTIC ANALYSIS OF JARGONS IN LITERARY TEXT IN MODERN
ENGLISH

5220100 – Philology and teaching languages (The English language) for granting

the bachelor's degree

QUALIFICATION   PAPER

"THE QUALIFICATION   SCIENTIFIC SUPERVISOR:

IS ADMITTED TO DEFENCE"

The head of the English Stylistics

Department associate professor

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"___" ___april_____ 2014   "___" _____april_____ 2014

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Introduction

As President Islam Karimov stated "Today the world demands that we should say our word, demonstrate our intellectual capacities and that is why the most important thing for us is to give young people an opportunity to master a certain specialty, to provide them with a reliable start in life[1]".

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Abduganiyevich Karimov speaking about the future of Uzbekistan underlines that harmonious generation is the future guarantee of prosperity[2].

The given qualification is devoted to the study of the usage of jargonisms in communication.

Language is one of those spheres of human activity that are the first to bring reaction to social and other kinds of changes in human life and activities. Language may even not only follow or accompany these changes but also cause them. Every social or political change, revolution, innovation, introduction of new words and terms is reflected in newspaper publications.

A great number of people, over 70%, read newspapers every day. And to keep such a large number of people reading, the newspaper must be easy to read and understand. Using a type of speech that people use every day is an easy way to accomplish that. Using colloquial speech should also be used depending on the audience that is reading a newspaper article

Colloquial speech should also be used if an article is written for children or teenagers. A teenager would better relate to "Hey, what's up?" than "Greetings. How are you this fine September afternoon?" Because they can relate to it, they are more likely to understand the text and keep on reading. Not only teenagers and children use this type of language. Many adults still use words like "radar" and "e-mail"; neither of them are formal English.

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[1] Islom Karimov (1998). Idealogy the uniting Principle of Nation. Society and State. Answer the questions of Editor in chief of the tafakkur magazine: Tashkent Uzbekistan - (p.25)

[2] Kadrlae tayyorlash milliy dastur. Tashkent – 1997, p.12

That is why the theme of this qualification paper is of a great importance. The relevance of the research is caused by permanent development of language.

The actuality of the qualification paper is predetermined by the need of the further study of the language in use, in particular, jargonisms in the texts of different styles.

The aim of the qualification paper is to analyze the specific usage and functions of jargonisms in English newspapers and literary texts.

To achieve the above-mentioned purpose the following **tasks** are put forward:

- to study the problems relating to the stylistic classification of the English vocabulary;

- to describe the features of the literary and colloquial vocabulary;

- to reveal the specific characteristics of social jargon and professionalisms;

- to provide thematic classification of professionalisms;

-to analyze the usage of jargonisms in the newspapers of Great Britain and the USA and literary texts.

The object of the qualification paper served newspaper and literary texts.

The subject of the qualification paper is the study of the peculiarities of usage the specific items of the colloquial vocabulary that is jargonisms, in the English newspapers and literary texts.

The methodological basis of the research. While doing our research we will take into account the works of such scientists as Arnold I.V., Galperin I.R., Rayevska N.M, Kukharenko V.A., Antrushyna H.B. and other scholars, who have already made a great contribution to investigating colloquial vocabulary and newspaper style.

In this qualification paper the following **methods of research** have been used:

- the analytical method;

-the method of analysis and synthesis;

- the descriptive method.

The analytical method presupposes the overall detection and selection of the items under study. The method of analysis is used to break a complex topic into smaller parts to gain a better understanding of it. The method of synthesis is used to combine separate elements of research in order to form a coherent whole. Descriptive method is used to present the picture of phenomena under study.

The material for the study is taken from different newspaper articles in the following British and American newspapers: The Guardian, The New York Times, The Daily Mirror, the Sun as well as literary texts of British and American writers.

The novelty of the qualification paper is in the integrated approach to the problem under study that is from the point of lexicology stylistics and text linguistics.

The theoretical value of this qualification paper is in that the results that promote the further development of the theory of studying of colloquial vocabulary in newspaper text.

The practical value of this qualification paper is that we will examine the use of colloquial vocabulary in English news articles. The findings of the investigation may also find their application in the further research within the sphere of colloquial vocabulary of newspapers text and at the practical classes of English.

The sources deals with the list of literature used in paper. While writing present qualification paper we used the books written by great scholars such as Jespersen Otto, Abayev V, I Smirnitsky A,I, Dubenets E,M Akmanova O,S Besides above mentioned literatures we took information from Internet, Work Book Encyclopedia.

The structure of the qualification paper consists of the Introduction, three Chapters, Conclusions, Bibliography, List of reference sources.

Introduction determines the actually, novelty, aim, tasks, methods and theoretical value and practical value of qualification papers, as well as, shows, the material that serves the basic for the executed work.

Chapter 1. Theoretical notions of the research
1.1. The subject matter of stylistics

Treatises devoted to the study of style can be found as early as Demutrius on style. But most pre-twentieth century discussions as secondary components of rhetorical and grammatical analyses or in general studies of literature and literary language. The appearance of stylistics as a semiautonomous discipline is a modern phenomenon, an ongoing development in linguistic description that is closely tied to the similar rise of literary criticism and linguistics as academic subjects and departments. Modern stylistics, in general draws much of it is analytical power from the analytical methods and descriptive intentions of linguistics, while modern literary stylistics, in particular, draws upon that area and adds to it the interpretive goals of modern literary criticism[1].

Stylistics, sometimes called lingvo-stylistics, is a branch of general linguistics[2].It has now been more or less definitely outlined. It deals mainly with two interdependent tasks: a) the investigation of the inventory of special language media, which by their ontological features secure the desirable effect of the utterance and b) certain types of texts (discourse) which due to the choice and arrangement of language means are distinguished by the pragmatic aspect of the communication. The two objectives of stylistics are clearly discernible as two separate fields of investigation. The inventory of special language media can be analyzed and their ontological features revealed if presented in a system in which the co-relation between the media becomes evident.

The types of texts can be analyzed if their linguistic components are presented in their interaction, thus revealing the unbreakable unity and transparency of constructions of a given type. The types of texts that are distinguished by the

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[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977.

[2] Арнольд И.В. Стилистика современного английского языка: (Стилистика декодирования). – М.:Флинта,2005.

pragmatic aspect of the communication are called functional styles of language (FS); the special media of language that secure the desirable effect of the utterance are called stylistic devices (SD) and expressive means (EM)

The first field of investigation, i.e. SDs and EMs, necessarily touches upon such general language problems as the aesthetic function of language, synonymous ways of rendering one and the same idea, emotional coloring in language, the interrelation between language and thought, the individual manner of an author in making use of language and a number of other issues.

The second field, i.e. functional styles, cannot avoid discussion of such most general linguistic issues as oral and written varieties of language, the notion of the literary (standard) language, the constituents of texts larger than the sentence, the generative aspect of literary texts, and some others.

In dealing with the objectives of stylistics, certain pronouncements of adjacent disciplines such as theory of information, literature, psychology, logic and to some extent statistics must be touched upon. This is indispensable; for nowadays, no science is entirely isolated from other domains of human knowledge; and linguistics, particularly its branch stylistics, cannot avoid references to the above-mentioned disciplines because it is confronted with certain overlapping issues[1].

The branching off stylistics in language science was indirectly the result of a long-established tendency of grammarians to confine their investigations to sentences, clauses and word-combinations that are "well-formed", to use a dubious term, neglecting anything that did not fall under the recognized and received standards. This tendency became particularly strong in what is called descriptive linguistics. The generative grammars, which appeared as a reaction against descriptive linguistics, have confirmed that the task of any grammar is to limit the scope of investigation of language data to sentences that are considered well formed. Everything that fails to meet this requirement should be excluded from linguistics.

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[1] Ashurova D.U. Stylistics of the literary text. – T.,2013

But language studies cannot avoid subjecting to observation any language data whatever, so where grammar refuses to tread stylistics steps in. Stylistics has acquired its own status with its own inventory of tools (SDs and EMs), with its own object of investigation and with its own methods of research.

The stylistics of a highly developed language like English or Russian has brought into the science of language a separate body of media, thus widening the range of observation of phenomena in language. The significance of this branch of linguistics can hardly be over-estimated. A number of events in the development of stylistics must be mentioned here as landmarks. The first is the discussion of the problem of style and stylistics in "Вопросы языкознания" in 1954, in which many important general and particular problems were broadly analyzed and some obscure aspects elucidated. Secondly, a conference on Style in Language was held at Indiana University in the spring of 1958, followed by the publication of the proceedings of this conference (1960) under the editorship of Thomas Sebeok. Like the discussion in "Вопросы языкознания" this conference revealed the existence of quite divergent points of view held by different students of-language and literature. Thirdly, a conference on style and stylistics was held in the Moscow State Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages" in March 1969. At this conference lines were drawn along which studies in lingvo-stylistics might be maintained. An interesting symposium was also held in Italy, the proceedings of which were published under the editorship of Professor S. Chatman in 1971.

