

**MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED
EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

SAMARKAND STATE INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

THE CHAIR OF TRANSLATION THEORY AND PRACTICE



COURSE WORK

ON THE THEME: EXPRESSIVE MEANS OF A LANGUAGE

Student : Tilavov M.

Supervisor : Karimova M.

SAMARKAND –2015

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION.....	2
 CHAPTER I. EXPRESSIVE MEANS OF A LANGUAGE	
1.1. Expressive means of the language.....	4
1.2. Varieties of the language.....	10
Conclusion on Chapter I.....	13
 CHAPTER II. GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY	
2.1. Classification of the English vocabulary.....	14
2.2. Expressive means and stylistic devices.....	22
2.3. Use of set expressions.....	22
Conclusion on Chapter II.....	24
 CONCLUSION.....	26
 LIST OF LITERATURE.....	27

INTRODUCTION

According to Prof I.R. Galperin's definition Stylistic Devise is a conscious and intentional intensification of some type structural or semantic property of a language unit promoted to a generalized status and thus becoming a generative model. Body language must not be confused with sign language, as sign languages are full languages like spoken languages and have their own complex grammar systems, as well as being able to exhibit the fundamental properties that exist in all languages. Body language, on the other hand, does not have a grammar and must be interpreted broadly, instead of having an absolute meaning corresponding with a certain movement, so it is not a language like sign language and is simply termed as a "language" due to popular culture [9, p.53].

In a community, there are agreed-upon interpretations of particular behavior. Interpretations may vary from country to country, or culture to culture. On this note, there is controversy on whether body language is universal. Body language, a subset of nonverbal communication, complements verbal communication in social interaction. In fact some researchers conclude that nonverbal communication accounts for the majority of information transmitted during interpersonal interactions. It helps to establish the relationship between two people and regulates interaction, but can be ambiguous. Hence, it is crucial to accurately read body language to avoid misunderstanding in social interactions [27]

Same part of the language is the study of eye movement, eye behavior, gaze, and eye-related nonverbal communication. As a social or behavioral science, oculusics is a form of nonverbal communication focusing on deriving meaning from eye behavior. It is also crucial to note that Oculistics is culturally dependent.

For example, in traditional Anglo Saxon culture, avoiding eye contact usually portrays a lack of confidence, certainty, or truthfulness. However, in the Latino culture, direct or prolonged eye contact means that you are challenging the individual with whom you are speaking or that you have a romantic interest in the person.

Actuality of the research work. In order to improve the training and provide better knowledge of foreign languages we have to accelerate the realization of the National Programmer of Personnel Training in the country. As in many other aspects of life the situation changed in a language policy. That requires creation of new textbooks, dictionaries, manuals. In order to fulfill this goals one must know every field of linguistics. In our opinion the theme of the work is very actual because expressive means is develop a language.

The aims and purposes of the work. Main goal of the work is to compare, analyze and find examples which belong to lexical stylistic device.

The objectives of the work. There are three objectives: to study 1. function of EM, 2. classification of EM, 3. compare analyses of material.

The scientific novelty of the work. Research scientific materials belong to stylistic devices. The analyses of the expression of language have done in comparing the works done by Galperin I.R, Kukhareno.V.A, and Bobohonova L.T.

The object of the work. Expressive of the language and stylistic devises are main object our course work.

The practical and theoretical value. The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given course work can serve the material for theoretical courses of lexicology, stylistics, typology as well as can be used for practical lessons in translation, home reading, conversational practice and current events.

The structure of the work. Our course work consists of Introduction, two Chapters, Conclusion which are followed by the list of the literature used in the course of research.

CHAPTER I

EXPRESSIVE MEANS OF A LANGUAGE

1.1. Expressive means of the language

All stylistic means of a language can be divided into expressive means, which are used in some specific way, and special devices called stylistic devices. The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word-building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical forms, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language have been fixed in grammars and dictionaries [6, p.25].

Expressive means and stylistic devices In linguistics there are different terms to denote those particular means by which a writer obtains his effect. Expressive means, stylistic means, stylistic devices and other terms are all used indiscriminately For our purposes it is necessary to make a distinction between expressive means and stylistic devices.

These intensifying forms of the language have been fixed in grammars and dictionaries. Some of them are normalized, and good dictionaries label them as intensifiers. In most cases they have corresponding neutral synonymous forms. The most powerful expressive means of any language are phonetic. Pitch, melody, stress, pause, drawling, drawling out certain syllables, whispering, a sing-song manner of speech and other ways of using the voice are more effective than any other means in intensifying the utterance emotionally or logically [14, p.30].

Among the morphological expressive means the use of the Present indefinite instead of the Past Indefinite must be mentioned first. This has already been acknowledged as a special means and is named the Historical Present. In describing some past events the author uses the present tense, thus achieving a more vivid picture of what was going on. The use of "shall" in the second and third person may also be regarded as an expressive means.

