

начка, сберажэнне на чорны дзень», але даслоўны пераклад яе — «яйка ў гняздзе». Менавіта англійскі варыянт лепей перакладаць у звязцы «схаваць што-небудзь на чорны дзень».

Даслоўны пераклад ідыёмы “*a pie in the sky*” [6, с. 18] — «пірог у небе», абсалютным эквівалентам гэтай фразы з’яўляецца беларускі фразеалагізм «*журавель у небе*», што абазначае «аддаленую будучыню, нешта няпэўнае» [5, с. 124].

Ідыёма “*a piece of cake*” [6, с. 19], даслоўны пераклад якой на беларускую мову «кусок торта», мае значэнне «дробезь, пара дробезяў», беларускім эквівалентам у гэтым выпадку можа паслужыць фразеалагічная адзінка «*без сучка і без задзірынкі*» [5, с. 47], што абазначае «*вельмі лёгка, добра, без перашкод і ўскладненняў*».

“*Daily bread*” [6, с. 55] — гэта ідыёма, эквівалентам якой у беларускай мове з’яўляецца фразеалагізм «*хлеб надзённы*» [5, с. 387], што з’яўляецца паўкалькай з царкоўнаславянскай мовы і мае значэнне «неабходныя сродкі для жыцця».

“*Drive smb bananas/nuts*” [6, с. 59] даслоўна перакладаецца як «ганяць бананы (арэхі)» і азначае «вывесці каго-небудзь з сябе». У «Этымалагічным слоўніку фразеалагізмаў» можна знайсці адпаведнік дадзенай ідыёме: «*іграць на нервах*», што адносіцца да перакладу з відам эквівалент, у слюўніку І. Я. Лепешаў падае наступнае вызначэнне фразеалагізма: «*наўмысна нерваваць, злаваць, раздражняць каго-небудзь*» [5, с. 168].

Ідыёма “*forbidden fruit*” [6, с. 65], узятая з Бібліі, перакладаецца на беларускую мову як «*забаронены плод*», што таксама з’яўляецца фразеалагізмам і мае значэнне: «штосьці прывабнае, спакуслівае, але недазволенае» [5, с. 125].

Заклучэнне. У англійскіх ідыёмах з канцэптам «ежа» выкарыстоўваюцца словы: «*тлушч*», «*бульба*», «*вяршкі*», «*сыр*», «*яйка*», «*пірог*», «*торт*», «*хлеб*», «*банан*», «*арэх*», «*плод*», але большасць з іх дачынення да перакладу на беларускую мову не мае.

Адназначым, што сярод разгледжанага моўнага матэрыялу толькі ідыёма “*daily bread*” перакладаецца на беларускую мову з ужываннем той жа лексемы «хлеб» у варыянце «*хлеб надзённы*». Блізкасць лексем пры перакладзе таксама назіраецца ў ідыёме “*forbidden fruit*”, якая перадаецца з дапамогай канцэпта «плод» (сустрэкаюцца варыянты з канцэптам «яблык»): «*забаронены плод*». Такі пераклад можа быць абумоўлены тым, што гэтыя ідыёмы і фразеалагізмы біблейскага паходжання, і ўжываюцца яны ў абедзвюх мовах як устойлівыя выразы.

Астатнія ж ідыёмы, прыведзеныя раней, не варта даслоўна перакладаць на беларускую мову. Пры такім перакладзе губляецца сэнс выказвання, з-за адрозненняў у моўных карцінах свету англійскага і беларускага народаў. Пры перакладзе тэкстаў з англійскай мовы, у змесце якіх ёсць падобныя фразеалагічныя адзінкі, мэтазгодна выкарыстоўваць, калі гэта магчыма, эквіваленты або аналагі з беларускіх фразеалагізмаў. У іншым выпадку, можна выкарыстоўваць апісальны або антанімічны пераклады, калькаванне і камбінаваны пераклад. У дадзеным артыкуле прадстаўлены пераклады з англійскай мовы на беларускую шляхам падбора эквівалентаў і аналагаў.