A great number of monographs, textbooks, articles, and dissertation papers are now at the disposal of a scholar in stylistics. The stream of information grows larger every month. Two American journals appear regularly, which may keep the student informed as to trends in the theory of stylistics.

It is in view of the ever-growing significance of the exploration of language potentialities that so much attention is paid in lingvo-stylistics to the analysis of expressive means (EMs) and stylistic devices (SDs), to their nature and functions, to their classification and to possible interpretations of additional meanings they may

carry in a message as well as their aesthetic value[1].

In order to ascertain the borders of stylistics it is necessary to go at some length into the question of what is style.

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

Now the word style is used in so many senses that it has become a breeding ground for ambiguity. The word is applied to the teaching of how to write a composition (see below); it is also used to reveal the correspondence between thought and expression; it frequently denotes an individual manner of making use of language; it sometimes refers to more general, abstract notions thus inevitably becoming vague and obscure, as, for example, "Style is the man himself" (Buffon), "Style is depth" (Derbyshire);* "Style is deviations" (Enkvist); "Style is choice", and the like.

All these ideas directly or indirectly bear on issues in stylistics. Some of them become very useful by revealing the springs that make our utterances emphatic, effective and goal-directed. It will therefore not come amiss to quote certain interesting observations regarding style made by different writers from different angles. Some of these observations are dressed up as epigrams or sententious maxims like the ones quoted above. Here are some more of them[2].

"Style is a quality of language which communicates precisely emotions or thoughts, or a system of emotions or thoughts, peculiar to the author." (J. Middleton Murry)

"... a true idiosyncrasy of style is the result of an author's success in compelling language to conform to his mode of experience." (J. Middleton Murry)

"Style is a contextually .restricted linguistic variation." (Enkvist) "Style is a selection of non-distinctive features of language." (L. Bloom-field)

"Style is simply synonymous with form or expression and hence a superfluous

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[1] Арнольд И.В. Стилистика современного английского языка: (Стилистика декодирования). – М.:Флинта,2005.

[2] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977.-.p.10

term." (Benedetto Croce)

"Style is essentially a citation process, a body of formulae, a memory (almost in the cybernetic sense of the word), a cultural and not an expressive inheritance." (Roland Barthes)

Some linguists consider that the word 'style' and the subject of linguistic stylistics is confined to the study of the effects of the message, i.e. its impact on the reader. Thus, Michael Riffaterre writes, "Stylistics will be a linguistics of the effects of the message, of the output of the act of communication, of its attention-compelling function".1 this point of view has clearly been reached under the influence of recent developments in the general theory of information. Language, being one of the means of communication or, to be exact, the most important means of communication, is regarded in the above quotation from a pragmatic point of view. Stylistics in that case is regarded as a language science that deals with the results of the act of communication

To a very considerable degree, this is true. Stylistics must take into consideration the "output of the act of communication". But stylistics must also investigate the ontological, i.e. natural, inherent, and functional peculiarities of the means of communication, which may ensure the effect sought.

According to the object and aim of investigation, the following main areas can be outlined in the domain of stylistics:

Stylistics of Resources;

Text Stylistics;

Functional Stylistics;

Stylistics of Individual Style (idiostyle);

Comparative Stylistics;

Stylistics of Belles-lettres or Literary (fictional) texts[1].

Stylistics of resources is concerned with the study of the stylistic potential of

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[1] Ashurova D.U. Stylistics of the literary text. – T.,2013 –p.6

phonetics, lexicon, phraseology, word-formation, morphology and syntax.

Phonostylistics or sound stylistics studies speech sounds and prosodic means from the point of view of their expressiveness and stylistic potential.

Lexical Stylistics deals with the problem of stylistics differentiation of the vocabulary, the nation of stylistic meanings and their typology.

This area of studies seems to be less investigated, although the stylistic potential of word-formation is very high.

1.2. Stylistic Differentiation of the English Vocabulary

The word-stock of any language may be presented as a system, the elements of which are interconnected, interrelated and yet independent. Then the word-stock of the English language may be divided into three main layers (strata): *the literary layer* (startum), *the neutral layer,* and *colloquial layer*[1] .

The literary and the colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups. Each subgroup has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. This common property which unites the different groups within the layer is called its aspect.

The aspect of the *literary layer* is its bookish character, which makes the layer more or less stable.

The aspect of the *colloquial layer* is its lively spoken character, which makes it unstable, fleeting.

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

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[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977. –p.72

This classification given by I.R.Galperin reflects to a great extent the mobility of the lexical system so characteristic of the English language at its present stage of development.

The vocabulary has been divided here into two basic groups: standard and non-standard_vocabulary. The diagram given below demonstrates the aforementioned layers and their subgroups.

The literary vocabulary consists of the following groups of words:

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

The colloquial vocabulary includes the following groups of words:

1. common colloquial words;
2. slang;
3. jargonisms;
4. professionalisms;
5. dialectal words;
6. vulgar words;
7. colloquial coinages[1].

The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term Standard English Vocabulary.

Other groups in the literary and colloquial layers are called *special literary* (bookish) vocabulary and *special (non-standard) colloquial* vocabulary.

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[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977. –p.72

Neutral words form the bulk of the English Vocabulary and are used in both literary and colloquial language. Neutral words are the main source of synonymy and polysemy. Unlike all other groups, neutral words don' ct have a special stylistic colouring and are devoid of emotional meaning.

Common standard literary

Common standard literary   hiefly used in writing and in polished speech.

They are used in formal communication. Literary words are mainly observed in the written form. One can always tell a literary word from a colloquial word, because literary words are used to satisfy communicative demands of official, scientific, poetic messages, while colloquial words are employed in non-official every day communication.
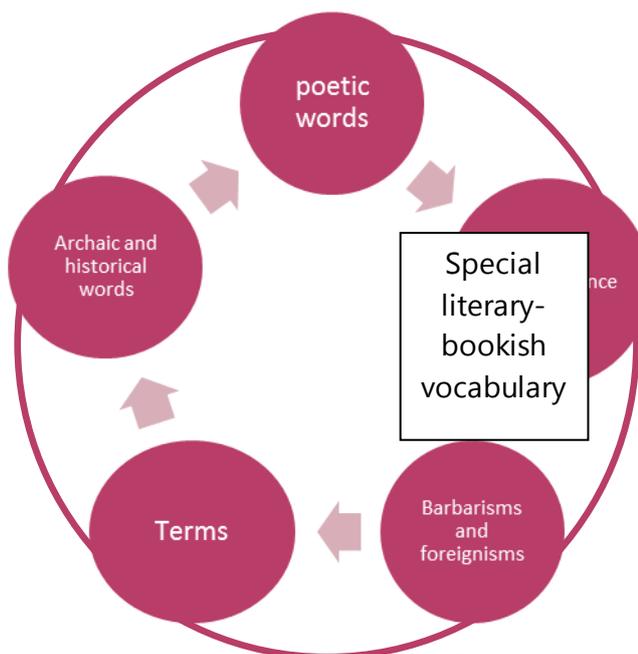
Literary words stand in opposition to colloquial words forming pairs of synonyms, which are based on contrasting relations.

Colloquial	Neutral	Literary
kid	**child**	**infant**
daddy	**father**	**parent**

get out　　　　　**go away**　　　　　**retire**

go on　　　　　**continue**　　　　　**proceed**

Common standard colloquial words

Common colloquial words are always ore emotionally coloured than literary ones. They are used in informal communication.

Both literary and colloquial words have their upper and lower ranges. The lower range of literary words approaches the neutral layer and has a tendency to pass into that layer. The upper range of the colloquial layer can easily pass into the neutral layer too. The lines of demarcation between common colloquial and neutral and common literary and neutral are blurred. Here we may see the process of interpenetration of the stylistic layers. The stylistic function of the different layers of the English Vocabulary depends in many respects on their interaction when they are opposed to one another. It is interesting to note that anything written assumes a greater degree of significance than what is only spoken. If the spoken takes the place of the written or vice versa, it means that, we are faced with a stylistic device.

Special   literary-bookish vocabulary

1.Terms and learned words.