Compare the following synonymous forms and you will not fail to observe the intensifying element in the sentence with "shall". He shall do it = (I shall make

him do it) He has to do it = (It is necessary for him to do it)

Among word - building means we find a great many forms which serve to make the utterance more expressive and fresh or to intensify it. The diminutive suffixes as - y (ie), - let, e. g. dear, diaries, stream, streamlet, add some emotional coloring to the words. Certain affixes have gained such a power of expressiveness that they begin functioning as separate words, absorbing all of generalizing meaning they usually attach to different roots, as for example: -ism and -ologies.

At the lexical level there are a great many words which due to their inner expressiveness, constitute a special layer. There are words with emotive meaning only, like interjections, words which have both referential and emotive meaning, like some of the qualitative adjectives, words belonging to special groups of Literary English or of non - standard English (poetic, archaic, slang, vulgar, etc.) and some other groups. The same can be said of the set expressions of the language. Proverbs and sayings as well as catch - words for a considerable number of language units which serve to make speech more emphatic, mainly from the emotional point of view [14, p.55].

Their use in everyday speech can hardly be overestimated. Some of these proverbs and sayings are so well-known that their use in the process of communication passes almost unobserved. The expressive means of the language are studied respectively in manuals of phonetics, grammar, lexicology and stylistics. Stylistics, however, observes not only the nature of an expressive means, but also its potential capacity of becoming a stylistic device.

What then is a stylistic device? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language including EM in which the most essential features both structural and semantic of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification in the corresponding EM. This conscious transformation of a language fact into a stylistic device has been observed by certain linguists whose interests in scientific research have gone beyond the boundaries of grammar. The birth of a SD is not accidental.

Language means which are used with more or less definite aims of communication and in one and the same function in various passages of writing, begin gradually to develop new features, a wider range of functions and become a relative means of the language. It would perhaps be more correct to say that/unlike expressive means, stylistic devices are patterns of the language whereas the expressive means do not form patterns. They are just like words themselves, they are facts of the language, and as such are, or should be, registered in dictionaries. The interrelation between expressive means and stylistic devices can be worded in terms of the theory of information.

Expressive means have a greater degree of predictability than stylistic devices. The latter may appear in an environment which may seem alien and therefore be only slightly or not at all predictable. Expressive means are commonly used in language, and are therefore easily predictable. Stylistic devices carry a greater amount of information because if they are at all predictable they are less predictable than expressive means. It follows that stylistic devices must be regarded as a special code which has still to be deciphered.

Not every stylistic use of a language fact will come under the term SD. There are practically unlimited possibilities of presenting any language fact in what is vaguely called its stylistic use. General notes on functional styles of language A functional style of language is a system of interrelated language means which serves a definite aim in communication. A functional style is thus to be regarded as the product of a certain concrete task set by the sender of the message. Functional styles appear mainly in the literary standard of a language [20, p.49].

The literary standard of the English language, like that of any other developed language, is not so homogeneous as it may seem. In fact the standard English literary language in the course of its development has fallen into several subsystems each of which has acquired its own peculiarities which are typical of the given functional style. The members of the language community, especially those who are sufficiently trained and responsive to language variations, recognize these styles as independent wholes. The peculiar choice of language means is

primarily predetermined by the aim of the communication with the result that a more or less closed system is built up. One set of language media stands in opposition to other sets .of language media with other aims, and these other sets have other choices and arrangements of language means [15, p.79].

What we here call functional styles are also called registers or discourse the English literary standard we distinguish the following major functional styles (hence FS): 1) The language of belles-lettres. 2) The language of publicist literature. 3) The language of newspapers. 4) The language of scientific prose. 5) The language of official documents. As has already been mentioned, functional styles are the product of the development of the written variety of language.

Each FS may be characterized by a number of distinctive features, leading or subordinate, constant or changing, obligatory or optional. Most of the FSs, however, are perceived as independent wholes due to a peculiar combination and interrelation of features common to all (especially when taking into account syntactical arrangement) with the leading ones of each FS. Each FS is subdivided into a number of substyles. These represent varieties of the abstract invariant. Each variety has basic features common to all the varieties of the given FS and peculiar features typical of this variety alone.

Still a substyle can, in some cases, deviate so far from the invariant that in its extreme it may even break away. We clearly perceive the following substyles of the five FSs given above. The belles-letters FS has the following substyles: a) style of poetry, b) of emotive prose, c) of drama The publicist comprises the following substyles: a) the language style of oratory; b) the language style of essays; c) the language style of feature articles in newspapers and journals.* The newspaper FS falls into a) the language style of brief news items and communications; b) the language style of newspaper headings and c) the language style of notices and advertisements. The scientific prose FS also has three divisions: a) the language style of humanitarian sciences; b) the language style of "exact" sciences; c) the language style of popular scientific prose [29]

The official document FS can be divided into four varieties: a) the language

style of diplomatic documents; b) the language style of business documents; c) the language style of legal documents; d) the language style of military documents. The classification presented here is by no means arbitrary. It is the result of long and minute observations of factual material in which not only peculiarities of language usage were taken into account but also extra linguistic data, in particular the purport of the communication.

