

Ministry of Science and Higher Education of the Russian Federation
South Ural State University
INSTITUTE OF LINGUISTICS AND INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Reviewer

_____/N. N. Koshkarova/

_____ 2020

Head of Department

_____/K. N. Volchenkova/

_____ 2020

The Intensifiers in English Academic Discourse

MASTER'S THESIS

Supervisor:

Associate Professor T.Yu. Peredrienko,
Candidate of Philology

_____ 2020

Student: Li Caili

Group: LM-280

_____ 2020

Controller:

Associate Professor E.I. Khabirova
Candidate of Philology

_____ 2020

Defended with the grade:

_____ 2020

Chelyabinsk

2020

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	4
CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT ACADEMIC DISCOURSE	
1.1 THE CONCEPT OF DISCOURSE IN MODERN LINGUISTICS.....	7
1.2 THE FORMATION OF THE MODERN ENGLISH ACADEMIC DISCOURSE.....	14
1.3 RESULTS.....	17
CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUD INFORMATION AND THE CATEGORY OF INTENSITY.....	19
2.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT INTENSITY.....	19
2.2 CLASSIFICATION OF INTENSIFIERS.....	25
2.3 INTENSITY AS A MULTILEVEL SYSTEM OF MORDEN ENGLISH, FUNCTIONS OF INTENSIFIERS	31
2.4 COGNITIVE APPROACH TO THE CLASSIFICATION OF INTENSIFIERS.....	33
2.5 RESULTS.....	33
CHAPTER THREE: INTENSITY CATEGORY ANALYSIS IN MODERN ENGLISH.....	34
3.1 SEMANTIC AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF INTENSIFIERS	34
3.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF INTENSIFIERS.....	42
3.3 SYTANCTIC ANALYSIS OF INTENSIFIERS	45
3.4 RESULTS	48
CONCLUSION	50
REFERENCES	51

ABSTRACT

The topic of the master's thesis is "The Intensifiers in English Academic Discourse". Intensity is a linguistic category that separates linguistic units which serve to enhance the utterance or part of it. "Intensity is the quality of language which indicates the degree to which the speaker's attitude toward a concept deviates from neutrality" (Bradac, Bowers & Courtright, 1979: 258). Being a vivid means of creating expressiveness of the text, the category of intensity allows to enhance the impact on a reader. **The purpose of the thesis** is to consider the means of expressing the category of intensity in modern English academic discourse, as well as to show the specifics of the means of expressing the intensity feature in modern English academic discourse. **To attain this**, we study the frequency of adverbs intensifiers usage in the scientific articles presented in English top rated open access journals. We use **the descriptive method, the method of semantic analysis, the method of statistical analysis, as well as the method of continuous sampling of material** from articles submitted to high-ranking journals in English. **The scientific novelty** of the work is defined by the fact that the function of adverb intensifiers in academic discourse has not been previously studied. In addition, the problems related to the classification and definition of intensifiers are covered. The findings **of this analysis** suggest that intensifiers play an important role in academic discourse since they can create expressiveness and have an impact on a reader. Semantically intensifiers are divided into maximizers, boosters, approximators, compromisers, diminishers and minimizers. **Maximizers** denote the upper extreme of the scale. The **boosters** define a high degree of scale. **Approximators** can change one's understanding of the topic to the actual situation and can change the original meaning of the discourse structure. **Compromisers** reach out towards an assumed norm but at the same time reduce the force of the verb. **Diminishers**, scale downwards and roughly mean 'to a small extent'. **Minimizers**, which are negative maximizers, '(not) to any extent' (Quirk, 1985). In conclusion, the author presents the main finding of the work and discusses the possibilities of further research in the area of intensity.

INTRODUCTION

“Intensity is the quality of language which indicates the degree to which the speaker’s attitude toward a concept deviates from neutrality” (Bradac, Bowers & Courtright, 1979: 258). Due to the fact that intensity is a complex cognitive and language phenomenon, it can be quite challenging to differentiate between degrees of intensity. However, it is further possible to distinguish between various degrees within both, the higher and the lower intensity. The studies of evaluation, have shown that “upward direction seems to be more differentiated” (Seiler, 1991: 53). The use of intensifiers in the written mode often impacts the quality of academic discourse. That is the reason for this category to become the focus of attention for many linguists.

In a scientific text, in the discourse, “the category of intensity has the expressive character and first of all, it helps the author to focus on the most significant, from his point of view, moments of reasoning and / or to strengthen the evaluation characteristics given to the studied material” (Rodionova, 2008: 470)

The scientific discussion moves along the line of cooperation in the speech strategy, acquiring a semi-conventional character. The implementation of speech acts may vary in depending on its expressive-emotional intensity. The purpose of the research is to study and identify the ways of intensifying assessment in academic discourse.

The research material was obtained by the method of selection from the scientific articles presented in English top-rated open access journals. The applied methods also allowed the author to describe the common features in the use of intensifiers, as well as particular features that reflect the national specificity of their use in English.