These are words denoting scientific concepts or objects, processes, phenomena of science, humanities, technique.

One of the most characterististic features of a term is its direct relevance to the system of terms used in a particular science, discipline or art[1].

E.g., power　　　　　　　phoneme

Transmission　　　　　　pardigm

Circumference　　　　　　connotation

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[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977. –p.76

Terms are mostly used in special works dealing with the notions of some branch, therefore it may be said that they belong to the style of the language of science. But their usage is not confined to this style. They may appear in other styles, but their function in this case changes: they do not refer to a given concept. In <u>other styles,</u> a term may acquire a stylistic function to create the environment, the true-to-life atmosphere of the narration, or to make some reference to the occupation of the character thus creating a particular professional background. A term may be used with a parodying function contributing to a humorous effect.

So when used in the belles-lettres style, a term may become a stylistic device. This happens when a term is used in such a way that two meaning are materialized simultaneously.

2.Poetic and highly literary words.

Poetic and highly literary words belong to special literary vocabulary. They are mostly archaic and aim at producing an elevated effect or giving the work of are a lofty poetic colouring.

Poetic tradition has kept alive such archaic words and forms as follows:[1]

Poetic	neutral
Woe	sorrow
Quouth	speak
Harken	hear
Speaketh	speaks
Cometh	comes
Brethren	brothers
Wilt	2-nd person singular

Poetic words are not freely built. Very Often they are built by compounding:

E.g.: young-eyed, rosy-fingered.

1.Rayevska N.M. English lexicology. - Kiev "Vysca Skola", 1979

In the following poem by L. Hughes, we may see the examples of poetic style not only in the choice of word, but also in the compound word.

Langston Hughes

Dreams

Hold fast to dreams

For if dreams die

Life is a broken-winged bird

That cannot fly.

Hold fast to dreams

For when dreams go

Life is a barren field

Frozen with snow.

Poetic words are said to evoke emotive meanings. They colour the utterance with a certain air of loftiness. But very often they become too hackneyed, too stale for this purpose. Poetic words in an ordinary environment may also have a satirical function.

3Archaic words (obsolescent and obsolete words).

The word-stock of any language is in the state of constant change. Words change their meaning and sometimes drop out of language altogether.

We shall distinguish 3 stages in the aging process of words.

The first stage means the beginning of the aging process when the word becomes rarely used. Such words are in the stage of gradually passing out of general use, and are called obsolescent [obsolescent] .These are morphological forms

belonging to the earlier stages in the development of the language. They are quite easily recognized by the English language community.

E.g   thou (ты)

Thee (тебя тебе тобой)

Thy (твой)

EST thou makest

(e) th he maketh, speakest

Wilt will

Obsolescent words are widely used in poetry as in the following poem by

G.G.Byron

And wilt thou weep when I am low?

And will thou weep when I am low?

Sweet lady .speak those words again

Yet if they grieve thee, say not

My heart is sad, my hopes are gone my blood runs coldly through my breast: And when I perish thou alone

Wilt sigh above my place of rest

 The second stage of the again prokes. Here are included those words that have already gone completely out of use but are still recognized by the English speaking community .They are called obsolete [obsolete]

E.g methinks   it seems to me

Nay   no

Whereof   of which

The third stage indicates the words, which are no longer recognized in Modern Enlish .They, are called archaic proper.

e.g   troth (faith)

a losel (a lazy fallow)

befall (happen)

There are also historical words denoting concepts and phenomena that are out

of synonyms while archaic words have been replaced by modern synonyms

E.g. knight

Yeoman

spear

goplet

Historical words are primarily used in the creation of a realistic background of historical novels

One of the main functions of archaisms is purely poetic function when they are used to create an elevate defect or to suit solemn occasion

It should be mentioned that archaic words are frequently found in the style of official documents

E g aforesaid

Hereby

Hereinafter

henceforth

Their function here is terminological in character. They help to maintain the exactness of expression so necessary in this style

When archaic words are used in a depiction of events of present day life they assume the function of a stylistic devise they may be used for satirical purposes So archaisms occurring in inappropriate surroundings are intentionally used by the writer to cause a humorous effect

4. Barbarisms and foreignisms

Barbarisms are words of foreign origin which have not entirely been assimilated into English language they bear the appearance of a borrowing and are felt as something alien to the native tongue

Barbarisms have already become facts of the English vocabulary they are not registered in dictionaries

Both barbarisms and foreign words are used in various styles with various aims on of their functions is to supply local color

Barbarisms and foreign words very often convey the idea of the foreign origin or cultural peculiarities

5.Literary coinages and nonce words

Neologisms are new words usually appearing as names of new phenomena and thus enreaching the vocabulary. But not all neologisms are accepted by the dictionary. A great number of them remain individual creations and do not appear outside the pages of the book. They must be called individual or stylistic neologisms. There is also another word for them – occasionalisms[1].

 For example, taking the model *to dress - to undress to do - to undo* English writer T. Howard in the sentence creates his own neologism:

l.She was waiting/or smth, to happen or for everything to unhappen.

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[1] Кузнец М.Д., Скребнев Ю.М. Стилистика английского языка. – Л.: Учпедгиз, 1960.- p.58

2. She was a young and unbeautiful woman.

Many stylistic neologisms are created through conversion:

Being an effectionate soul she liked somebody, whom she could «motherland «my dear».

Neologisms are usually appear in the belles - lettres style and newspaper style.

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

In this paragraph, we have outlined literary layer of the vocabulary. The colloquial vocabulary will be described further.

Chapter 2.   Specific features of colloquial words.
2.1.   Types of colloquial words.

The English language is divided into three main layers: the literary layer, the neutral layer and the colloquial layer. The literary and the colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups each of which has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. This common property, which unites the different groups of words within the layer, may be called its aspect. The aspect of the literary layer is its markedly bookish character. It is this that makes the layer more or less stable. The aspect of the colloquial layer of words is its lively spoken character.

Colloquial language is language that is informal. This can include words as well as phrases. You might use colloquial language when messaging your friends but not in a formal situation such as writing a letter to a business.

General Characteristics of colloquial vocabulary[1]:

- informal, familiar, conversational;

- paralinguistic context, non-verbal communication.

Morphological Features

- contractions e.g. 'wanna; dunno; cuppa'.

Syntactical Features

- specific structures;

- active rather than passive structures;

- frequent conjunction 'and';

- ellipsis, dropping of pronominal subject e.g. 'Wanna tea?'.

Lexical Features

- specific vocabulary;

- short and simple words;

- words of Germanic origin rather than of Latin origin;

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[1] Мороховский А.Н., Воробьёва О.П., Лихошерст Н.И., Тимошенко З.В. Стилистика английского языка. – Киев: Вища школа, 1984. – p.109

- word with emotional meaning: familiar forms of address, vulgarisms, evaluating adjectives;

- discourse markers - fillers e.g. 'kind of, sort of, like, actually, you know, well';

- parenthetical elements e.g. 'indeed; sure; no doubt; obviously; perhaps; maybe';

- idiosyncratic expressions characteristic of a particular speaker;

- onomatopoeic words e.g. 'drip drop; bow wow; splash';

- nonce words - colloquial coinages: spontaneous attributing of new meanings to already existing words; elusive and readily disappearing from the language again;

- interjections e.g. 'oh my, gee, yeah';

- phraseology, idioms.

Special Nomenclature

- fashion terminology: a streetwise head-turner; fleeting flashbulb moments; a red-carpet goddess

According to I.R.Galperin colloquial vocabulary falls into the following groups: slang, jargonisms, professional words, dialectal words, vulgar words and colloquial coinages[1]. For our research, we need to see each group more detaily.

1.Slang

There is hardly any other term that is as ambiguous and obscure as the term slang. Slang seems to mean everything that is below the standard of usage of present-day English. The first thing that strikes the scholar is the fact that no other European language has singled out a special layer of vocabulary and named it slang, though all of them distinguish such groups of words as jargon, cant, and the like. Why was it necessary to invent a special term for something that has not been clearly defined a jargon or can't have? Is this phenomenon specifically English? Has slang any special features, which no other group within the non-literary vocabulary can lay, claim to? The distinctions between slang and other groups of unconventional English, though

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[1] Мороховский А.Н., Воробьёва О.П., Лихошерст Н.И., Тимошенко З.В. Стилистика английского языка. – Киев: Вища школа, 1984. –p.72

perhaps subtle and sometimes difficult to grasp, should nevertheless be subjected to a more detailed linguistic specification.