However, we admit that this classification is not proof against criticism. Other schemes may possibly be elaborated and highlighted by different approaches to the problem of functional styles. The classification of FSs is not a simple matter and any discussion of it is bound to reflect more than one angle of vision. Thus, for example, some stylists consider that newspaper articles (including feature articles) should be classed under the functional style of newspaper language, not under the language of publicist literature.

Others insist on including the language of everyday life discourse into the system of functional styles. Prof. Budagov singles out only two main functional styles: the language of science and that of emotive literature. The development of the English language The Germanic tribes, Jutes (юты), Saxons (саксы) and the Angles (англы), came to England around the 5th century AD and began to live in the Jutland, Holstein (Гольштейн) and Schleswig (Шлезвиг) areas. Later the Jutes settled in Kent and the southern Hampshire (Гэмпшир), the Saxons in the rest of the south of the Thames and the modern Middlesex, and the Angles spread throughout the rest of England and as far as up to the Scottish lowlands.

In Germanic, Angles were called the Angli, and that was transformed to Engle in Old English, and thus the land of all three tribes was collectively called (Engle+land) England. The Jutes, Saxons and Angles held their dialects separately. Later two separate Anglian dialects developed. The dialect of the North of Humber river was called Northumbrian (нортумбрийский) and of the south was called the Mercian (мерсийский). Also the Saxons dialect was called West saxon as they were settled in the west, and the dialect of Jutes was called the Kentish who were on the southern and eastern sides of the river Thames. Thus there were four main

dialects in England.

In the beginning, the Northumbrians held prominence in literature and culture, but after the Viking invasions (793-865) the cultural leadership went to the West Saxon group. In the later part of 9th century the Parker Chronicle (or Anglo-Saxon Chronicle) was written, and thus, West Saxon's dialect became the "Standard Old English".

According to the literary development of the English language, it could be classified as: Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English and Modern English. Old English (9th and 10th centuries) The English language uses the Latin alphabet of 26 consonants and vowels. In the beginning there were very few words of general use like, words of kinship: faedor, modor, brothor, sweostor; 25 names with their inflections like mon, men and some adjectives and verbs. There were two demonstratives: se, seo (that) and thes (this), but there were no articles.

So the good man was written as se (that) goda mon, and a good man was an (one) goda mon. Verbs had only two tenses: present-future and past with inflections. There were three genders. The word order in a sentence was not of much importance in those days as long as the theme was understood.

But Old English is totally incomprehensible for modern English knower. It was more like the modern German of today. Middle English is the name given by historical linguists to the diverse forms of the English language in use between the late 11th century and about 1470, when a form of London-based English began to become widespread, a process aided by the introduction of the printing press into England by William Caxton in the late 1470s.

A great role in literary English played Chancery Standard which was a written form of English used by government bureaucracy and for other official purposes from the late 15th century. It is believed to have contributed in a significant way to the development of the English language as spoken and written today. Because of the differing dialects of English spoken and written across the country at the time, the government needed a clear and unambiguous form for use in its official documents. Chancery Standard was developed to meet this need.

Although it is possible to overestimate the degree of culture shock which the transfer of power in 1066 represented, the removal from the top levels of society of an English-speaking political and ecclesiastical hierarchy, and their replacement with one speaking Norman French and using Latin for administrative purposes, opened the way for the introduction of Norman French as a language of polite discourse and literature, and fundamentally altered the role of Old English in education and administration.

This period of tri-lingual activity developed much of the flexible triplicate synonymy of modern English. Early Modern English is the stage of the English language used from about the end of the Middle English period (the latter half of the 15th century) to 1650. Thus, the first edition of the King James Bible and the works of William Shakespeare both belong to the late phase of Early Modern English. Prior to and following the accession of James I to the English throne the emerging English standard began to influence the spoken and written Middle Scots of Scotland.

Current readers of English are generally able to understand Early Modern English, though occasionally with difficulties arising from grammar changes, changes in the meanings of some words, and spelling differences. The standardization of English spelling falls within the Early Modern English period and is influenced by conventions predating the Great Vowel Shift, explaining much of the non-phonetic spelling of contemporary Modern English. Modern English (1660 onward) Until the eighteenth century the uniformity was the result of social pressure rather than of educational theory. Early English grammars (the first appeared in 1586) had been written either to help foreigners learn English or to prepare English students for study of Latin grammar. On the whole these books neither had nor were intended to have any influence on the use of English by native speakers.

