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Content

Introduction	4
Chapter I. Paradigmatic Meanings of Relatives	8
1.1. The Linguistic Essence of Meaning	8
1.2. The General Principles Tested	16
Chapter II. Relatives in Time and Space Relationships	22
2.1. Space-Time Difference in Functioning of Relatives	22
2.2. Patterns of Phrases with Relatives	27
Chapter III. The Lexicographic Definition as a Kind of Variety of Phraseological Units	
Summary	33
Literature	37

INTRODUCTION

The present work has emerged as an attempt to give some reasonable explanation of the puzzling diversity and kaleidoscopic variability of numerous senses traditionally ascribed to verbal combinations of the type *to go out, melt away* which are sometimes termed *phrasal verbs* in special studies.

The main purpose of this work is to try and trace the way to what seems to be an inexhaustible source of numerous different senses of a single pair of words like *to put out, set up, break off*, etc. We also try to find some ways and means of deducing the right sense of any syntactic combination used in speech or choosing the combination to be used in the right place.

Perhaps the best way to begin the discussion of the problem will be to see what the pioneer and expert in this matter A.G.Kennedy has to say about it. “The use of the verb-adverb combinations has developed so gradually in English, and over so long a period of time, that many philologists fail to appreciate even yet how important a place it has assumed in Modern English. Indeed, there has been much sputtering about it and superficial criticism of the so-called parasitic preposition. But in order to appraise these many combinations in a satisfactory manner, it is necessary to understand them, and such understanding can result only from a careful and detailed examination of various aspects of the usage” [2,297].

For many decades “the verb-adverb combinations” have been the subject of protests and controversies on the part of those who watch the use of the English language. While discussing the combinations used in speech most of critics attempted to show that certain combinations were either colloquialisms not yet justified by general usage, or else that in many cases the second component was a mere verbosity, an unnecessary or even parasitical preposition [1,5]. The zeal of protests, however, seems to be abating now. For, as V.H. Collins remarks, deprecation of some particular usages does not imply that all

such combinations are bad. On the contrary, in the development of the language such formations have introduced innumerable valuable additions to the vocabulary [3,101].

One of the possible ways to discuss the combinations would be to analyse them along the lines of the two problems just stated. Indeed, the exact individual meanings of the two combining components – the **verb** (noun, adverb, etc.), on the one hand, and the **particle** (relative), on the other, would be easily traced in all syntactic combinations. This would enable the student to see whether each of the components expresses its individual invariant meaning to produce various general senses or whether the two components really merge together in a phrasal verb to express a single semantically indivisible idea. In the former case the regularity of combining the individual meanings to produce various predetermined senses would readily present itself and, in the latter case, it would serve as a reliable linguistic criterion to check out all the “phrasal verbs” – the fossilized set combinations with fixed irregular senses.

The combinations of verbs are termed compound or phrasal verbs. And their second components are usually given various names, namely “**adverbs**”, “**adverbial particles**”, “**postpositions**”, etc.

The purpose of this work is to provide the student of English with the knowledge of the “**exact idea**” expressed by each of the relatives discussed as well as to show how those ideas, that is, their meanings “work” in the system of the language, namely, how the meaning of each relative is used in composing a phrase or a wider utterance with a certain intention predetermined by the speaker, on the one hand, and how the same meanings of the components should help the hearer (reader) to deduce the exact sense of the phrase or utterance intended by the speaker, on the other.

Our work is largely based on the eight relatives, namely, *away*, *back*, *down*, *in*, *off*, *on*, *out* and *up*. The reason for their choice is that it is just these relatives that have been pointed out by H.E.Palmer and A.S.Hornby as “the most

important and typical in the class” [4]. It is supposed therefore that the general principles and regularities governing the use and functioning of the above relatives in speech, once established as their objective features, can easily be extended to cover the remaining relatives such as *over, through, round*, etc. [5].

The combinations like *go off, break out, die away*, etc. have gradually developed over a long period and have assumed an important place in Modern English.

In language studies there are two very clearly–marked tendencies that the learner should never lose sight of, particularly when dealing with the problem of phraseological unit. They are the analytical tendency, which seeks to dis sever one component from another and the synthetic tendency which seeks to integrate the parts of the combination or units into a stable one.

These two tendencies are treated in different ways and in different sciences, as we have mentioned in our bachelor paper above, in lexicology, for example, the parts of a stable lexical unit may be separated in order to make a scientific investigation of the character of word-combination or phraseological unit and to analyse the components . In stylistics we analyse the component parts in order to get at some communicative effect sought by the writer or speaker. It is this communicative effect and the means employed to achieve it that lie within the domain of stylistics.

CHAPTER I.

PARADIGMATIC MEANINGS OF RELATIVES.

1.1. The Linguistic Essence of Meaning.

It is natural that we started our study of phraseological units from their lexical combinability, individuality, originality in the choice of component words.

Speaking of individuality, originality and creativity in the metasemiotic sphere leads us to the notion that phraseological units mostly used in colloquial, scientific, publicistic styles. As has been repeatedly stated above it is not possible to analyse semantic combinability of phraseological units without prosodic analysis which objectively, linguistically and scientifically help us to understand the actual linguistic structure of phraseological unit. Another aspect, which is chiefly interesting for us, is definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity. We also focused our attention on Kunin's classification of forming phraseological units. Structural classification of phraseological units worked out by A.I. Smirnitsky was compared in our paper with I.V. Arnold's classification. We compared and analysed the criterion of distribution in the classification of word –groups, investigated the difference between free word- groups and phraseological units, touched upon different interpretations of the term 'idiom'.