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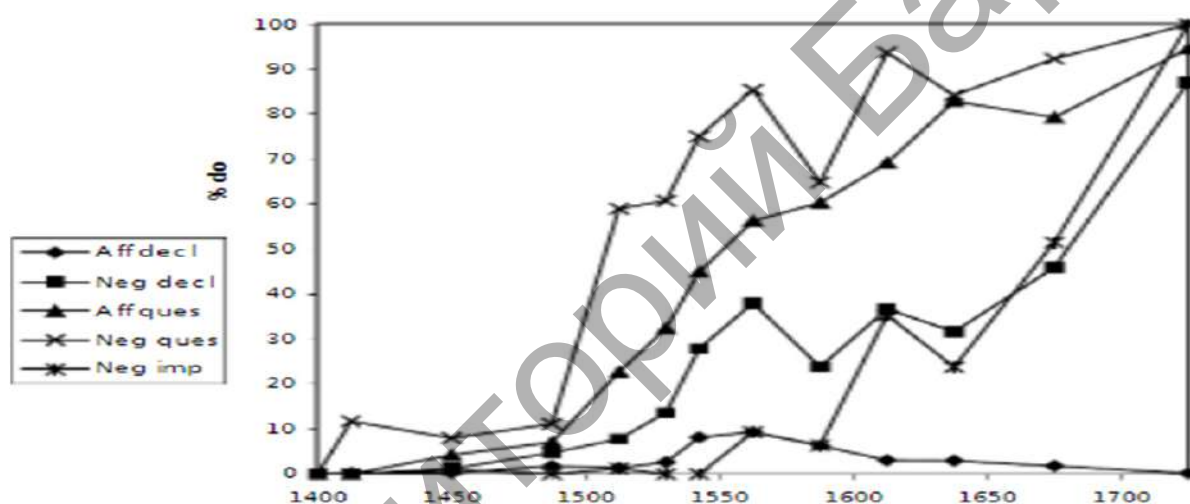
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A SUCCINCT EXCURSUS INTO THE HISTORY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF “DO” AS A MAIN VERB AND AUXILIARY “DO” IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS NEIGHBOURING LANGUAGES

Introduction. Historically, there were four periods in the development of the English language, and these are, to name: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME), Early Modern English (EME) and Modern English (ME/NE). Old English was brought to the island of Great Britain by the Germanic tribes of Anglo-Saxons in the mid-fifth century, the first English literary works dated back to the mid-seventh century. This is supposed to be called the

starting point of the English language. The era of Old English ceased to exist in the late-eleventh century pertaining to the conquest of Anglia by Normans, Bretons, Flemish and men from other provinces of the kingdom of France, who were led by the duke of Normandy William or William the Bastard, so basically the blossoming of Old English took place in between the mid-fifth century and 1066 AD. The Oxford English Dictionary specifies the time when such a form of the English language was spoken by the population of England as being from 1150 to 1500. For as much as the prestige of writing in French that came after the Norman conquest was dictated by Norman cultural and linguistic domination, very little of the examples of early Middle English literature has survived. But it's worth mentioning, thanks to this exact period, in the fourteenth century the first works written in literary English emerged, i.e. John Wycliffe advocated translation of the Bible into the common vernacular language of the times, the language of the plebs, he is said to have completed a translation direct from the Vulgate into Middle English — a version now known as Wycliffe's Bible; Geoffrey Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, which is widely regarded as Chaucer's magnum opus and etc. Early Modern English or Early New English is the stage of the English language from the beginning of the Tudor period (1485) to the English Interregnum (1649—1660) and the Stuart Restoration (1660), or from the transition from Middle English, in the late 15th century, to the transition to Modern English, in the mid-to-late 17th century. Modern English is the form of the English language spoken since the Great Vowel Shift in England, which began in the late 14th century and was completed in roughly 1550.

Main part. We are able now to trace out imprints indicating the first cases of do-support usage in the beginning of the fifteenth century, the first unambiguous uses date from around 1600, the diagram proposed (picture 1) in 1953 by Swedish linguist and scholar Alvar Ellegård shows the negative questions going upwards at the break of the fifteenth century. Affirmative (emphatic) *do* was already used at the time, but it apparently did not enjoy much popularity.



Picture 1 — How the use of periphrastic *do* progressed through different syntactic environments during Early Modern English