1.2. Varieties of the language

The spoken variety was recognized a couple of decades ago. Originally the written variety is more ancient and better studied. Both varieties are different

according to the two principles: the aim of communication and the situation of communication. Of the two varieties of the language diachronically the spoken one is primary. Each of these varieties has developed its own features and qualities, which in many ways may be regarded as opposed to each other. The oral variety is maintained in the form of a dialogue. Written in a form of a monologue. The oral variety presupposes the existence of interlocutor and it is characterized by the speech melody, rhythm, rhyme, individual peculiarities of the voice. The written variety is deprived of it [14, p.48].

Peculiarities of the oral variety:

- abundant use of ellipses (happy to meet you; who you will?)

By the notion of ellipses we understand a simple sentence with the subject or part of a predicate. The object is omitted and the parts which are omitted can be reconstructed by the means of a situation.

- the use of the direct word order in questions or omissions of auxiliary verbs (you have been to school?)
- the abundant use of shortenings
- emphatic constructions and words (naive that she is)
- incompleteness of the sentences (you don't come, she will)
- the absence of articles and prepositions “when, which” (I don't know he'll be here)
- vocabulary peculiarities “abundant use of colloquial and neutral vocabulary” (infant - child – kid)
- the use of simple tenses

Peculiarities of the written language

- it is carried out in the form of a monologue; the time of the text perception is different; the author has the time to think the text over.
- the written text is characterized by the developed description, beautiful wording, description of details, exact wording.
- it is characterized by the text segmentation, thus the text falls into paragraph,

chapters, books, volumes, syntactical periods.

- the written text is characterized by complex syntactical constructions, use of the participle, the participial complex, infinitive, gerund.
- the absence of ellipses, conjunctions
- the completeness of the information, no incomplete sentences
- repetitions, parallel constructions, inversions.

Meanings of a word. The lexical meaning of any word is the substance of the word which, being reflected in the minds of people who use the language, contains the fixed notion of the thing or process, which this object denotes.

Any word exists in the language in use; thus it develops the so called contextual meaning, which is a meaning, viewed as a category, which is able to acquire the meaning imposed on the word by the context.

Primary or dictionary/first meaning exists both in the language as a system and in the language in use. It can be emotive meaning and exist in the language as a system. It is materialized as denoting the object. Emotive meaning has references, denoting not a phenomena, but feelings and emotions of the speaker to words I feel so *darned* lonely!. Sometimes a word has emotive meaning only. She was not a *flirt*, not even a *coquette*. These words denote a person, who tries to attract the opposite sex. But they both have acquired a derogatory shade of meaning and this shade may grow into independent meaning fixed in dictionaries with special emotive meanings.

Emotional meaning can be found in language in use only. Thus, a word has a contextual emotive meaning. The context can often show if the word should be taken as an objective expression or if it can arouse emotional meaning. (Or wall, or sweet lovely wall!). A colorless, everyday term, acquires emotional overtones. Emotive meaning of words plays an important role in stylistics while emotional coloring may be regarded as a stage of emotive meaning. Anything having a strong impact on our senses may be considered as having emotive meaning.

Evaluated meaning is used both in the language as a system and in use. Here words are divided by positive, negative and neutral evaluation.

Figurative meaning exists in language in use only. (No *help* was need). The word "help" was used in its figurative meaning, substituting the word "rescue". Primary and secondary meanings. Some dictionaries give very extended list of primary and secondary meanings of a word. It's essential for stylistic purposes to distinguish them as some stylistic devices are built on the interplay of these meanings inwardly - 1) within; 2) secretly.

Conclusion on CHAPTER I

Expressive means, stylistic means, stylistic devices and other terms are all used indiscriminately. The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word-building, and lexical, phrase logical and syntactical forms, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. Expressive means and stylistics devices In linguistics there are different terms to denote those particular means by which a writer obtains his effect.

These intensifying forms of the language have been fixed in grammars and dictionaries. Expressive means are commonly used in language, and are therefore easily predictable. Stylistic devices carry a greater amount of information because if they are at all predictable they are less predictable than expressive means. It follows that stylistic devices must be regarded as a special code which has still to be deciphered.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

2.1. Classification of the English vocabulary

In accordance with the division of language into literary and colloquial, we may represent the whole of the word stock of the English language as being divided into 3 main layers: the literary layer, the neutral layer and the colloquial layer.

The literary layer of words consists of groups accepted as legitimate members of the English vocabulary. They have no local or dialect character. 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 including nonce-words [14, p.95].

The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character. That means it is unrestricted in its use. It can be employed in all styles and in all spheres of human activity. It is this that makes the layer the most stable of all.

The colloquial layer of words as qualified in most English or American dictionaries is not infrequently limited to a definite language community or confined to a special locality where it circulates. The colloquial vocabulary falls into the following groups: 1. common colloquial words; 2. slang; 3. jargonisms; 4. professional words; 5. dialect words; 6. vulgar words; 7. colloquial coinages.