We shall state our definition of meaning as a mere working hypothesis and see whether it will help us to find out the regularities governing the use of the word in speech.

We shall discuss the problem of meaning in terms of opposition by distinctive features and see if distinctive features can do for meaning in semantics what they do for sounds in phonology. It has been argued until recently that this method is wholly inapplicable to the analysis of meaning, the possible reason being that the structuralists considered meaning to be “not a

linguistic question”, while in the traditional linguistics it was identified with extralinguistic objects of reality. In recent years, however, some linguistics, notably I.V. Arnold in this country, have made successful attempts in applying oppositions as a tool of research in semantics; others cautiously admit its applicability by saying that “on a reduced scale it is good for showing relationships in a limited semantic field” [6,227].

The meaning of a word is assumed here to be a minimum invariant semantic content. This either does or does not coincide with the whole concept, with all its essential features, to which the word sound form is referred. In the former case it is always invariant and identical both in language and speech, as in hypotenuse, while in the latter it is invariant only in the language semantic system, being variable in speech; foot is now “**the foot of the mountain**”, now “**the foot of the page**”, or “**a measure of length**” equal to 12 inches, etc. The minimum variable semantic content of a word in speech is termed here “sense”. Thus, while the “meaning” is an objective paradigmatic invariant component of the system, the “sense” is, to a certain extent, a subjective, purely syntagmatic variable creation.

The above sense variability in speech may be explained as follows. The original concept referred to say, **foot** – “lowest part of leg beyond ankle-joint” was gradually generalized with only some of its distinctive features having been singled out and abstracted from it as the most striking features to be used for the communication purposes. Once singled out, generalized and abstracted from its original, “maternal” concept, this new semantic content can no longer be identified unambiguously with any one concept in its totality, not even with “its own” original concept, because it is now equally likely to refer to each of the concepts within the set covering its semantic range. Thus, while we always know what hypotenuse is referred to, we can not say for certain what exactly the word **foot** denotes, for it is now “the lowest part of the human body”, now “of

a mountain”, then “of a page”, or “of an account”, now again “a unit of length equal to 12 inches”, etc.

It is easy to see that the original semantic content of foot – “the lowest part of the human body” with all its essential features has become more general, that is to say, that only a few of its essential features have been singled out, abstracted and retained in the new-born semantic content while the rest of them were discounted and dropped out. In fact, their number has been reduced to two, namely, its relative position – “the lowest part” and “its length”-12 inches. These features have, no doubt, been chosen for their immediate communicative relevance and importance. It is these features that have become invariant and constitute what we have termed “the minimum invariant semantic content” – the meaning proper of the word **foot** in the language semantic system. Since these and the like distinctive features constitute the language semantic system, they are said to be “semantic distinctive features”. **The semantic distinctive feature** is the smallest indivisible invariant semantic unit. The meaning, then, is the smallest independent invariant semantic unit. When more than one semantic distinctive feature constitute the meaning they are tied up and held together within the same word by its sound form as their only material support outside the speaker’s mind.

In most dictionaries the relatives are contrasted in pairs it will be more reasonable to examine their meaning just as they are given in the dictionaries in contrast to each other, namely: *up – down, in – out, on – off, away – back*. On a close examination, the meanings of the above relatives as defined in the dictionaries reveal one common feature, that is, they are asserted to denote either the direction of motion to a specific relative position or this specific relative position of an object in space although this principle is not strictly adhered to.

Relatives *away, back* seem to be illegally married because the latter may be equally well contrasted almost with any of the relatives. Therefore, we should treat them separately.

Away denotes the relationship between two objects in space one of which is “at a distance” from the other, “not at or near” it, as shown in Figure 1. The distance may be actual, as **He is away from home now** or resulting from the motion, as **The boy ran away to sea** (left home to become a sailor). With the distance being equal, the difference between *away* and *off* lies in the specific relationships between the two objects related as defined above – *off* is no longer *on* whereas *away* is not *at* or *near*.

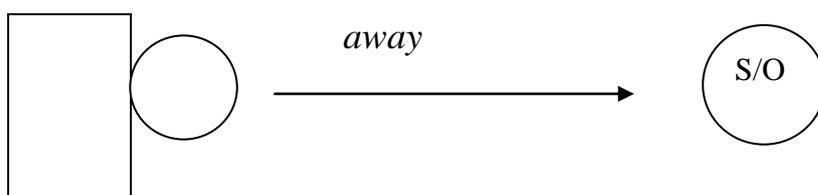


Figure 1.

The next pair of the relationships to be discussed is *up* and *down*. In the New English Dictionary *up* has been split into two homonyms to denote the two different senses as “*up I*” denoting actual movement or direction in space and “*up II*” denoting position in space. The relationship of an object higher in space to some other object which is lower is denoted by the word *up* and the reverse relationship of an object lower in space to another one which is higher is denoted by the word *down*.

Examples:

1. **Oliver awoke with the fear, and started up.** (Оливер проснулся и вскочил на ноги).

(Ch.Dickens).

2. **And then the old house was pulled down.** (И тогда старый дом снесли).

(Ch.Dickens).

The next pair of the relationships to be discussed is *in-out*. The model space relationships of this kind may be defined as follows: *in* denotes the relationship between two objects one of which is within or inside the other

implied, that is, “within a certain space” or an “enclosed place”. **Out** denotes the relationship between two objects one of which is “beyond the bound of, or not within”, the other implied, as shown in Figure 2.