Webster's "Third New International Dictionary" gives the following meanings of the term:

Slang [origin unknown] 1: language peculiar to a particular group: as

a) the special and often secret vocabulary used by class (as thieves, beggars) and usu. felt to be vulgar or inferior: argot;

b) the jargon used by or associated with a particular trade, profession, or field of activity;

2) a non-standard vocabulary composed of words characterized primarily by connotations of extreme informality and usually a currency not limited to a particular region and composed typically of coinages or arbitrarily changed words, clipped or shortened forms, extravagant, forced or facetious figures of speech, or verbal novelties usu. experiencing quick popularity and relatively rapid decline into disuse.

The "New Oxford English Dictionary" defines slang as follows:

"a) the special vocabulary used by any set of persons of a low or disreputable character; language of a low and vulgar type. (Now merged in c. /cant/)', b) the cant or jargon of a certain class or period; c) language of a highly colloquial type considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense."

As is seen from these quotations slang is represented both as a special vocabulary and as a special language. This is the first thing that causes confusion. If this is a certain lexical layer, then why should it be given the rank of language? If, on the other hand, slang is a certain language or a dialect or even a patois, then it should be characterized not only by its peculiar use of words but also by phonetic, morphological and syntactical peculiarities.

J. B. Greenough and C. L. Kitteridge define slang in these words:

"Slang... is a peculiar kind of vagabond language, always hanging on the

outskirts of legitimate speech but continually for straying or forcing

its way into the most respectable company."1

Another definition of slang that is worth quoting is one made by Eric Partridge, the eminent student of the non-literary language.

"Slang is much rather a spoken than a literary language. It originates, nearly always, in speech. To coin a term on a written page is almost inevitably to brand it as a neologism which will either be accepted or become a nonce-word (or phrase), but, except in the rarest instances, that term will not be slang."2

In most of the dictionaries sl. (slang) is used as convenient stylistic notation for a word or a phrase that cannot be specified more exactly. The obscure etymology of the term itself affects its use as a stylistic notation. Whenever the notation appears in a dictionary it may serve as an indication that the unit presented is non-literary, but not pinpointed. Thai is the reason why the various dictionaries disagree in the use of this term when applied as a stylistic notation. The term 'slang', which is widely used in English linguistic science, should be clearly specified if it is" to be used as a term, i. e. it should refer to some definite notion and should be definable in explicit, simple terms. It is suggested here that the term 'slang' should be used for those forms of the English vocabulary, which are either mispronounced or distorted in some very phonetically, morphologically or lexically. The term 'slang' should also be used to specify some elements, which may be called over-colloquial. As for the other groups of words hitherto classified as slang, they should be specified according to the universally accepted classification of the vocabulary of a language.

But this must be done by those whose mother tongue is English. And they only, being native speakers of the English language, are its masters and lawgivers. It is for them to place slang in its proper category by specifying its characteristic features.

Slang is nothing but a deviation from the established norm at the level of the vocabulary of the language. V. V. Vinogradov writes that one of the tasks set before the branch of linguistic science that is now called stylistics, is a thorough study of all changes in vocabulary, set phrases, grammatical constructions, their functions, an evaluation of any breaking away from the established norm, and classification of mistakes and failures in word coinage.

H. Wentworth and S. Flexner in their "Dictionary of American Slang" write:

"Sometimes slang is used to escape the dull familiarity of standard words, to suggest an escape from the established routine of everyday life. When slang is used, our life seems a little fresher and a little more personal. Also, as at all levels of speech, slang is sometimes used for the pure joy of making sounds, or even for a need to attract attention by making noise. The sheer newness and informality of certain slang words produce pleasure.

"But more important than this expression of a more or less hidden aesthetic motive on the part of the speaker is the slang's reflection of the personality, the outward, clearly visible characteristics of the speaker. By and large, the man who uses slang is a forceful, pleasing, acceptable personality.

So broad is the term 'slang' that, according to Eric Partridge, there are many kinds of slang, e. g. Cockney, public-house, commercial, society, military, theatrical, parliamentary and others. This leads the author to believe that there is also a standard slang, the slang that is common to all those who, though employing received standard in their writing and speech, also use an informal language which, in fact, is no language but merely a way of speaking using special words and phrases in some special sense. The most confusing definition of the nature of slang is the following one given by Partridge.

"...personality and one's surroundings (social or occupational) are the two co-efficient, the two chief factors, the determining causes of the nature of slang, as they are of language in general and of style."

Slang refers to informal (and often transient) lexical items used by a specific social group, for instance teenagers, soldiers, prisoners, or surfers. Slang is not considered the same as colloquial speech, which is informal, relaxed speech used on occasion by any speaker; this might include contractions such as you are, as well as colloquialisms.

A colloquialism is a lexical item used in informal speech; whilst the broadest sense of the term colloquialism might include slangism, its narrow sense does not. Slangisms are often used in newspapers and colloquial speech but not all colloquialisms are slangisms.

General Characteristics of slang[1]:

- The core of the colloquial language outside of the conventional or standard usage;

- Deviation from the established form;

- indicates membership in a particular social group;

- developed from the attempt to find new, fresh, original, creative, playful, colorful and humorous expressions;

- requires continuous innovation; never goes stable, gets dated very quickly.

Syntactical Features

- multiple negation e.g. I dun no know nothing';

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[1] Ощепкова В.В. Язык и культура Великобритании, США, Канады и Австралии: Учебное пособие. – СПб.: Флинта, 2006.-

- present tense for the past e.g. I am at the mall, see this damn cool shirt and get it.

Lexical Features

- extensive use of fillers e.g. 'stuff, thing, whatever'.

Special Nomenclature

- bottle (courage); lolly (money); yob (trouble-maker)

We can find many examples of slang in teenagers' dialogues. Girls and boys in Britain like to create their own world of words. In addition, we can meet them in such newspaper's sections as showbiz, news, criminal chronic.

2. Dialectal words

This group of words is obviously opposed to the other groups of the non-literary English vocabulary and therefore it is stylistic; functions can be more or less clearly defined. Dialectal words are those which in the process of integration of the English national language remained beyond its literary boundaries, and their use is generally confined to a definite locality. We exclude here what are called social dialects or even the still looser application of the term as in expressions like poetical dialect or styles as dialects.

With reference to this group, there is a confusion of terms, particularly between the terms dialectal, slang and vernacular. In order to ascertain the true value and the stylistic functions of dialectal words it is necessary to look into their nature. For this purpose, a quotation from Cecil Wyld's "A History of Modern Colloquial English" will be to the point.

"The history of a very large part of the vocabulary of the present-day English dialects is still very obscure, and it is doubtful whether much of it is of any antiquity. So far very little attempt has been made to sift the chaff from the grain in that very vast receptacle of the English Dialect Dictionary, and to decide which elements are

really genuine 'corruptions' of words which the yokel has heard from educated speakers, or read, misheard, or misread, and ignorantly altered, and adopted, often with a slightly twisted significance. Probably many hundreds of 'dialect7 words are of this origin and have no historical value whatever, except in as much as they illustrate a general principle in the modification of speech. Such words are not, as a rule, characteristic of any Regional Dialect, although they may be ascribed to one of these, simply because sore collector of dialect forms has happened to hear them in a particular-area. They belong rather to the category of 'mistakes which any ignorant speaker may make, and which such persons do make, again and again, in every part of the country."

We are not concerned here with the historical aspect of dialectal words. For our purpose, it will suffice to note that there is a definite similarity of functions la the use of slang, cockney and any other form of non-literary English and that of dialectal words. All these groups when used in emotive prose are meant to characterize the speaker as a person of a certain locality, breeding, education, etc.

There is sometimes a difficulty in distinguishing dialectal words from colloquial words. Some dialectal words have become so familiar in good colloquial or standard colloquial English that they are universally accepted as recognized units of the standard colloquial English. To these words belong lass, meaning 'a girl or a beloved girl7 and the corresponding lad, 'a boy or a young man7, daft from the Scottish and the northern dialect, meaning 'of unsound mind, silly; fash also

Scottish, with the meaning of 'trouble, cares'. Still they have not lost their dialectal associations and therefore are used in literary English with the above-mentioned stylistic function of characterization.

Of quite a different nature are dialectal words which are easily recognized as corruptions of standard English words, although etymologically they may have sprung from the peculiarities of certain dialects. The following words may serve as

examples: hinny from honey; tittle apparently from sister, being a childish corruption of the word; cutty meaning a 'testy or naughty girl or woman7.