The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term standard English vocabulary. Other groups in the literary layer are regarded as special literary vocabulary and those in the colloquial layer are regarded as special colloquial (non-literary) vocabulary. Neutral, common literary and common colloquial vocabulary.

Neutral words, which form the bulk of the English vocabulary, are used in both literary and colloquial language. Neutral words are the main source of synonymy and polysemy. It is the neutral stock of words that is so far prolific in the production of new meanings.

Common literary words are chiefly used in writing and in polished speech.

Common colloquial vocabulary overlaps into the standard English vocabulary and is therefore to be considered part of it. It borders both on the neutral vocabulary and on the special colloquial vocabulary, which falls out of the standard English altogether [23, p. 4].

The stylistic function of the different strata of the English vocabulary depends not so much on the inner qualities of each of the groups, as on their interaction when they are opposed to one another.

Specific literary vocabulary;

a) Terms

Terms are generally associated with a definite branch of science and therefore with a series of other terms belonging to that particular branch of science. They know no isolation; they always come in clusters, either in a text on the subject to which they belong, or in special dictionaries which, unlike general dictionaries, make a careful selection of terms. All these clusters of terms form the nomenclature, or system of names, for the objects of study of any particular branch of science.

Terms are characterized by a tendency to be monosemantic and therefore easily call forth the required concept. Terms may appear in scientific style, newspaper style, publicist style, the belles-lettres style, etc. Terms no longer fulfill their basic function, that of bearing an exact reference to a given notion or concept. Their function is either to indicate the technical peculiarities of the subject dealt with, or to make some references to the occupation of a character whose language would naturally contain special words and expressions. A term has a stylistic function when it is used to create an atmosphere or to characterize a person.

b) Poetic and highly literary words

First of all poetic words belong to a definite style of language and perform in it their direct function. If encountered in another style of speech, they assume a new function, mainly satirical, for the two notions, poetry and prose, have been opposed to each other from time immemorial.

Poetic language has special means of communication, i.e. rhythmical

arrangement, some syntactical peculiarities and certain number of special words. The specific poetic vocabulary has a marked tendency to detach itself from the common literary word stock and assume a special significance. Poetic words claim to be, as it were, of higher rank [6, p.30].

Poetic words and set expressions make the utterance understandable only to a limited number of readers. It is mainly due to poeticisms that poetical language is sometimes called poetical jargon.

c) Archaic words

The word stock of a language is in an increasing state of change. In every period in the development of a literary language one can find words which will show more or less apparent changes in their meaning or usage, from full vigor, through a moribund state, to death, i.e. complete disappearance of the unit from the language. We'll distinguish 3 stages in the aging process of words: 1) the beginning of the aging process when the word becomes rarely used. Such words are called obsolescent, i.e. they are in the stage of gradually passing out of general use; 2) The second group of archaic words are those that have already gone completely out of use but are still recognized by the English speaking community. These words are called obsolete. 3) The third group, which may be called archaic proper, are words which are no longer recognized in modern English, words that were in use in Old English and which have either dropped out of the language entirely or have changed in their appearance so much that they have become unrecognizable.

There is another class of words which is erroneously classed as archaic, historic words. Words of this type never disappear from the language. Archaic words are used in historical novels, in official and diplomatic documents, in business letters, legal language, etc. Archaic words, word-forms and word combinations are also used to create an elevated effect.

d) Barbarisms and foreign words

Barbarisms are words of foreign origin which have not entirely been assimilated into the English language. They bear the appearance of a borrowing

and are felt as something alien to the native tongue. The great majority of the borrowed words now form part of the rank and file of the English vocabulary. There are some words which retain their foreign appearance to greater or lesser degree. These words, which are called barbarisms, are also considered to be on the outskirts of the literary language. Most of them have corresponding English synonyms. Barbarisms are not made conspicuous in the text unless they bear a special load of stylistic information [26].

Foreign words do not belong to the English vocabulary. In printed works foreign words and phrases are generally italicized to indicate their alien nature or their stylistic value. There are foreign words which fulfill a terminological function. Many foreign words and phrases have little by little entered the class of words named barbarisms and many of these barbarisms have gradually lost their foreign peculiarities, become more or less naturalized and have merged with the native English stock of words.

Both foreign words and barbarisms are widely used in various styles of language with various aims, aims which predetermine their typical functions. One of these functions is to supply local color. Barbarisms and foreign words are used in various styles of writing, but are most often to be found in the style of belles-lettres and the publicist style [28]

e) literary coinages

Every period in the development of a language produces an enormous number of new words or new meanings of established words. Most of them do not live long. They are coined for use at the moment of speech, and therefore possess a peculiar property – that of temporariness. The given word or meaning holds only in the given context and is meant only to “serve the occasion”. However, a word or a meaning once fixed in writing may become part and parcel of the general vocabulary irrespective of the quality of the word.