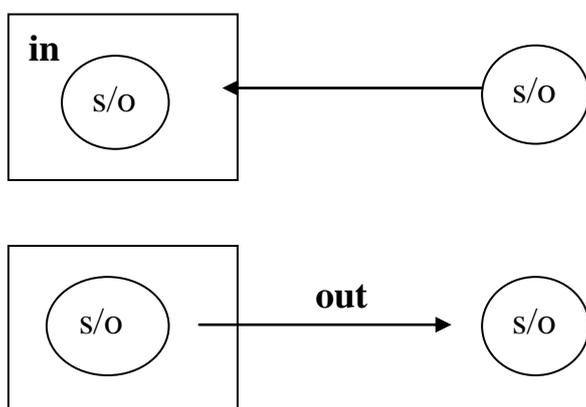


Figure 2.

Examples:

1. He had crept in by the glass manhole and had been screwed in. (Он прокрадывался в стеклянный люк и застрялся).

(H. Wells).

2. The stars went out one by one. (Звёзды исчезали одна за другой).
(H. Wells).

The last pair *away-back* seems to be illegally married because the latter may be equally well contrasted almost with any of the relatives discussed. Therefore we should treat them separately.

Away denotes the relationship between two objects in space one of which is “at a distance” from the other “not at or near” it.

And *back* as “the part of the body which is behind” in its relative position with respect to the front part seems to have served as the model for generalization of its particular relative position to the typical relationship

between any two objects with one occupying such relative position with respect to the other.

Examples:

1. **Get away from the house at all costs.** (Убирайтесь из дома, во что бы то ни стало). (J.Lindsay)

2. **Becky clung to his side in an anguish of tear and tried hard to keep back the tears, but they would come.** (Бекки прижималась к нему со слезами и пыталась сдерживать слёзы, но не смогла). (M.Twain).

Trying to classify the lexical units *on, off, in, back, away* without an accurate knowledge of their invariant (paradigmatic) meanings are faced with the above difficulties. And the result is that the same units with their invariant meanings are variably classed and termed accordingly: prepositions, adverbs, prepositional adverbs, adverbial prepositions, postpositions, adverbial particles, etc. A purely syntagmatic approach seems to be responsible for this uncertainty, as exemplified by the following explanation. **Particles** that form the most typical phrasal verbs are the ones that function now as adverbs, now as prepositions. One can frequently add a prepositional function by simply repeating a noun already in the context [7, 23]. Example:

He came to the end of the bridge and jumped off.

The implication of such explanations is that an adverbial function is just as frequently added to these units by simply dropping the noun that, once mentioned, has lost its contextual value: **He came to the end of the bridge and jumped off the bridge** **He came to the end of the bridge and jumped off.**

off. —————>

It is quite obvious that if the grammatical meaning of these units were not discounted altogether they would not be sent shuttling so easily from prepositions to adverbs, whose grammatical meanings are entirely different: the former denote relationships between things and phenomena while the latter

indicate various circumstances or properties of actions. As a matter of course, it is not enough to reverse the syntagmatic orientation of a lexical unit that it could refer to some other lexico-grammatical class. To do so it should change its grammatical meaning.

The problem of meaning is of paramount importance in modern linguistics. There are 2 main trends in studying this problem: the referential and the functional approaches. The former seeks to establish relationships, whereas the latter to study the word-to-word relationships in context with much the same aim in view. The functional approach prevails in modern linguistics. It uses its technique to describe the meaning of a particular word in connection with other words, thus depriving the word of its independent individual meaning because with different words it is said to have different meanings.

Every word by definition is assumed to have its own individual meaning which is stable and invariant both in language and speech, and if added to consecutive different concepts named in speech, it produces different senses. The individual meaning of a given word may be singled out by opposing the word to the “next of its kin”, i.e., a noun to other nouns, a preposition to other prepositions, as *in-out, on-off, up-down*, etc. If different contexts with the same word are opposed, the sense difference may be accounted for by other words, as in **The fire went out. The fire is out.**

The second components of the combinations like **break out** denote various relationships therefore they are termed relatives. These denote their respective specific relationships now between two objects in space (**He went out**), now between the subject and its particular state in time (**The fire went out**). Relatives differ from similar prepositions only in the way of functioning, namely, they are used without the following noun which is always implied (**Put your hat on the shelf; Put your hat on**). Thus, the term relative stands both for the preposition and for what is usually called adverb or adverbial particle similar in form, as **in, on, off**, etc.

1.2. The General Principles Tested.

It would not be unreasonable now to extend the scope of our study and analyze some other relatives, especially those that function “now as adverbs, now as prepositions”, namely, *about*, *(a)round*, *by*, *over* and *through*.

Before proceeding any further it is advisable to remind the student that the general principle to be tested is this. Certain specific relationships recognized as typical and existing between two different objects in space were taken as models for correlating various consecutive states of the same object in time. The result of this shift from space to time is that the same relatives, namely, *in*, *out*, *on*, *off*, etc. through their respective specific relationships denote now respective relative positions of the subject (object) in space, now respective state of the subject (object) in time, as: **he** and **his home** in **He is in** = “at home”; **He is out** = “not at home”;

It remains to be seen whether this principle is equally applicable to other relatives.

We shall now pass over to testing this principle at work with the above relatives.