Most of the examples so far quoted come from the Scottish and the northern dialects. This is explained by the fact that Scotland has struggled to retain the peculiarities of her language. Therefore, many of the words fixed in dictionaries as dialectal are of Scottish origin.

3. Vulgar words or vulgarisms

The term vulgarism, as used to single out a definite group of words of non-standard English, is rather misleading. The ambiguity of the term apparently proceeds from the etymology of the word.

Vulgar, as explained by the Shorter Oxford Dictionary, means a) words or names employed in ordinary speech; b) common, familiar; c) commonly current or prevalent, generally or widely disseminated.

Out of seven, various meanings given in Webster's Third New International Dictionary 6 repeat nearly the same definitions that are given in the Shorter Oxford, and only the seventh is radically different. Here it is:

"5a: marked by coarseness of speech or expression; crude or offensive in language, b: lewd, obscene or profane in expression...: indecent, indelicate,"

These two submeanings are the foundation of what we here name vulgarisms. So vulgarisms are:

1) expletives and swear words which are of an abusive character, like 'damn', 'bloody', to hell', 'goddam' and, as some dictionaries state, used now as general exclamations;

2) obscene words. These are known as four-letter words the use of which is banned in any form of .intercourse as being indecent[1].

Historians tell us that in Middle-Ages and down into the 16th century they were accepted in oral speech and after Caxton even admitted to the printed page. All of these words are of Anglo-Saxon origin.

Vulgarisms are often used in conversation out of habit, without any thought of what they mean, or inimitation of those who use them in order not to seem old-fashioned or prudish. Unfortunately, in modern fiction these words have gained legitimacy. The most vulgar of them are now to be found even in good novels. This lifting of the taboo has given rise to the almost unrestrained employment of words, which soil the literary language. However, they will never acquire the status of Standard English vocabulary and will always remain on the outskirts.

2.2. Jargonisms in the English language.

Jargon is terminology that is especially defined in relationship to a specific activity, profession or group. . in newspapers, the use of jargon units is very common for sport reports. Much like slang, it is a kind of shorthand used to express ideas that are frequently discussed between members of a group, though it can also be developed deliberately using chosen terms. Whilst a standard term may be given a more precise or unique usage amongst practitioners of relevant disciplines, it is often reported that jargon is a barrier to communication for those people unfamiliar with the respective field.

Jargonisms are social in character. They are not regional. In Britain and in the US almost any social group of people has its own jargon [11,130]. The following

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[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977, -p.118.

jargons are well known in the English language: the jargon of thieves and vagabonds, generally known as cant; the jargon of the army, known as military slang; the jargon of sportsmen, and many others.

General Characteristics of jargon:

- a special lexicon to preserve secrecy within a particular social group;

- incomprehensible to people out of the group, needs translation (unlike slang);

- old words with entirely new meaning imposed upon them;

- some words have become legitimate English words e.g. 'kid, fun, humbug'.

Jargon is "the technical terminology or characteristic idiom of a special activity or group" The *philosopher* Condillac observed in that "every science requires a special language because every science has its own ideas." As a rationalist member of the Enlightenment he continued, "It seems that one ought to begin by composing this language, but people begin by speaking and writing, and the language remains to be composed. In earlier times, the term jargon would refer to trade languages used by people who spoke different native tongues to communicate, such as the Chinook Jargon.

In other words, the term covers the language used by people who work in a particular area or who have a common interest. Much like slang, it can develop as a kind of shorthand, to express ideas that are frequently discussed between members of a group, though it can also be developed deliberately using chosen terms. A standard term may be given a more precise or unique usage among practitioners of a field. In many cases, this causes a barrier to communication with those not familiar with the language of the field. For example, *bit*, *byte*, and *hexadecimal* are jargon terms related to computing.

With the rise of self-advocacy movement within the disability movement, *jargonised* language has been much objected to by advocates and self-

advocates. Jargon is largely present in everyday language, in newspapers, government documents and official forms. Several advocacy organizations work on influencing public agents to offer accessible information in different formats. One accessible format that offers an alternative to jargonised language is Easy Read, which consists of a combination of plain English and images. Another alternative is a jargon buster, incorporated to certain technical documents. There is a balance to be struck - excessive removal of technical terminology from a document leads to an equally undesirable outcome - dumbing down.

Etymology

The word comes from Old French jargon meaning "chatter of birds"

Modern vs. postmodern opinions on the use of jargon

Let us discuss two differing viewpoints of the use of jargon, as described by Stephen K. Roney in "Postmodernist Prose and George Orwell." In his article, Roney discusses modern vs. postmodern styles of language using the contrasting views of George Orwell and Judith Butler.

George Orwell, a socialist, leftist, and Marxist, believes in the modern style of language, deeming that good writing is clear and simple. In his essay, "Politics and the English Language," he states the following arguments: technical language is nothing but an oratorical trick, simple language is required to clarify difficult concepts, while complex language is needed to explain simple concepts, and lastly, political language is structured to make lies seem like the truth. In short, Orwell is articulating that specialized language is not essential.

Butler presents several postmodernist rebuttals to Orwell's arguments. She states that difficult concepts need to be expressed with specialized vocabulary, or jargon. She quotes Marcuse, who believes that if people could use plain language to describe something, they would. She is attempting to prove that jargon is natural and necessary. Butler also says, "Language conditions thought," meaning that the words

we use shape the way we think. Roney responds to that by saying that if language fully conditioned thought, we would not be able to think about language. The last argument that Butler states is "if you're talking about something obscure, your language should be obscure to reflect this accurately.

Butler believes that specialized vocabulary is essential in writing and oratory because language should mirror reality. Orwell opposes most of her arguments with his modern style of language by saying that simplicity is the key to good writing and dialect because language should be easy for the audience to comprehend.

Thus, we need ever the less, to understand what jargon is and mean in different atmospheres. Jargon" is a term that is defined as "verbal behavior of children, beginning at about 9 months and ceasing at about 18 months, which contains a variety of syllables that are inflected in a manner approximating meaningful connected speech" (Terminology of Communication Disorders).

Author William Lutz points out that jargon is a kind of "doublespeak"—"a language that pretends to communicate but really doesn't. It is language that conceals or prevents thought; rather than extending thought, doublespeak limits it." He clarifies this with a classification of four kinds of doublespeak, among which is jargon: "a second kind of doublespeak is jargon, the specialized language of a trade, profession, or similar group such as that used by doctors, lawyers, engineers and educators. I think an important point about jargon is it is often makes the simple appear complex, the ordinary profound, the obvious insightful.

There are times when jargon is very appropriate. For instance, when the President of the USA has engaged with the President of Russia on a debate of the international use of space stations. There are technical terms or jargon that both Presidents will use in order to talk about technical systems on the space stations themselves and in relation to forming an agreement.

The scientific jargon associated with the space station was created for such use but when both Presidents step up to the podium to speak to the press about the

progress that they are making then both will use words that the public will understand and not the jargon that was used in their meetings. The Presidents may use a few instances of jargon because the term in widely understood by the public. Also relevant are the two types of jargon that will be used. Legal and scientific; the legal teams must understand the scientific jargon so that legal agreements are clearly understood in regards to usage of the space stations, equipment deployment and maintenance.

The issue of jargon becomes complicated when two unfamiliar languages must work with one another. Jargon causes problems to arise when it is used to communicate with people outside the particular field who don't understand the terms and phrases. It can alienate readers and listeners.

Most commonly used in the computer field. The writer used the term *interface* when it come computer talking to each other. As the computer age extended to the masses, the term also means in to another person or more. If I go around an elderly person that has no experience of the computer, they would be lost of what I was talking about. That was example of going outside the intended audience and the misuse of jargon.

People in the military use jargon every day. Acronyms are famous for the military. Acronyms such as:

PLDC (Primary Leadership Development Course),

NCOs (Non-Commission Officer),

PT (Physical Training) ,

LRU (Line Replaceable Unit) are a form of jargon.

The writer also mentions, that his lady is a civilian and when he starts speaking military jargon and using acronyms, she looks at him funny and tells him to say that

again so she can understand. The more he speaks military jargon around her and translate it she learns to understand me more.

Jargon can be considered a language but with limits to whom know of your profession. The army and nave are both part of the military but acronyms with the same letters can means a total different thing. Jargon is a good thing especially when you are speaking and you need to make an important statement but you only want people of your profession to be able to understand, like what the two Presidents done. In newspapers, we can meet it in such section as sport, business, arts.

2.3. Features of professionalisms.

Professionalisms, as the term itself signifies, are the words used in a definite trade, profession or calling by people connected by common interests both at work and at home. Thy commonly designate some working process or implement of labour.