We suppose that the present research makes a contribution in that regard, although it is clear that, having established some of the influences on the cross-cultural linguistic study of intensifiers, a priority in future research will be to explore in the area of sociolinguistic features of intensifiers.

A significant number of linguistic works are devoted to the study of the intensity category (I.I. Ubin 1974, I.I. Turansky 1990, L.A. Belovolskaya 1999, Sheigal 2000, etc.). Despite the wide interest of researchers in this category, there are still no generalizing works considering intensity as an independent linguistic category. There are practically no works devoted to a comparative analysis of functions, the semantics of multilevel means of expressing the category of intensity, their functioning in various languages. Being a vivid means of creating expressiveness of the text, the category of intensity allows to enhance the impact on a reader. All of the above determines the relevance of our study.

The object of study is the means of expressing the category of intensity in academic discourse.

The subject of this study is the features of linguistic means of expressing the category of intensity and their functioning in academic discourse.

The hypothesis of the study is that the means of expressing the category of intensity in academic discourse affect a reader, and their study makes it possible to more deeply understand the features of academic discourse.

The purpose of the study is to consider the means of expressing the category of intensity in modern English academic discourse, as well as to show the specifics of the means of expressing the intensity of feature in modern English academic discourse.

Research Methods. The following research methods are used in this work: descriptive method, the method of semantic analysis, the method of syntactic analysis, the method of statistical analysis, the method of continuous sampling of material from articles submitted to high-ranking journals in English. The material used for the study was the linguistic means of expressing the category of intensity, extracted by the continuous sampling method from articles submitted to high-ranking journals in English (Language learning & Technology, Journal of Language Contact, Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, Journal of Writing Research and International Journal of English Studies).

The scientific novelty of the thesis is defined by the fact that the category of intensity is considered as an independent category, and for the first time the language means of expressing the category of intensity in the academic discourse are studied. The structure of the thesis is determined by the implementation of the tasks.

The theoretical value of the research: it makes the contribution to the analysis of the academic text, determines concepts of intensity, and widens the reflection of understanding the different classification of intensifiers.

The practical value of the research: the new information and materials about the verbalization of intensifiers presented in academic articles could be useful in linguistic study along with the practical analysis.

Structure and volume of the research: the research work consists of introduction and three chapters: theoretical and practical, results and conclusion, the list of references. In **Introduction:** the relevance of the chosen theme is justified, the purpose of thesis is defined, the research novelty is proposed, the analytical methods are described. **Chapter one** explains the outline of the academic discourse. This chapter includes a brief formation about the academic discourse, provides the typology of discourse and shows the main characteristics of academic discourse. **Chapter two** offers a background information about intensity, and accordingly contains definitions of main terms and it also explains the classification of intensifiers. **Chapter three** constitutes the analyses and conclusions, the procedure and analysis of collected data are presented. The results and findings are formulated as well. **In the conclusion** the main points of the work are underlined and results of the investigation are summed up.

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

1.1 The concept of discourse in modern linguistics

The development of general theory of verbal communication as a science of complex interaction of language, mentality and culture of a society presupposes the elaborating common principles and techniques of analysis in the spheres of humanities - linguistics, history, sociology, politology, psychology, culturology and others.

The term discourse in modern linguistic researches is confirmed marked turning the science of language to the extra linguistics sphere.

The inclusion of language users in the scientific paradigm of linguistic research in modern linguistics has led to the fact that the anthropocentric factor has become the main factor in the study of various aspects of the science of language. There is a large share of the probability that this phenomenon was one of the reasons for the emergence of a new linguistic unit - discourse, which, along with linguistic ones, also takes into account extralinguistic, pragmatic, psychological, sociocultural and other factors. The dominance of the term “discourse” in linguistic literature is a striking indicator of a change in the scientific paradigm in modern linguistics: from a systematic approach to language learning to a communicative study of linguistic phenomena (Klushina, 2011).

In the 90s of XX century and at the beginning of the new millennium, the integration of discourse theories is activated. Such tendencies lead scientists to the idea of the need to form a new scientific phenomenon - discourse, which could synthesize the main achievements of relatively disparate scientific theories of discourse (Kozhemyakin, 2008: 10–11). In our opinion, it is with the advent of this new cross-discipline in the system of modern humanities that the latest stage in the development of the theory of discourse begins. This idea was supported by professor, doctor of political sciences O. F. Rusakova, who in 2006 in the Preface to

the collection “Modern discourse theory: multidisciplinary analysis” (Rusakova, 2006) spoke about the need to create discourse in connection with the intensive development of discourse research. Moreover, discourse is considered as a theory and methodology of the discursive approach in science and practice. So since 2006, Russian researchers have actively studied a variety of specific (thematic) discourses that function in modern public life.