About. This relative denotes the specific relationship between two objects in space implying, first, the specific distance between two objects so related, that is, “near to”, “in close proximity to” each other and, second, the specific order of arrangement of one (or more) with respect to the other, that is, “in circuit, around”, “on all sides”. Now, just as in the case of each of the relatives discussed above the numerous different senses of the phrases with the relative **about** are accounted for by the different objects related in exactly the same way, that is, one about the other.

1. A continuous object about the reference object. Example:

Bind chains about him. Держите его в цепях.

2. A discontinued object or several separate objects about the reference object. Example:

There were several men lying about on the grass. Семеро мужчин валялись на траве.

3. Quantities, qualities, etc. about, that is, on either side of, and “in close proximity to”, the reference quantity, quality, etc. create the sense “nearly, almost”. Example:

John is about as tall as I am. Джон почти такой же высокий как я.

Following the general principle to be tested the relative **about** is expected to denote the same relationship between the subject and its consecutive states in time, that is, from “about the reference object in space” to “about the reference state in time”.

Round (sometimes around). This relative is almost synonymous to **about** according to the Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English by A.S.Hornby [8]:

1. “In a circular direction”;

Example: **A wheel goes round.** (Колесо вращается).

2. “By a longer way”;

Example: **If you can’t jump over the hedge you must go round.** (Если ты не можешь прыгать через забор, ты должен обходить).

3. “To or from a place where the speaker is or will be”;

Example: **Come round and see me this evening.** (Зайди ко мне сегодня вечером).

4. “In the neighbourhood”;

Example: **All the neighbours for a mile round.** (Все соседи рядом).

According to the general principle, **round** in reference to some object in space should also denote “round” the reference state of the subject in time. The same phrase **Come round** is susceptible of two distinct senses depending on whether the relationship is between the subject and (a) the reference object in

space or (b) the reference state in time. a) *Come round and see me this evening* = come to my house; b) *come round* = become conscious after fainting;

By. The relationship denoted by this relative implies an unspecified immediate space proximity of one object to another, that is, “near; to or at the side of”. Numerous various senses of phrases with **by** depend on the objects so related and the character of the relationship:

1. Space static relationship (a) between two point objects, the sense is “near, at the side of” somebody, the fire, etc. as in: *to sit, stand, etc. by*; (b) between two continuous objects, hence the sense is “along”, “through”, “across”, “over”, as in *a path by the river*;
2. Space dynamic relationship (a) between two point objects, hence the sense “past, beyond”, as in *I go by his house every day*; (b) between a point object and a continuous object. Since a dynamic point object is identical to a static continuous object, the senses produced are also identical. Cf. *a path by the river* and *I went to Japan by Siberia*;
3. Time relationship between the time point of a particular state of the subject and (a) the “inside” reference time-point, hence the sense is “before” as in *Can you finish the work by tomorrow?*; and (b) the outside time-point, as in *Years have gone by*, and (c) a specific time period, accordingly the sense is “at, in, during”, as in *I don't like to travel by night*.

Over. This relative denotes the relationship between two objects in space, one of which is “above” the other “from one side to the other”, touching (or not touching) the upper surface of the other. Exact senses of the phrases containing this relative are, of course, determined by the two objects understood to be in the relationship discussed.

The typical possibilities are as follows:

1. One continuous object over the other: a) in the static relationship, as in *a rug lying over a sofa; a bridge over a river*; b) in the dynamic relationship, as in *Pull a blanket over me*.
2. A continuous object over a point object: a) in the static relationship, as in *The clouds over one's head*; b) in the dynamic relationship: 1) one object over the other, as in *to climb over a wall*; 2) one outside point of an object over the central point of the same object, as in: *to fall over, to knock something over, to turn, roll over*;
3. A point object over a continuous object. Since any point object cannot span a continuous object “from one side to the other”, it can only be over the other side of the continuous object, that is, “on the other side of something from the speaker or from the side first referred to”: 1) in the static relationship: a) on a horizontal line, as in *The house over the way; the tree over the river*; b) on a vertical line, as in *The balloon was directly over*. Any quantities or qualities are related in this way to produce the sense “above, or more than, the object or the amount compared to”, as in *A general is over a colonel*. 2) In the dynamic relationship the sense exactly coincides, as in *to go over the mountains*.

Through. The specific relationship denoted by this relative is similar to the one just discussed with the only difference that when over, one object is above the other “from one side to the other” and when through, it is inside the other “from one end to the other” or “from end to end, side to side”. And if the “inside” implies within the surface plane from one side to the other, the relatives are mutually replaceable. Cf. *to travel over the country* and *to travel through a country*; “to pass through or over in traveling”; “to travel through the length and breadth of the country”.

The exact senses of phrases with *through* depend, as above, on the specific objects correlated and the character of the relationship – static or dynamic, namely:

1. one continuous object through the other: a) in the static relationship, as in *A path through the woods; A wound passing through the cheek;* b) in the dynamic relationship: *to hammer a nail through the lid of a box; He struck his enemy with his spear right through;*
2. one point-object through a continuous object: a) in the static relationship which is evidently impossible between these two types of objects in space. b) in the dynamic relationship typical for this specific relationship with the point-object “entering at one side or surface and coming out at the opposite side” of the continuous object, as in: *to get a bullet through the head; flying through the air, sailing through the water, walking through the woods, etc.*

Summing up, we might as well say now that the remaining relatives, no doubt, follow the same general principle in their meanings and functioning as those just tested. The second components of the combinations like ***break out***, etc. denote various relationships therefore they are termed **relatives**. These denote their respective specific relationships now between two objects in space, now between the subject (object) and its particular state in time. Relatives differ from similar prepositions only in the way of functioning, namely, they are used without the following noun which is always implied (*Put your hat on the shelf; Put your hat on*). Thus, the term **relative** stands both for the preposition and for what is usually called adverb or adverbial particle similar in form, as *in, on, off*, etc.