Professionalisms are correlated to terms[1]. Terms, as has already been indicated, are coined to nominate new concepts that appear in the process of, and as a result of, technical progress and the development of science.

Professional words name anew already-existing concepts, tools or instruments, and have the typical properties of a special code. The main feature of a professionalism is its technicality. Professionalisms are special words in the non-literary layer of the English vocabulary, whereas terms are a specialized group belonging to the literary layer of words. Terms, if they are connected with a field or branch of science or technique well-known to ordinary people, are easily decoded and enter the neutral stratum of the vocabulary. Professionalisms generally remain in

[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977.- p.113

circulation within a definite community, as they are linked to a common occupation and common social interests.

The semantic structure of the term is usually transparent and is therefore easily understood. The semantic structure of a professionalism is often dimmed by the image on which the meaning of the professionalism is based, particularly when the features of the object in question reflect the process of the work, metaphorically or metonymically. Like terms, professionalisms do not allow any polysemy, they are monosemantic[1].

Thus, the main feature of professionalism is its technicality they are special words in the non-literary layer of the English vocabulary. Some professionalisms, like certain terms, become popular and gradually lose their professional flavour.

They should not be mixed up with jargonisms. Like slang words, professionalisms do not aim at secrecy. They fulfil a socially useful function in communication, facilitating a quick and adequate grasp of the message.

General Characteristics of professionalisms:

- a special lexicon for a particular profession or trade;

- aims at a quick and adequate grasp of the message, does not aim at secrecy;

- designates working processes or implements of labour;

- names anew already existing concepts (tools, instruments).

Morphological Features

- technical, unambiguous, not polysemic.

According to the structure, professionalisms can be subdivided into the following groups:

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[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977.- p.113

1) Compound words or set expressions (for example in military jargon):

   Jaw-breakers (= sea-biscuits),

   Deep sea turkey (=cod fish),

   Put in the bag (= killed

   Dog-robber (= an orderly).

2) Common words used in terminological meaning:

   a) In military jargon: picture-show (=battle, action),

      Dug-out (= recruited demob soldier),

      Sewing- machine (= machine-gun),

      Egg (= an unexperienced pilot):

   b) In student's jargon:

      Fag (= difficult job),

      To cut a lecture (to flee a lecture),

      To swot (to learn by heart).

3) Abbreviations (in student jargon):

   exam (examination)

   math (mathematics)

   trig (trigonometry)

   ec (economics)

   prof (pofessor)

   prezy (president)

4) Special terms used in figurative meaning:

   Examples of Internet Jargon

   BTW - By the way

CYA - See you around

FAQ - Frequently asked questions

HTH - Hope this helps

MOTD - Message of the day

YMMV - Your mileage may vary

IIRC - If I remember correctly

IANAL - I am not a lawyer

LOL - Laugh out loud

BFF - Best friends forever

TTYL - Talk to you later

Examples of Medical Jargon

Agonal - a major, negative change in a patient's condition

BP - Medical shorthand for blood pressure

FX - bone fracture

JT - A joint

NPO - A patient should not take anything by mouth

IM – Intramuscular

Examples of Political Jargon

Getting on a soapbox - Making a speech in public

POTUS - President of the United States

SCOTUS - Supreme Court of the United States

Example of Police Jargon

Assumed room temperature: An individual has died

Special Nomenclature

tin-fish (submarine);

block-bluster (a bomb for a block of buildings);

outer (a knockout blow).

Professionalisms are wildly used in scientific and technical articles, criminal chronic and in the section of art.

Chapter 3.   Stylistic role of jargonisms in texts of different styles.

3.1. Stylistic usage of jargonismsin newspapers.

English newspaper style may be defined as a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means that is perceived by the community speaking the language as a separate unity that serves the purpose of informing and instructing the reader [1].

Newspaper style was the last of all the styles of written literary English to be recognized as a specific form of writing standing apart from other forms. English newspaper style dates from the 17th century. Newspaper writing is addressed to a broad audience and devoted to important social or political events, public problems of cultural or moral character. The specific conditions of newspaper publication, the restrictions of time and space have left on indelible mark on newspaper English. For more than a century writers and linguists have been vigorously, attacking "the slipshod construction and the vulgar vocabulary" of newspaper English. For all the defects of newspaper English, serious though they may be, this form of the English literary language cannot be reduced merely to careless slovenly writing or to a distorted literary English. This is one of the forms of the English literary language characterized— as any other style — by a definite communicative aim and its own system of language means. They are lexical phraseological and grammatical means, which is perceived by the community as a separate linguistic unity that serves the purpose of informing and instructing the reader.

Information and evaluation co-exist in the modern English newspaper, and it is only in terms of diachrony that the function of information can claim priority. In fact, all kinds of newspaper writing are to a greater or lesser degree both informative and evaluative. But, of course, it is obvious that in most of the basic newspaper "genres"

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[1] Galperin I.R. Stylistic. – Moscow: Higher school, 1977.-p.295

one of the two functions prevails; thus, for example, news of all kinds is essentially informative, whereas the editorial is basically evaluative.

However, some authors offer to distinguish not newspaper but informational style, which can be used in newspapers as well as on the radio and television .

The main aim of the newspaper is to exert influence on public opinion, to convince the reader or listener that the interpretation given by writer is the only correct one and to cause him to accept the point of view expressed in the speech, essay or article merely by logical argumentation, but by emotional appeal as well.

The most characteristic features of newspaper style are:

-brevity of expression;

-the use of the first person singular, which justifies a personal approach to the problems treated;

-a rather expanded use of connectives, which facilitates the process of grasping the correlation of ideas;

-the abundant use of emotive words;

-the use of idioms and metaphors as one of the media for the cognitive process;

-the use of colloquial words in order to make the news more accessible to ordinary readers.

As a result of this newspapers contain not only strictly informational, but also evaluative material - comments and views of the news-writers, especially characteristic of editorials and feature articles

But not everything published in a newspaper should be referred to the newspaper style. Such material as poems, crossword puzzles, and the like, they serve the purpose of entertaining the reader, and cannot be considered specimens of newspaper style. Nor can articles in special fields, such as science and technology,

art, literature, etc. be classed as belonging to newspaper style Taking into account this and the sphere of the use of colloquial groups, which we have already considered, we can say that colloquial coinages and vulgarisms cannot belong to newspaper style.

A famous Russian scholar I.R.Galperin was the first who distinguished a newspaper style as a separate style and divided it into the following group

-brief news items;

-advertisements and announcements;

-the headline; -the editorial.

The principal function of brief news items is to inform the reader. They state only facts without giving explicit comments; they must be short and understandable for each reader. For this purpose, they use special newspaper words, which can be refered to jargonisms and slang.

The headline is a dependent form of newspaper writing. The main functions of the headline is to inform the reader briefly what the text that follows is about and also to catch the reader's attention through special colloquial vocabulary. Sometimes headlines contain elements of appraisal, i.e. they show the reporter's or the paper's attitude to the facts reported.

The function of editorial is to influence the reader by giving an interpretation of certain facts. Editorials comment on the political and other events of the day. Editorials make an extensive use of emotionally colored vocabulary. Their purpose is to give the editor's opinion and interpretation of the news published and suggest to the reader that it is the correct one. Like any publicistic writing, editorials appeal not only to the reader's mind but to his feelings as well

The main function of advertisements and announcements is to give information about a product or service used to attract potential consumers; advertising takes place in newspapers and magazines, on hoardings, on radio and

television and on the Internet. The vocabulary of advertisements and announcements is on the whole essentially neutral with here and there a sprinkling of emotionally coloured words or phrases used to attract the reader's attention.

In fact, all kinds of newspapers writing serve the purpose of informing and instructing the reader. The newspaper also seeks to influence public opinion or political and appraisal and other matters. Elements of appraisal may be observed in the very selection and the way of presentation of news, in the use of specific vocabulary. The vocabulary used in newspaper writing is natural and common literary. But apart from this, newspaper style has its one of the smartest ways to illustrate the topic and to direct it. It characterized by an extensive use of:

a)   newspaper clichés which are commonplace phrases familiar to the reader;

b)   an extensive use of colloquialisms.

Considering all the information below, we can say that colloquialisms are used innewspaper to attract reader's attention and what is more important to make the language of the newspaper closer to that which is used in everyday life by common people. As we said that professionalisms and colloquial coinages do not belong to newspaper style and most vulgarisms considered to be obscene words to be used in newspaper, slang and jargonisms are the most popular in news language. Clichés occur in newspaper headlines more often to give special coloring and emotiveness. e.g pressing problem, speaking realization etc.