We can tell from the diagram the popularity of negative, affirmative questions and negative declaratives has risen dramatically in comparison with emphatic *do*, which, however, still can be encountered in writing. The picture plots the relative frequency of *do*-forms in affirmative and negative declaratives, in affirmative and negative questions and in negative imperatives, based on a sample of more than ten thousand tokens. After the middle of the sixteenth century, the frequency of *do* in non-emphatic affirmative sentences decline steadily until, by the seventeenth century, the use of *do* in this environment is prohibited. The use of this verb in negative declarative and in affirmative and negative questions rises continuously until sometime after the eighteenth century it becomes obligatory in these constructions. Affirmative declaratives act as an intensifier in a sentence when a speaker is trying to mark out the miserableness, falsehood and groundlessness of someone's statement or utterance. Also it can be taken use of when contrasting negative and affirmative statements, e.g.: "Now, I don't speak Chinese, but I do speak a little Polish, a little Korean, and a few words in half a dozen other languages"; "This comes from my living in New York City where I encountered people from every nationality on a regular basis"; "I know it doesn't look like it, but I really do work hard around here. It's just that I'm so disorganised that I never finish anything I start." David Denison in his article "The origins of periphrastic Do: Ellegård and Visser reconsidered" published by John Benjamin Publishing Company within the confines of "Papers from the 4th International Conference on English Historical Linguistics, Amsterdam, April 10—13, 1985" states that the motivation of the semantic change was not strictly linguistic, but also contributed to periphrastic *do* as a convenience in rhyming verse, because this change allows the lexical verb appears as an infinitive in rhyming position and also offers a bit of metrical padding. Also David Denison notes that once the construction has come into use in south-western poetic texts, it spreads gradually to other areas and prose. Two approaches towards the origins of periphrastic *do* in the theory of this auxiliary verb are semantic and syntactic:

Semantic approach. The rule for word order in Germanic languages is that the finite verb in main clauses should be in second position. This used to be the case in English until the fifteenth century. In German this rule is still at work (e.g. “*In diesem Jahr ging König Edward nach Maldon*” — *This year king Edward headed to Maldon*). By the fifteenth century the word order in English sentences had changed in that the subject in main clauses preceded the main verb (*That oon of hem gan callen to his knave* (Chaucer: 666)). Additionally, the object could no longer be placed before the main verb in declarative sentences because without inflection it was not distinguishable from the subject phrase any more. With this restriction to Subject-Verb-Object word order the syntax of ME changed into the modern type that is still valid for PDE. This subject-verb inversion occurs especially in sentences with adverbs and NPs which function as a topic in front position. Until the end of the fifteenth century wh-questions as well as yes/no-questions show subject-verb inversion as in “*Why cridestow?*” [1, p. 45—47; 2].

Syntactic approach. The syntactic approach clearly states that the syntactic and phonological environment influenced the adoption of periphrastic *do* in questions. Stein, however, argues that its rapid rise in questions is not syntactically but socio- stylistically induced. His approach is based on the concept of contrastivity. In the case of questions, he separates normal questions from rhetorical questions. Not differentiating between the two would mean to ignore central differences in their pragmatic character. Rhetorical questions are characterised as “indirekte Behauptungen” which are exactly the opposite of normal questions. Rhetorical questions involve the contrasting of propositions. If they are labeled as (indirect) assertions containing *do* then the highlighting function of *do* as explained above includes the contrasting of propositions. For this reason, they can be seen as a part of the contrastive meaning of *do*. Stein suggests that the use of *do* in direct affirmative questions and direct negative questions has, compared to the other uses of *do*, such a high frequency because they had a “status as rhetorical stock-in-trade of the time”. However, the language-external factors that triggered the use of *do* in the sixteenth century cannot explain the development of periphrastic *do* in the following century. Since causative *do* mainly occurs in the second person context (directive use) the evolution of *do* in questions in the seventeenth century starts from this context. It is a process with the aim to avoid undesired endings like *-st* or *-edst* [2].

Do as a tense-carrier on the case of affirmative sentences. From a syntactic point of view, the use of *do* in affirmative sentences was simply periphrastic and had the same meaning as simple present or past tense constructions without it. Examples are found in OE, “*Æ fire d æ m hie dydon æ yþ er ye cyninga ricu settan ye niwu ceastra timbredon*” (K. Æ lfred ca.893, as quoted in the OED 1985: 905, 25 a.). Although there are examples of it in OE manuscripts the use of *do* as a tense-carrier without meaning was only frequently used in early ME dialects of southern England. In his discussion of Margaret Paston’s uses of *do* Norman Davis (1972) provides some examples of the auxiliary *do* from late ME, “*I hope ye shall be at hom so sone that I woll do wryte nomore tydyngys to yow*” (prob. 1451) and “*I rood in to my mastres your moder and she dede aske me after my master Berney [...]*” (1448 or 1451). It was used frequently from around the year 1500 to 1700. However, causative *do* was still in use at that time. However, the use of periphrastic *do* as an unstressed tense marker is still very common in affirmative sentences in the dialect of East Somerset. Apparently, it occurs typically in contexts of habitual or characteristic activities as shown in the following example by Ossi Ihalainen (1976: 615): “*We did come back then and we did have a glass or two of cider, and then we did go and have a bit of breakfast, come out again and then we did have another drink before we did start off*” [2; 3].

	NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE (cf Note)
base	<i>do</i> /dʊ:/, /dʊ/, /də/	<i>do not</i>	<i>don't</i> /dɒnt/
-s form	<i>does</i> /dʌz/, /dəz/	<i>does not</i>	<i>doesn't</i> /'dʌznt/
past	<i>did</i> /dɪd/	<i>did not</i>	<i>didn't</i> /'dɪdnt/
-ing form (main verb only)	<i>doing</i> /'dʊ:ɪŋ/		
-ed participle (main verb only)	<i>done</i> /dʌn/		

Picture 2 — Forms of *do*

As we can see, *do* has eleven grammatical forms and two semantic forms, one of which has different variations depending on the context and the sense *do* is meant to convey in a particular sentence. There is sense to note that the verb to *do* just like other modal verbs in English can form different phrasal verbs, for example: *do in* (kill; exhaust, tire); *do out of* (cheat somebody out of something that is rightfully theirs); *do over* (do something again from the beginning; especially because you did it badly the first time); *do up* (close or fasten clothes, repair, renovate); *do with* (wish for or ask); *do without* (manage without something) and etc. Also, inasmuch as the topic of the history of do-support evolution is under much discussion and is constantly negotiated, it would be appropriate to visualise also the standpoint different from the ones that were previously envisioned [4; 5].

Conclusion. Despite the fact the verb is the belonging of all West Germanic languages, and the Anglic (English and Scots) languages and Frisian varieties of West Germanic languages from the Anglo-Frisian languages, this is English and Scots that have advanced do-support system. As can be seen the content of the given paper, there are no consensus over the origins of this remarkable and notable phenomenon in the family of Germanic languages as auxiliary *do*. There have been semantic and syntactic approaches to the issue of do-support origination considered, as well different periods for do-support development chosen and set. This is another evidence of the complexity and diversity of the English language influenced by the tongues of its neighbours. By the end of the eighteenth century, however, the syntax of the English was completely formed so archaic element has been still subsisting only in Irish English and Scottish English, which is unsurprisingly since as the practice shows, the further native speakers from the cultural linguistic hub of their realm, the more archaisms they have, like in the case of the Russian Federation, where in Yakutia names widely used before the October Revolution of 1917 still enjoy the popularity.

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THESAURUS AS AN AUXILIARY ELEMENT WHEN WORKING WITH LEXICAL MINIMUM OF THE PROFESSIONAL FIELD

Introduction. Yu. N. Karaulov defines thesaurus as a way of representing semantic space [1, p. 239]. It is a means of forming the lexicon of a future specialist, for example, in the agricultural field. The thesaurus defines the area of knowledge of a certain area and helps to understand which common words or terms should be paid attention to when studying a certain topic. In addition to the definition, generic relations, synonyms, antonyms, there can also be found associative series, which often facilitate work with the word, as well as with the text of which it is an integral part. A feature of the thesaurus is the possibility of including only terms in it, as well as looking at them structurally, systematically.

Thesaurus can also be considered a way of structuring scientific knowledge in the field of agriculture.

As a rule, not all manuals are provided with glossaries and dictionaries. Dictionaries of terms exist for structuring scientific knowledge. There is an insufficient number of dictionaries on agriculture at the present time. And those that exist do not reflect the current state of terminology in this area. The solution to this problem may be the creation of a new thesaurus on agriculture. Often in educational dictionaries, information can be presented in an abbreviated form without the system relations between terms and functioning in texts [2, p. 3].

Thesaurus dictionaries can also help in solving this problem. As N. Yu. Rusova notes, their function consists in “ordering in the conceptual and verbal form of the substance of the content of a given language” [3, p. 29]. Unlike alphabetic dictionaries, thesaurus dictionaries are built according to semantic proximity. Naturally, requirements are imposed on it, taking into account the requirements of the addressee. The texts were selected for the analysis and formation of the dictionary; the structure is being developed (during transferring the thesaurus to electronic form, it is planned to reinforce the name with a record of voicing with correct pronunciation, pop-ups, as well as the use of not only color illustrations, but also video resources). All this helps to make the dictionary interactive [4, p. 71].

Main part. The selection of the vocabulary in the thesaurus is carried out mainly from the main and additional educational literature. Modern terminology, repeated in several sources, was selected for our thesaurus dictionary. The task was to reflect the current state of agricultural terminology.

In this regard, before starting to compile a glossary, it is necessary to draw up a detailed scheme of the discipline, in our case, the Technology of agricultural production, and it is important to include the most significant terms in the structure by profile.