CHAPTER II.

RELATIVES IN TIME AND SPACE RELATIONSHIPS.

2.1. Space-Time Difference in Functioning of Relatives.

Before proceeding to discuss the functioning of the relatives denoting the same respective relationships between two states in time it seems to be advisable to discuss the difference between the two ways of functioning.

It has already been pointed that the use of the relatives to denote various relationships between two states in time was historically conditioned by the objective necessity to denote certain limits of an action not only in space but also in time, on the one hand and by the lack of other linguistic means within the English verb system, on the other. Although the objective relationships are practically the same they are not as readily recognized between two states as between two objects in space. Besides, the same relationships differ in some aspects of their practical application to states in time, in comparison with that two objects in space, as will be shown in detail below.

a) Arbitrary and fixed relative positions. We shall try to explain this point proceeding from the space relationships. Any relative position of an object in space is not determined in the sense that the distance between the object named and the other implied is actually unknown: the former may be in an immediate vicinity of the latter, just on the outside, or at a long distance from it. And in case of necessity the distance may be specified, as in:

And they take the sea and put it two miles out.

(Jerome K. Jerome).

Thus the words denoting the distance are indeed a natural syntactic extension to the relatives. Example:

Hampstead's too far out (R. Aldington).

If the relatives denoting their respective relationships between two states combined with space adverbs such as *far, there, here, etc.*, they would at once

be understood as denoting their relationships between objects in space.

Examples:

The fire went out = “no longer burning”;

The fire went far out = “ran far beyond certain limits in space”;

b) Independent and dependent relationships. The relationships between any two objects in space are immediately perceptible as actually existing irrespective of the actions resulting in any particular relationships between the two objects involved. As the consequence of this independence, words denoting space relationships are independent of the verbs and therefore may be used in any position with respect to the verb and, as has been shown above, even without verbs at all. Example:

Leaves fluttered past windows, up and away (K.Mansfield).

The same relationships between the subject and its preceding state in time, however, cannot be immediately perceived, for unlike two objects, the two states do not exist at the same time to be directly perceptible.

The relative resultant states and the relationships between states appear to be entirely dependent on the actions causing the specific relationships between the two states involved in the sense that (1) they cannot actually exist otherwise than effected or caused by the proper action, and (2) they sometimes cannot be even understood without the action “prompting” one of the two states implied. The phrase *The supper is up* may only be understood in terms of space relationship, i.e. **carried upstairs** and **is** there, whereas the proper action at once makes the sense clear: *The supper is warmed up*, that is the resultant state with its temperature higher comes into being only **after warming** as its natural result.

c) Independent positions and dependent states. This paragraph is in fact the extension of the preceding one. In the previous we discussed the independence of the relationships of the actions in general, in the present we shall examine particular dependence, that is to what extent, if at all, any particular relative resultant position or state depends on a particular action resulting in the

respective position or state. As for resultant relative positions in space, they are entirely independent of the actions, as a result of one and the same action the same object may be in various relative positions in space and for this reason the relatives denoting the space relationships enjoy perfect freedom of co-occurrence with verbs in the sense that one and the same verb may be followed practically by every relative, e.g., one may **go** *up, down, in, out, off, on, away* and *back*. We may also **put** something *up, down, in, out, on, off, aside, etc.* Examples:

1) We poked our heads out of the cotton-wood thicket, and looked up and down, and across; nothing in sight.

(M.Twain).

2) And a lantern was seen waving in a strange manner to and fro and up and down.

(H.Wells).

On the other hand, quite a number of verbs may be followed by one and the same relative, as one can **jump** *out, go* *out, creep* *out, fall* *out, walk* *out, run* *out, etc.*

The peculiar feature of the time relationships is the prevailing one-to-one correspondence between a particular resultant state and the action causing it, that is to say, one action of a particular quality may create, as a rule, only one relative resultant state of the object, while another, subsequent state may only be the result of another action different in quality, as **And I do colour up so hot...that I hardly cool down again** (Th.Hardy).

2.2. Patterns of Phrases with the Relatives.

While denoting their respective relationships between two successive states in time the relatives appear to have developed practically the same phrase patterns as in the relationships between objects in space though some of them should perhaps be regarded only as the thin end of the wedge.

I. Co-occurrence with verbs. These are divided into two major groups made up of verbs denoting:

- A. various changes of states;
- B. specific relative states of existence;

The term “state” is used here to mean any activity of the subject that does not cause any radical or essential change of the state of the subject or object, as *to walk, to smile*, etc.

A. Verbs denoting various changes. Four main groups of changes are easily discerned, namely, those resulting from:

- a) the transition of the subject from one state to another;
- b) the partial change of the state;
- c) the complete destruction of the essential features of the subject (object);
- d) the creation of new essential features;

a) *Verbs denoting mere transition from one state to another in time.* Just as it denotes the same quality of motion from one position to another in space, the verb **to go** in **The lights went ten times brighter** (J.Lindsay) denotes the way of transition of the lights from the preceding to the resultant state and the **up** denotes the relationship of the resultant state to the preceding one. Examples:

1. **You won't be the first who has run up a bill here** (D.Carter).

Вы не будете первым, кто повышает цены здесь.