Another example of colloquialisms that is frequently used in newspapers are jargonisms. Such words are used to emphasis on the sphere of the news. Jargon requires work from a general readership. But it also requires work from those who use it. The presents of these words in newspaper is a signal to readers that special knowledge is required to understand the topic at hand. That is the problem for common readers and the great problem for foreign readers, as they certainly need to consult with dictionary. But jargonisms are used in special spheres such as business,

sport, electronics, it mean that people who are interesting in this know the terminology of the particular topic. For example:

"Cookies law changed at 11th hour to introduce 'implied consent…In an updated version of its advice for websites on how to use cookies – small text files that are stored on the user's computer and can identify them – the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO) has said that websites can assume that users have consented to their use of them."

Cookies – is an example of jargon just don't always mean what you may think! This is one example. The term "cookies" is computer jargon. It refers to data placed on your computer from a web server that records the websites you visit, your passwords (if you so choose), your shopping cart preferences, and a record of your website preferences. How are cookies helpful to you? If you use the Internet regularly, cookies allow the websites to "know" you when you return. Pages can load faster; passwords can be remembered so you don't have to key them in each time, etc. Although cookies are not necessary, they are very helpful when it comes to operating efficiently on the Internet.

It is a computing, noun (pl. cookies) a packet of data sent by an Internet server to a browser, which is returned by the browser each time it subsequently accesses the same server, used to identify the user or track their access to the server[Oxford Dictionary].

The Gurdian. Published: Saturday 26 May 2012

"Twinings axes 400 jobs…Some 400 jobs are to be axed in the north east and Hampshire as Britons loses their taste for premium priced teas."

Axe – n, to reduce, to cut, an example of journalisms also jargon. If a person or institution is facing the axe, that person is likely to lose their job or that institution is likely to be closed, usually in order to save money [Collins dictionary].

The Guardian. Published: Tuesday 3 November 2009

"Credit Squeeze Puts Dream on <u>Back Burner</u>... Losing one's job can be humbling and unsettling. But it can also be an opportunity to pursue a dream long deferred, like starting a business."

Back burner – n, if you put an issue on the back burner, you leave it in order to deal with it later because you now consider it to have become less urgent or important [Collins Dictionary].

The New York Times. Published: July 27, 2008

Hobbyists and enthusiasts also speak in jargon. In this case, the jargon usually refers to concepts, which are of little interest to people who do not follow the activity under discussion. Sports fans, for example, may be able to spout statistics and facts about their sport using jargon. To people who are not engaged in the topic, these types of conversations can get very dull very quickly. For example:

"The Canaries <u>keeper</u> brought Jamie Mackie down for the spot kick, but then redeemed himself by saving from the Rangers star to earn a point for the away side...He said: "We have had two <u>draws</u> in two games and that has consolidated things for us. Now we have to get those valuable wins...The Odemwingie transfer fiasco would have been forgotten by Rangers fans had Taarabt's 56th-minute <u>spot-kick</u> not been saved by Mark Bunn."

Draw – n, in a game or competition. If one person or team draws with another one, or if two people or teams draw, they have the same number of points or goals at the end of the game. [Mainly BRIT,Collins Dictionary]

Keepers' countable. In soccer, the keeper is the same as the goalkeeper [BRIT].

In American football, a keeper is a play in which the quarterback keeps the ball. [AM, Collins Dictionary]

Spot-kick n. (Team Sports / Soccer) a free kick at the goal from a point (penal[1]ty spot) within the penalty area and 12 yards (about 11 m) from the goal, with only the goalkeeper allowed to defend it: awarded to the attacking team after a foul within the penalty area by a member of the defending team [The Free Dictionary online].

The daily Mirror. Published: 2 Feb 2013

Jargon, in comparesing to slang, masks real meaning. In most cases it carries no connotation. This research has shown that it is difficult to understand jargonisms for usual reader at the firs glans. Although journalists cannot avoid them because if they use simple words instead of terms preferable in particular topic the newspaper will lose a great part of their audience.

3.2. Stylistic usage of jargonsms in literary text.

The nature of the literary text has always been one of the central concerns of stylistics. Very important observations regarding this issue were made by famous philologists (В.В. Виноградов, Б.А. Ларин, Г.О. Винокур, Р. Якобсон, И.Р. Гальперин). The text of fiction as a specific type of communication characterized by the primary communicative activity of the author and the secondary communicative activity of the reader, has many a peculiar feature.

A distinguishing feature of the literary text is its aesthetic function. The aesthetic function presupposes a certain impact on the reader called forth both by the beauty of a linguistic form and the conceptual significance of its content. The aesthetic information is aimed at arousing aesthetic feelings, i.e. the feelings of pleasure and beauty on the part of the reader. Aesthetics of the text is closely interlinked with the categories of imagery, evaluation, emotiveness. One major peculiarity of the literary text is its complex multidimensional, multilayered structure. it is quite expedient to

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[1] Ashurova D.U. Stylistics of the literary text. – T.,2013.-p.32

single out the stylistic level as one the most significant levels of the literary text. This level is not homogenious, and it falls into the following sublevels; emotive, image-bearing, evaluative. Jargonisms play a great role increating emotiveness and evaluativeness of the text.

The task of interpretation is to extract maximum of thoughts and feelings with which it is imbued by the author.

While decoding the writer's message, the reader must recreate the complete picture of objective reality which is expressed in the text in a compressed and curtailed form. In the ideal variant the reality perceived by the author must be identical to the reality recreated by the reader, (but as a rule complete identity is never achieved because the recipient of the book unavoidably includes his own personal experience (thesaurus) in the perception of the text. The addressee's subjective qualities — his intellect, his cultural and educational level, emotional and psychological turns of mind are actively included in the functioning of the trielemental scheme: addresser — report — addressee', forming new types of re-lationship between them. That is why the pedagogical aspect of interpretation is of great importance because only an insignificant part of readers is capable of mastering a belles-lettres work in its completeness and profundity. A common reader must he taught reading as a specific kind of cognitive-aesthetic activity. That is the main task of interpretation of the text.

The very choice of the subject for the book is usually determined by the 'atmosphere of the epoch and its main conflicts: social, ideological, political, psychological and emotional. The aggregate totality of ideological, social and national problems, literary facts, economic tenor, political tendencies and personal circumstances of creating a literary work are defined by the general term "cultural context".

When the reader comes across some historical facts, geographic or proper names, quotations, allusions and proverbs, which are not familiar to him, he will miss

many important   points and there will be lacunes or blanks in   his understanding of the book. Very often, the necessary information of the cultural context is provided by the commentary to the book, if not, the reader must consult encyclopaedias, dictionaries, the author's biography, an outline of his literary career and other reference books.

A belles-lettres text is a unit of speech and as such it is considered to be a supreme unit of communication, conveying information from one man to another. Thus, it becomes a constituent link in the following system of relations: objective reality — author — literary work — reader. This chain of elements in the creative process shows that the author is the first to grasp and comprehend the objective reality. His results are expressed in his literary work. The literary work is always addressed to the public. Reading the book, together with the information the reader receives a certain impact of the author's will and intent. Under the impact of the author's will power, the reader begins actively influencing the objective reality. Hence, the interaction of the elements in this literary-creative process ends.

The various jargons (which in fact are nothing but a definite group of words) remain a foreign language to the outsiders of any particular social group. It is interesting in connection with this to quote a stanza from "Don Juan" by Byron where the poet himself finds it necessary to comment on the Jargonisms he has used for definite stylistic purposes.

"He from the world had cut off a great man,

Who in his time had made heroic bustle.

Who in a row like Tom could lead the van,

Booze in the ken, or at the spellken hustle?

Who queer a flat? Who (spite of Bow Street's ban)

On the high toby-spice so flash the muzzle?

Who on a lark with black-eyed Sal (his blowing)

So prime, so swell, so nutty, and so knowing?"

The explanation of the words used here was made by Byron's editor because they were all Jargonisms in Byron's time and no one would understand their meaning unless they were explained in normal English.

Byron wrote the following ironic comment to this stanza:

"The advance of science and of language has rendered it unnecessary to translate the above good and true English, spoken in its original purity by the select nobility and their patrons. The following is a stanza of a song, which was very popular, at least in my early days:

1 ken = a house which harbours thieves

2 spellken = a play-house or theatre

3 to queer a flat = to puzzle a silly fellow

4 to flash the muzzle (gun) on the high toby-spice = to rob on horse back

5 a lark = fun or sport of any kind

6 a blowing = a girl

2 swell = gentlemanly

8 nutty = pleasing (to be nuts on = to be infatuated with)

"On the high toby-spice flash the muzzle, In spite of each gallows old scout; If you at all spellken can't hustle, You'll be hobbled in making a Clout. Then your Blowing will wax gallows haughty, when she hears of your scaly mistake, she'll surely turn snitch for the forty— that her Jack may be regular weight."