The coining of new words generally arises with the need to designate new concepts and also with the need to express nuances of meaning called forth by a deeper understanding of the nature of the phenomenon in question. There are 2

types of newly coined words: 1) those which designate new-born concepts, may be named terminological coinages or terminological neologisms; 2) words coined because their creators seek expressive utterance may be named stylistic coinages or stylistic neologism.

Neologisms are mainly coined according to the productive models for word-building in the given languages. Most of the literary coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding.

Special colloquial vocabulary

a) Slang

The term slang is ambiguous and obscure. The “New Oxford English Dictionary” defines slang as follows: 1) the special vocabulary used by any set of persons of low or disreputable character; language of a low and vulgar type...; 2) the cant or jargon of a certain class or period; 3) language of highly colloquial type considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or current words employed in some special sense.

In England and USA slang is regarded as the quintessence of colloquial speech and therefore stands above all the laws of grammar.

b) Jargonizes

Jargon is a recognized term for a group of words that exist in almost every language and whose aim is to preserve secrecy within one or another social group. Jargonizes are generally old words with entirely new meanings imposed on them. Most of the jargonizes of any language are absolutely incomprehensible to those outside the social group which has invented them. They may be defined as a code within a code. Jargonizes are social in character. In England and in the USA almost any social group of people has its own jargon. There is a common jargon and special professional jargons. Jargonizes do not always remain on the outskirts of the literary language. Many words entered the standard vocabulary.

c) Professionalisms

Professionalisms are the words used in a definite trade, profession or calling by people connected by common interests both at work or at home. Professional

words name anew already existing concepts, tools or instruments, and have the typical properties of a special code. Their main feature is technicality. They are monosemantic. Professionalisms do not aim at secrecy. They fulfill a socially useful function in communication, facilitating a quick and adequate grasp of the message. 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.

d) Dialectal words

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. There sometimes is confusion between the terms dialectal, slang and vernacular. All these groups when used in emotive prose are meant to characterize the speaker as a person of a certain locality, breeding, education, etc.

Some dialectal words are universally accepted as recognized units of the standard colloquial English. Of quite a different nature are dialectal words which are easily recognized as corruptions of standard English words. Dialectal words are only to be found in the style of emotive prose, very rarely in other styles. And even here their use is confined to the function of characterizing personalities through their speech.

e) Vulgar words

The term vulgarism is rather misleading. Webster's "New International Dictionary" defines vulgarism as "a vulgar phrase or expression, or one used only in colloquial, or, esp. in unrefined or low, speech". I.R.Galperin defines vulgarisms as expletives or swear-words and obscene words and expressions.

There are different degrees of vulgar words. Some of them, the obscene ones, are called "four-letter" words. A lesser degree of vulgarity is presented by expletives and they sometimes appear in euphemistic spelling.

The function of vulgarisms is almost the same as that of interjections, that is

to express strong emotions. They are not to be found in any style of speech except emotive prose, and here only in the direct speech of the characters.

f) Colloquial coinages

Colloquial coinages (nonce-words) are spontaneous and elusive. Most of them disappear from the language leaving no trace in it. Some nonce-words and meanings may acquire legitimacy and thus become facts of the language, while on the other hand they may be classified as literary or colloquial according to which of the meanings is being dealt with.

When a nonce-word comes into general use and is fixed in dictionaries, it is classified as a neologism for a very short period of time. This shows the objective reality of contemporary life. Technical progress is so rapid that it builds new notions and concepts which in their turn require new words to signify them. Nonce-coinage appears in all spheres of life.

Stylistic Classification of the English Vocabulary

General consideration like any linguistic issue the classification of the vocabulary here suggested is for purely stylistic purposes. This is important for the course in as much as some SDs are based on the interplay of different stylistic aspects of words. It follows then that a discussion of the ways the English vocabulary can be classified from a stylistic point of view should be given proper attention. 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 (stratum), the neutral layer, and the 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 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 of all.

The 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 on p.2 demonstrates the aforementioned layers and their subgroups. The literary vocabulary consists of the following groups of words: common literary; terms and learned ['lə:nɪd] words; poetic words; archaic words; barbarisms and foreign words; literary coinages and nonce-words [29]

The colloquial vocabulary includes the following groups of words: common colloquial words; slang; jargonisms; professionalisms; dialectal words; vulgar words; colloquial coinages. 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. 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't have a special stylistic coloring and are devoid of emotional meaning.

Common standard literary words Common standard literary words are chiefly 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 everyday 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 more emotionally colored 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 [20, p. 4].

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.