2. **Her failure was sending his temper up again** (A.Cronin).

Её недостатки опять раздражали его.

3. Outside, the wind had gone down (D.Carter).

На улице ветер утих.

With **in** the verb denotes the transition of the subject into the resultant state, whereas with **out** the transition out of the preceding state, the same with **on** and **off** respectively. Examples:

1. Three days and nights ran out (Ch.Dickens).

(Прошли три дня и три ночей).

2. Now calving-time was coming on (Th.Hardy).

(Сейчас наступают холода).

3. The alarm-clock went off, jerking Martin out of sleep (J.London).

(Раздался будильник, разбудив Мартина ото сна).

4. That's where the clockwork comes in (H.Wells).

(Вот где выпускается часовой механизм).

b) Verbs denoting partial respective changes. This is the most numerous group made up of various verbs marked out by one common feature – they denote corresponding changes prompting, at the same time, one of the two states, thus making the general sense clear: *to thin down (a stout person), to fatten up (a thin one), to rest up (if tired), to try out something (unknown);*

Examples:

1. She had stirred Jon up so fearfully (J.Galsworthy).

2. Anna Nelson's anger boiled up (D.Carter).

3. Go to a public-house to get up his strength (Th.Hardy).

In each of the above examples the verb denotes the way or manner of changing the preceding state, such as stirring, boiling, etc. The **up** indicates that the resultant state is higher in its respective quality as opposed to the preceding state. If someone considers his present strength inadequate, or “low”, he goes to a public-house to get it up.

c) Verbs denoting complete distruction. In such cases **up** may be used only with its feature neutralized to denote the complete change of the previous state, as in:

1. So we tore the list up (Jerome K.Jerome).
2. She made him use up a lot of money (R.Aldington).
3. The fire died down when the balsam finished (J.Aldrifge).

d) *Verbs denoting creation.* Examples:

1. And Jon made marks on the paper and rubbed them out and wrote them in again (J.Galsworthy).
2. And then I'll make out a list (Jerome K.Jerome).
3. She forced out a little laugh (J.Galsworthy).

B. Verbs denoting existence in a relative state. This group is made up of a small number of verbs of being and keeping the object in a certain relative state. The co-occurrence of the relatives with the verbs of existence is possible in two cases:

a) when the specific features of the subject and the relationships can reveal the sense of the phrase. Examples:

1. The temperature is up (down).
2. The fire is in (out).
3. The light is on (off).

b) when the resultant state is explicitly specified. Thus, the phrase *He was off again* cannot be understood otherwise than in space relationships. And if the relationship between states is meant the resultant state is usually expressed: **He was off laughing again; and he did it so drolly that Emmy laughed too (W.Thackeray).**

II. Co-occurrence with adverbs. Sometimes there may arise the necessity to specify the extent or measure of the change of the state or just to emphasize the relationships between the states, hence the objective necessity for the relatives under discussion to combine with adverbs chiefly with those of measure and degree as well as of emphasis. Examples:

1. Your fancy-man was so up about it (Th.Hardy).
2. It came more and more in upon her (Ch.Dickens).

3. The whispers died wholly out now (M.Twain).

The emphasis of an abrupt and sudden change of the state in time (straight, right off or away) made it possible for these combinations to acquire the sense of “at once, without delay” [8, right] and extend their use accordingly.

Examples:

1. He stood up right away (H.Wells).

2. I’ve told the man to get the trap ready right away (St.Leacock).

III. Co-occurrence with prepositional phrases. It has already been mentioned that the combinability of the relatives in time- relationships is restricted to a great extent because the exact and complete sense of a phrase is wholly determined by the factors defined above. It is not always, however, that the process of change of the state may continue to the very end. It may well be interrupted somewhere on the way to it, hence the necessity to indicate the extent or limit of the change or even the ultimate results achieved in the case of a complete change. This limit is regularly denoted by prepositional phrases, hence the co-occurrences, as in: **My lady’s income has dwindled away to a very small sum (W.Thackeray).**

IV. Co-occurrence with nouns. Examples of this pattern, though not so numerous, are in fact ample proof that such uses are possible while their actual realization is evidently determined by the rare spurs of the moment. The relatives used in combinations with nouns perform the function of a subjective or objective predicative, as in: **Children played and clamoured so gaily there, day in, day out (J.Galsworthy).**

V. Absolute occurrence of the relatives. This pattern of usage is represented by a couple of examples illustrating both the possibility and the scarcity of chances for its realization in elliptical utterances, as in:

1. What have you got to say? Out with it, lad! (Ch.Dickens).

2. I have only one misgiving about it all. Out with it (B.Shaw).

We have thus traced the use of the relatives when they denote their respective relationships between two different objects in space and between two successive states in time and can say for certain that the functioning of the relatives in time-relationship largely follows their use in space-relationships as its model pattern, for the human mind in its cognitive efforts perceives various successive states correlated in time just as various objects are correlated in space with due consideration for each specific relationship and the states to be so correlated.

CHAPTER III

THE LEXICOGRAPHIC DEFINITION AS A KIND OF VARIETY OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

If we take a unilingual dictionary we shall find that the words which form the separate entries are normally explained either by means of monolexemic synonyms, or by a special kind of phraseological unit, which bears the name of 'lexicographic definition'. Definitions are clearly phraseological units of a special kind. They are quite specific in the sense that they do not form part of utterances. Normally, phraseological units are word –equivalents and they function within a sentence in the same way as words do.