If there be any gemman (gentleman) so ignorant as to require a traduction, I refer him to my old friend and corporeal pastor and master, John Jackson, Esq.,

Professor of pugilism; who, I trust, still retains the strength and symmetry of his model of a form, together with his good humour • and athletic as well as mental accomplishments." (John Murray. "The Poetical Works of Lord Byron")

Professionalisms should not be mixed up with jargonisms. Like slang words, professionalisms do not aim at secrecy. They fulfil a socially useful function in communication, facilitating a quick and adequate grasp of the message.

Good examples of professionalisms as used by a man-of-letters can be found in Dreiser's "Financier." The following passage is an illustration:

"Frank soon picked up all the technicalities of the situation. A "bull", he learned, was one who bought in anticipation of a higher price to come; and if he was "loaded" up with a "line" of stocks, he was said to be "long". He sold to "realize" his profit, or if his margins were exhausted, he was "wiped out". A "bear" was one who sold stocks which most frequently he did not have, in anticipation of a lower price at which he could buy and satisfy his previous sales. He was "short" when he had sold what he did not own, and he was "covered" when he bought to satisfy his son Jes and trealize his profits or to protect himself against further loss in the case prices advanced instead of declining. He was in a "corner" when he found that he could not buy in order to make good the stock he had borrowed for delivery and the return of which had been demanded. He was then obliged to settle practically at a price fixed by those to whom he and other "shorts" had sold."

As is seen, each financial professionalism is explained by the author and the words themselves are in-inverted commas to stress their peculiar idiomatic sense and also to, indicate that the words do not belong to the standard English vocabulary in the meanings they are used.

There are certain fields of human activity, which enjoy nation-wide interest and popularity. This, for example, is the case in Great Britain where sports and games are concerned. English pugilistic terminology, for example, has gained particularly wide

recognition and therefore is frequently used in a transferred meaning, thus adding to the general image-building function of emotive prose. Here is an example of the use of such professionalisms in fiction,

"Father Knickerbocker met them at the ferry giving one a right-hander on the nose and the other an uppercut with his left just to let them know that the fight was on"

This is from a story by O. Henry called "The Duel" in which the writer depicts two characters who came from the West to conquer New York. The vocabulary of boxing (right-hander, uppercut), as well as other professional terms found in the story, like ring, to counter, to clinch, etc., help to maintain the atmosphere of a fighting which the story requires.

No real sportsman cares for many he would say borrowing a pony if it was no use for a monkey

Professionalisms are used in emotive prose to depict the natural speech of a character. The skilful use of a professional word will show not only the vocation of a character, but also his education, breeding, environment and sometimes even his psychology. That is why, perhaps, a literary device known as speech-characterization is so abundantly used in emotive prose. The use of professionalisms forms the most conspicuous element of this literary device.

An interesting article was published in the Canadian Globe and Mail * in which the author shows how a journalist who mocks at the professionalisms in the language of municipal planners, which render their speech almost incomprehensible, himself uses words and expressions unintelligible to the lay reader, Here is the article,

JOURNALESE

I was glad to read recently how incomprehensible the language of city planners is to newspapermen. I decided to call the author of the ar¬ticle and express my appreciation:

"Hello, I'd like to speak to a reporter of yours named Terrance Wills."

"Is he on city side or the night rewrite desk?"

"I'm not sure. Maybe he's at his type-writer."

The operator said something under his breath and then connected me to the third assistant executive city editor. After about 15 minutes of this I was finally able to communicate directly with Mr. Wills:

"That was a great story you did on 'plannerese', sir," I told him. "Where did you get the idea for it?"

"Why, I just went to the morgue one day when there weren't many obits to do and I got a few clippings. Then I talked with the copy-editor and he gave me a 32-point italic headline with an overhanging deck"

"Is that good?"

"Sure it is. Even a cub knows that. Well I wrote a couple of takes and got it in the box just before the deadline for the second night final edition"

"Is that hard to do?" I asked. My head was beginning to ache.

"What? Sure, I guess. Listen, I would like to discuss this with you further but I am on the rewrite desk and my legman is going to be calling in a scoop any minute now. Good-bye. I sat there with the phone in my hand, thankful that in this complex age the journalists are still preserving simple English.

Thus, professionalisms are used in emotive prose to depict the natural speech of a character. This literary device known as speech-characterization is widely used in prosaic texts.

CONCLUSIONS

The given research was devoted to the study of colloquial stratum of the English vocabulary. It was done with the aim to analyze lexical features and functions and jargonisms in text of different stylistic functions.

In the course of we applied the following methods: analytical, contextual and textual.

The research was done on the material of literary and newspaper text.

Having done the research, we may conclude the following:

The word-stock of any language may be presented as a system, the elements of which are interconnected, interrelated and yet independent. Then the word-stock of the English language may be divided into three main layers (strata): *the literary layer* (startum), *the neutral layer,* and *colloquial layer* .The literary and the colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups. Each subgroup has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. This common property, which unites the different groups within the layer, is called its aspect.

The literary vocabulary consists of the following groups of words:

1. common literary;
2. terms and learned ['leːnid] words;
3. poetic words;
4. archaic words;
5. barbarisms and foreign words;
6. literary coinages nonse-words.

The colloquial vocabulary includes the following groups of words:

1. common colloquial words;
2. slang;
3. jargonisms;
4. professionalisms;

5. dialectal words;

6. vulgar words;

7. colloquial coinages.

The term colloquial is old enough. By the end of the 19th century with Neo-grammarians, the description of colloquial speech came into its own, and linguists began to study the vocabulary that people actually use under various circumstances and not what they may be justified in using. We have distinguished that the style of informal, friendly oral communication is called colloquial. The vocabulary of colloquial style is usually lower than that of the formal or neutral styles; it is often emotionally colored and characterized by connotations. Colloquial speech is characterized by the frequent use of words with a broad meaning (something close to polysemy): speakers tend to use a small group of words in quite different meanings, whereas in a formal style (official, business, scientific) every word is to be used in a specific and clear meaning. Colloquialisms include words (such as y'all, gonna, and wanna), phrases (such as old as the hills, raining cats and dogs, and dead as a doornail) etc.

The term jargon refers to the language used by people who work in a particular area or who have a common interest. Jargonisms are social in character. They are not regional. In Britain and in the US almost any social group of people has its own jargon. In earlier times, the term jargon would refer to trade languages used by people who spoke different native tongues to communicate, such as the Chinook Jargon.

General Characteristics of jargon:

- a special lexicon to preserve secrecy within a particular social group;

- Incomprehensible to people out of the group, needs translation (unlike slang);

- old words with entirely new meaning imposed upon them;

Newspaper language is the medium between two social groups: editor and public. Newspaper expresses in linguistic form common sense between the two groups. Certain newspapers and their readers, the language they use, are responsible for nowadays historical and social situation. Newspaper language has a mass audience, it´s the few talking to the many, and thus has enormous power and influence in the world. Nowadays in the time of television and the Internet, it is difficult for newspapers to keep their readers. That is why the use of colloquial vocabulary, which is more common for usual reader, is of a great importance for their surviving.

Our research has shown that not all material printed in newspapers can belong to newspaper style. It comes that not all groups of colloquial vocabulary can be found in newspapers. We found out that slang and jargon are the most frequent colloquialisms used in newspapers. Their main functions are: to attract readers attention, to give special coloring to an article, to make the information easier for reading by any social class, to draw parallels with a help of their connotative meaning while expressing the ethical, social or intellectual assessment and to keep the audience reading the newspaper. Some may claim that colloquial words impoverish our language but we can see a reversal process, a lot of colloquialisms that used to be slangisms now have become general literary words. For example, the word kid (=child), which was considered low slang in the 19th century, is now a legitimate unit of the English literary language. It sounds unbelievable but not so long ago the words: of course, to take care, to get up, lunch were considered to be slang. And now we use them in our everyday life as well as in literature.

Professionalisms are wildly used in scientific and technical articles, criminal chronic and in the section of art. In newspapers, we can meet it in such section as: sport, business, arts. They fulfil a socially useful function in communication, facilitating a quick and adequate grasp of the message.

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