2.2. Expressive means and stylistic devices

Stylistics studies the special media of language which are called stylistic devices and expressive means. Expressive means and stylistic devices form three large groups of phonetic, lexical, syntactical means and devices. Each group is further subdivided according to the principle, purpose and function of a mean or a device in an utterance. Stylistics studies the types of texts which are distinguished by the pragmatic aspect of the communication and are called functional styles of language. Expressive means of a language are those phonetic, morphological, word-building, lexical, phrase logical and syntactical forms which exist in language as a system for the purpose of logical and/or emotional intensification of the utterance [14, p. 25].

These intensifying forms have special functions in making the utterances emphatic. A stylistic device is a conscious and intentional intensification of some typical structural and/or semantic property of a language unit (neutral or expressive) promoted to a generalized status and thus becoming a generative model. A stylistic device is an abstract pattern, a mould into which any content can be poured. Newspaper style includes informative materials: news in brief, headlines, ads, additional articles. But not everything published in the paper can be included in N.S. we mean publicist essays, feature articles, scent.

Reviews are not N.S. to attract the readers attention special means are used by British am. Papers ex: specific headlines, space ordering. We find here a large proportion of dates, personal names of countries, institutions, individuals. To achieve an effect of objectivity in rendering some fact or event most of info is published anonymously, without the name of newsman who supplied it, with little or no subjective modality. But the position of the paper becomes clear from the choice not only of subj. matter but also of words denoting international or domestic issues. To understand the language peculiarities of English newspaper style it will be sufficient to analyze the following basic newspaper features: 1) brief news items; 2) advertisements and announcements; 3) headlines; Brief items: its function is to inform the reader. It states only facts with-out giving comments. The vocabulary used is neutral and common literary. Specific features are: a) special political and economic terms; b) non-term political vocabulary; c) newspaper clichés; d) abbreviations; e) neologisms.

2.3. Use of set expressions

A set expression is a very wide notion, which covers such notions as phraseological units, idioms and phrasal verbs. Set expressions can be divided into two groups: logical and figurative. The last ones have figurative basis. Phraseological units are characterized by the stability of a form. They are regarded as set expressions ready for use as clichés [7, p. 79].

Phraseological units are expressive means, while they are frequently employed and have no originality. They have emotive meaning as a rule to drop

like a hot potato to stop.

Features of phraseological units:

- stability of form
- the presume of figurative base
- emotive coloring
- belonging to the oral variety of the language

There're two tendencies in the language studies concerned with the problem of word.

1. analytical - seeks to dismember one component from another
2. synthetic - integrate the parts of a combination to a stable unit

They are treated differently in the lexicology and stylistics. In lexicology the parts of a stable lexical unit may be separated to make a scientific investigation of the character of the combination and to analyze the component. In stylistics we analyze the components to get some communicative effect sought by the writer.

And here we come to the cliché [23, p.15]

A cliché is generally defined as an expression that has become hackneyed and trite. This division lacks one point: a cliché strives after originality whereas it has lost the esthetic generating power it once had. There's always a contradiction between what is aimed at and what is attained [rosy dreams of use, ripe = old age]. Definition from dictionaries show that cliché is a derogatory term and it's necessary to avoid everything that may be called by that name. The thing is that most of the widely recorded word combinations adopted in the language are unjustly classified as clichés. Clichés are unregistered in dictionaries. Phraseological units are, and they occur in different styles (belles-lettres, newspaper, official documents). Cliché can be part and parcel of other stylistic devices (sustained metaphor, complex figurative images).

Conclusion on Chapter II

Language can be neutral and expressive. Expressiveness can be distinguished at all levels of the language. Morphological expressive means include the use of second and third persons.

Word building expressive means - the use of diminutive suffixes, such as -y (frequently used). On the lexical level we distinguish neutral vocabulary and expressive vocabulary. [to die - to go West, to work - to labor, fear - horror]. Proverbs also belong to the expressive vocabulary. On the syntactical level we distinguish between the inversion and repetition.

The expressive means of the language are phonetic, morphological, word-building, lexical, phraseological and syntactical forms that exist in the language as a system for the purpose of logical and emotional intensification of the utterance. expressive means exist on all the levels of the language. The most powerful are phonetic expressive means including stress, whispering, high/fall alliteration.

A stylistic device is a conscious and intentional intensification of some typical structural or semantic property of a language unit (word, word combination or sentence) promoted to a generalized state and thus become a generative model. stylistic devices are built according to a fixed model [a nice table, a tasty table, an angry table; a tasty table - a case of metonymy, an angry table - a transferred epithet]. Expressive means are trite and frequently employed. Stylistic devices are genuine to a certain extent. Stylistic devices belong to the language in use. Expressive means belong to the language as a system.

Expressive means are fixed in the dictionaries. According to their structure expressive means and stylistic devices can be the same [a cold day - expressive means, a sparkling day - a stylistic device]. Exits own features and quality expressive means have a trite emotive meaning. Stylistic devices have very conspicuities emotive meaning.

CONCLUSION

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 which deals with the results of the act of communication.