In dictionaries, the definitional phraseological units are, in a sense, also equivalents of words. Standing, as they do, side by side with monolexemic synonyms, they can naturally be assumed to function in the same way a separate word (a monolexemic synonym) does. At the same time, although there does seem to be a certain similarity between the functioning of a phraseological units in a dictionary , and the functioning of a unit in a normal utterance – for in both cases they are word equivalents – there is also a great difference between the two , because a word (as well as its complex equivalent in a normal utterance) is the u l t i m a t e syntactic unit , the ultimate unit of syntactic analysis . In the dictionary neither the word (when used to explain or clarify the meaning of the main entry), nor its complex equivalent (or phraseological unit) are ultimate units of syntactic structure,-the ultimate further irreducible units into which a sentence as a sentence can be segmented.

It follows from what has just been said that a phraseological unit when used as a lexicographic definition is no longer a linguistic unit in the ordinary sense of the word, but a s e m i o t i c unit. This being the case ,it must be studied and analysed in an altogether different way from the way phraseological units are normally analysed in the body of a text . Specific, general-semiotic methods have to be applied to it this case –in other words, those methods which

are normally applied to the study of definition, in general, beginning with the definitions of the basic (academic unilingual dictionary and ending with the strict scientific definitions of terminological dictionaries).

But whatever the deviations from the basic principle ,whatever the particular situation created by this or that peculiarity of the morpholexical structure of the ‘vocable’ ,the main principle obviously remains valid .The linguistic nature of phraseological unit ,the way it is constructed as well as the way it functions in language cannot be fully understood without at least a short note on the specific character of those units which fulfil the very important specific function of lexicographic definitions.

As we have mentioned above in our thesis most productive in English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups , For example: in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: ‘launching pad’-in its terminological meaning is ‘стартовая площадка’ ,in its transferred meaning – ‘отправной пункт’. A number of phraseological units formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, For example: ‘granny farm’ - ‘пансионат для престарелых’. Phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration :’a sad sack’ – ‘счастливым случаем ‘ ; by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections: ‘my aunt’; they can be formed by means of distorting a word group: ‘odds and ends’; they can be formed by using archaisms: ‘in brown study’ means ‘in gloomy meditation’ where both components preserve their archaic meanings; they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life: ‘that cock won’t fight’ can be used as a free word – group when it is used in sports.

Phraseological units can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday. Secondary ways of forming phraseological unit are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit, they are [termin]:

- a) Conversion;
- b) Analogy;
- c) Contrast;
- d) Shortening of proverbs or sayings;
- e) Borrowing phraseological units from other languages.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning, as we mentioned above. This classification was suggested by acad.V.V.Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

1) fusions where the degree of motivation is very low ,we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components ,they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, for example: “on Shank’s mare” – (on foot) , “at sixes and sevens” – (in a mess), etc. Phraseological fusions are such units which are completely non motivated word groups; for example: “to kick the bucket to get one’s goat”, “to show the white feather”. In these word groups the meaning of the whole expressions is not derived from the meaning of components.

2) unities where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), for example: “to play the first fiddle” (to be a leader in something), “old salt” (experienced sailor) etc. Phraseological units : the meaning of such word-groups can be perceived through the metaphorical meaning of the whole phraseological unit or the meaning of which may be seen as a metaphorical transference of the meaning of the word group, for example :” to show one’s teeth “ ,”to know the way the wind blows” ,” to stand to one’s guns” ,”to take care of”.

3) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages ,for example: “cash and

carry”- (self- service shop) , “in a big way “-(in great degree) etc. Phraseological collocations include motivated relatively stable word groups. They have a certain degree of stability; for example:”to take an interest” ,”to fall in love” ,”to look through one’s fingers” , “ meet the demand” etc .

So, the term “phraseological unit” is usually used not to all set expressions but only to those which are completely or partially non –motivated.

Prof. N. Amosova gives two categories of phraseological units depending on whether just one component or both are used in phraseologically bound meaning .If all the components have idiomatic meaning such phraseological units are called “idioms “,for example: “to toe the line”(to do exactly as one is told), “a free lance” (a person who acts independently).If one of the components has bound specialized meaning dependent on the second component she called “phrasemes”. For example: “dutch courage” (courage given by drink) , “to bring to book” (to bring to justice) , “small years” (in the childhood) , “small bears” (weak beer).

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological units, as we have mentioned in our introduction, comparing them with words. He points out one –top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

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

1) units of the type “to give up” (verb + postposition type), for example: “to art up”, “to back up”, “to drop out”, ”to nose out”, ”to buy into”, “to sandwich in”, etc.

2) units of the type “to be tired “. Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions ”by” and “with” ,for example: “to be tired of” ,”to be interested in” , “to be surprised at” etc. There

are also units in this type which remind free word –groups of the type “to be young”, for example: “to be a kin to”, “to be aware of” etc.

The difference between them is that the adjective “young” can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

3) prepositional- nominal phraseological units .These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions ,conjunctions ,adverbs ,that is why they have no grammar centre , their semantic centre is the nominal part ,for example : “on the doorstep” (quite near), “on the nose” (exactly), “in the course of”, “on the strike of” , “in time”, “on the point of” etc. “In the course of time” such units can become words , for example: “tomorrow”, etc.

Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), for example: “to take a back seat”, “a peg to hang a thing on” , “lock , stock and barrel” , “to be a shadow of one’s own self”, “at one’s own sweet will”.

Thus, to sum up the investigations we followed in our bachelor thesis we may say that phraseological units in modern English consist of two or more words whose combination is integrated as a unit with a specialized meaning of the whole. Stability of such units or word-groups viewed in terms of statistical probability of co-occurrence for the member words has been offered as a reliable criterion helping to distinguish phraseological units, set expressions from free phrases with variable context.

SUMMARY

The problem of meaning is of paramount importance in modern linguistics. There are two main trends in studying this problem – the referential and the functional approaches. The former seeks to establish regularities in the word – thing relationships, whereas the latter tends to study the word-to-word relationships in context with much the same aim in view. The functional approach prevails in modern linguistics. It uses its technique to describe the meaning of a particular word in connection with other words, thus depriving the word of its independent individual meaning, because with different words it is said to have different meanings.

Every word by definition is assumed to have its own individual meaning which is stable and invariant both in language and speech, and if added to consecutive different concepts named in speech, it produces different senses. The individual meaning of a given word may be singled out by opposing the word to the “next of its kin”, i.e., a noun to other nouns, a preposition to other prepositions, etc., as **in-out, on-off, up-down**, etc. If different contexts with the same word are opposed, the sense difference may be accounted for by other words, as in **The fire went out. The fire is out.**

It is very important to know the independent individual meaning of each word to deduce the exact sense of a regular syntactic phrase. Yet the knowledge of separate meanings is insufficient to produce correct sentences unless we learn the right way of combining the word meanings in speech. Learning separate words is a very small and the easiest part of learning a foreign language. To learn how to combine words in speech is both difficult and important.

Since the relatives denote relationships between two objects, the isolated combinations like **fall out**, cannot have any definite sense unless we know the two objects so related, as in: **He fell out** -“left the rank”; **He fell out** - “quarreled”;

The relationships denoted by the relatives may be represented as actual or resultant. Accordingly, the relatives are used with the verbs of stationary position and with those of motion. The motion of objects may be denoted by its various striking features denoted by the corresponding verbs, as **The train steamed in**, i.e. came in (to the station) steaming. Apart from verbs, the relatives co-occur in speech with adverbs, prepositional phrases, nouns and are sometimes used alone. Relationships between objects in space are independent of the actions causing such relationships, therefore the relatives enjoy perfect freedom of combinability and position with respect to verbs.

The relatives which are discussed in this work denote specific relationships not only between two objects in space, but also exactly the same relationships between the subject (object) and its specific state in time thus indicating various aspects (limit, duration, etc.) of actions in time.

Unlike the relationships between two objects in space, the relationship between the subject and its specific state in time depends on the action, because it is the very action that produces this particular state. Thus, as a result of warming the temperature of the object warmed goes up, hence **to warm up supper**. It is utterly impossible **to warm it down, in, out, back**, etc., because each subsequent relationship implies a new relative state in time and every new state is produced by its respective action, hence **The supper cooled down**. This difference in the relationships between the subject and its consecutive states in time as compared to the same relationships between two objects in space is reflected in the combining power of the relatives when they denote specific relationships between two consecutive states in time. Therefore the difference in their contextual “behaviour” in both cases cannot be considered as sufficient evidence of the change of meaning or their linguistic status in the language. They develop the same patterns of co-occurrence as in the case of space relationships.

In most cases words are used in speech in their individual meanings and the linguistic tradition of combining them in syntactic phrases and structures with regular senses. Sometimes, however, a certain phrase may acquire an irregular (=idiomatic) sense, which makes a set phrase with a fixed sense. This happens when (a) a regular sense is gradually generalized to produce another sense of a new quality (at hand = “near”) or (b) an irregular sense arises due to improper naming of the object involved. Phrases of the (a) type are termed diachronic, those (b) type synchronic.

The position of the relatives in a sentence is determined by the emphasis laid (or not laid) on them which involves opposition of different relatives or objects of two sentences or a relative to an object within one sentence. The syntactic function performed by a relative depends on whether it denotes relationship between (a) two positions in space or (b) two states in time. In (a) it is an adverbial modifier of place, in (b) it is a predicative with respect to the subject (object) or performs various aspectual functions with respect to the action denoted by the verb.

The main theoretical statements made by prominent linguists such as V.V. Vinogradov, A.I. Smirnitsky, O.S. Ahmanova, I.V. Arnold, A.V. Koonin, Ter-Minasova, G. Gvishiani, I. Magidova, V. Wiener, O. Muminov etc. were followed by us. Scientific postulates and researches which were put forward by prominent scholars in their works on the subject formed the basis of ‘minor syntax’ as opposed to ‘major syntax’ (the syntax of the sentence) and further on, ‘hyper- syntax’, the syntax of greater –than –sentence, or ‘supraphrasal’ unities. This theory is being investigated by linguists.

It is natural that we started our study of phraseological units from their lexical combinability, individuality, originality in the choice of component words.

Speaking of individuality, originality and creativity in the metasemiotic sphere leads us to the notion that phraseological units mostly used in colloquial,

scientific, publisistic styles. As has been repeatedly stated above it is not possible to analyse semantic combinability of phraseological units without prosodic analysis which objectively, linguistically and scientifically help us to understand the actual linguistic structure of phraseological unit. Another aspect, which is chiefly interesting for us, is definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity. We also focused our attention on Kunin's classification of forming phraseological units. Structural classification of phraseological units worked out by A.I. Smirnitsky was compared in our paper with I.V. Arnold's classification. We compared and analysed the criterion of distribution in the classification of word –groups, investigated the difference between free word- groups and phraseological units, touched upon different interpretations of the term 'idiom'.

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