In the conclusion section I'd like to write brief information about expressive means and stylistic devices of the English language with examples. The stylistic device based on the principle of identification of two objects is called a metaphor. The SD based on the principle of substitution of one object for another is called metonymy and the SD based on contrary concepts is called irony.

According to Prof I.R. Galperin's definition Stylistic Devise is a conscious and intentional intensification of some type structural or semantic property of a language unit promoted to a generalized status and thus becoming a generative model. Body language must not be confused with sign language, as sign languages are full languages like spoken languages and have their own complex grammar systems, as well as being able to exhibit the fundamental properties that exist in all languages. Body language, on the other hand, does not have a grammar and must be interpreted broadly, instead of having an absolute meaning corresponding with a certain movement, so it is not a language like sign language and is simply termed as a "language" due to popular culture.

To a very considerable degree this is true. Stylistic 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. The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word-building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical forms, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These forms are described in the textbooks of lexicology, stylistics, grammar and various dictionaries. Dictionaries label them as intensifiers. Although the importance and significance of the stylistic phonetics is obvious, still there is no clear definition of

it, may be because of the extensiveness of the studied subjects and their ambiguousness. Professor Seymour Chatman introduces the term «phonostylistics» and defines it as a subject the purpose of which is «the study of the ways in which an author elects to constrain the phonology of the language beyond the normal requirements of the phonetic system."

In most cases they have corresponding neutral synonymous forms. The most powerful expressive means are phonetic. Among phonetic expressive means we distinguish such as pitch, melody, stress, causation, whispering, and others.

LIST OF LITERATURE

1. Аракин В.Д. Практический курс английского языка. I и II части. —М.: 1998.-515 с.
2. Азнаурова Э. С. Очерки по стилистике слова. Ташкент.: 1990.-180. с.
3. Arnold. I.V. The English Word. —М.: 1973.-260 p.
4. Арнольд И.В. «Стилистика современного английского языка», «Просвещение».—М.: 1981.-390 с.
5. Baldick Chris. «Oxford Concise Dictionary of Literary Terms».—L.: 1996.-460 p.
6. Boboxonova L.T. Ingliz tili stilistikasi. —T.: “O’qituvchi“ 1995.-134 b.
7. Беляева Т.М. «Вопросы английского языка в синхронии и диахронии». —Л.: 1967. -89 с.
8. Genoveva Puskás. “Phonetics and phonology”. Geneva.: 2005. -64 p.
9. Galperin. I.R. Stylistics. “Higher school publisher” —М.: 1971.-172 с.
10. Delaney D., Ward G., Fiorina C.R. «Fields of Vision: English Literature in English», «Longman».—L.: 2009.-430 p.
11. Эшниезова .М. Қўшма сўз Микросинтагматик муносабатига доир. Т.: 2004. №1 24-26 бб
12. Kukhareno.A.V.A. Book of Practice in Stylistics. —М.:”Высшая школа” 1987.-230 с.
13. Kukhareno.V.A. Seminar in style. —М.: 1971.-190 с.
14. Левицкий А. Е., Гаращук Л. А. Поглиблений курс теоретичнонь фонетики англыйского мови. — Вынниця: ПП Фольант.: 2005.-71 с.
15. Леонтьева С.Ф. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка: Учебник для студентов веч. и заоч. отд. педвузов. —2-е изд., испр. и доп.— М.: “Высшая школа” 1988.-271 с.
16. Leontyeva S.F. «A Theoretical Course of English Phonetics. —М.: 2004.-95 p.
17. Mukarramov.I. Xozirgi o`zbek audacity tilining ilmiy stili. —T.Fan.: 1984.-240 b.

18. Паращук В.Ю. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови: Навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов. – Вінниця.: Нова Книга. 2009. -232 с.
19. Пастернак Б. «Литературная Москва».-М.: 1956.-186 с.
20. Жирмунский В.М. «Введение в метрику».-М.: 1925.-240 с.
21. Соколова М. А., Гинтовт К. П., Тихонова И. С., Тихонова Р. М., Теоритическая фонетика английского языка: Учебник для студентов высших учебно зав. – 3-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Туманит. Изд. Центр Владос, 2003. -288 с.
22. Скребнёв Ю.М. «Основы стилистики английского языка», «Высшая школа».-М.: 1994.-364 с. 2015.-28.с.
23. Чуковский К.В. «Высокое искусство».-М.:1998.-260 с.

Internet recourses

24. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phonology>
25. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/expressivemeans>
26. <http://languages.com/stylistic>
27. <http://stylisticlanguages.en/reference>
28. <http://reference.yourdictionary.com/word-definitions/differences-between-phonetics-and-phonology.html>
29. www.lcs.pomona.edu/page15/page1/page1.html
30. www.staff.unioldenburg.de/cornelia.hamann/download/Phonology.pdf