As part of the latest research in domestic and foreign linguistics, academic discourse is studied in structurally functional, lingo cultural, and communicative aspects: the national marking of institutional areas of communication in academic discourse; general and specific language tools for solving the universal communicative problems of generating, disseminating, preserving and verifying scientific knowledge in academic discourse are examined using several linguistic cultures as an example (Burmakina, 2014), lexical and grammatical markers of hedging (a technique used to reduce the categorical level of utterance) are studied as sociolinguistic means of constructing a speaker’s identity in academic communication (Vetrova, 2012; Hyland, 1998) are described irony in academic discourse (Shilikhina, 2013), values of academic discourse (Zubkova, 2010), intonation features of presentations in English-language academic discourse (Tsymbal, 2013), gender specificity of expression of consent / disagreement in academic discourse and its communicative-pragmatic significance (Kirilina, 2010). In addition, discursive markers (R. Povolna) and cognitive modality in colloquial academic discourse (L. Song) are subject to research. Academic discourse is also studied in the framework of one genre (for example, A. Stepanenko A. Academic discourse on the example of lectures in Chinese, 2013). Along with this, modern academic discourse in English and Russian is considered as a culturally specific phenomenon (Khutyz I.P. Academic discourse: a culturally specific system for constructing and translating knowledge, 2015), etc.

Despite the abundance of definitions of the concept of discourse in linguistic literature, it is still in its infancy. Like any new phenomenon, the theory of discourse

underwent several interpretations in its development, which led to the ambiguity of this term. An analysis of the use of the term, starting with its initial appearance in the work of Z. Harris “Discourse Analysis” in 1952, allowed us to identify the four main points of its usage, namely: 1) linguistic in itself, where discourse is thought of as speech inscribed in a communicative situation; 2) the discourse used in journalism, dating back to the French structuralists; 3) the discourse used in formal linguistics; 4) discourse as a form of verbal communication, as a unit of communication (Grigoryeva, 2007: 20).

In the second half of the twentieth century. Anglo-Saxon linguists viewed discourse unconventionally as a special text. From their point of view, it has all the features inherent in texts and should be considered just like a text. In this regard, E. Benvenist, who introduced the term “discourse” into linguistics, defines it as a speech assigned by the speaker, as opposed to a narrative that unfolds without the explicit intervention of the subject of the utterance (Benvenist, 1974: 129). Much later, representatives of the Anglo-Saxon linguistic school realized that discourse is not so much a feature inherent in the text as a certain system behind this feature, primarily grammatical (Dijk & Kinch, 1988: 154).

In the understanding of the French linguist N. Fairclough, the discourse is the language as a form of social practice (Fairclough, 1989: 20). This means, firstly, that language is part of society; secondly, that language is a social process; thirdly, that language is a socially determined process (Fairclough, 1989: 22).

N.N. Mironova considers the discourse as a speech stream, as a language in its constant movement, absorbing the diversity of the historical era, individual and social features of both the communicant and the communicative situation in which communication takes place. The discourse reflects the mentality and culture, both national and individual, private (Mironova, 1997: 9).

Exploring modern approaches to the study of discourse, E.V. Temnova gives the following definition: “Discourse is a systematic device for processing linguistic thought, as well as empirical experience, which fits the system of categories of past

and future, existing and possible worlds with already experienced and ideal by coincidence, the rules of the game and other settings. However, there is no final or timeless discourse in the same way as an endless discourse cannot exist, because the formation of the discourse does not form an endlessly repeating set of statements, but is limited by the conditions of existence. A discourse does not have a historical or rhetorical community; rather, it is constituted by a certain limited number of statements that have arisen and embodied at a certain point in time. Therefore, discourse is the result of mental and linguistic processing of empirical experience embodied in a specific spatio-temporal setting through propositions” (Temnova, 2004: 32).

In defining the concept of “discourse,” A.A. Kibrik insists that the concept described is a unity of two entities - the process of language communication and the resulting object, that is, text. “Thanks to this dual unity, discourse can be studied both as a process unfolding in time and as a structural object. “Discourse” is the broadest possible term that includes all forms of language use” (Kibrik, 2009: 3).

E.S. Kubryakova and O.V. Alexandrova define discourse as the cognitive process associated with the creation of a speech product, and the text is considered by them as the final result of the process of speech activity, which has a certain complete (and fixed) form (Kubryakova & Aleksandrova, 1999: 186–197).

Currently, the research field called discourse theory is one of the fastest growing fields of modern social science. The idea of analyzing various types of discourse turned out to be extremely productive for linguistic research at the present stage of development. The growth of interest in this phenomenon began in the 1990s, when, according to V.E. Chernyavskaya, text analysis was fully reoriented to analysis of discourse (Chernyavskaya, 2006: 74).

Based on the classifications of discourse theory, scientists believe that there are certain methodological principles. Torfing classifies the theories of discourse is based on the identification of research traditions in the range from linguistic to post-structuralist approaches to discourse (Torfing, 2005).

The classification of M.V. Jorgensen and L. Phillips is based on the principle of differentiation of socio-constructivist theories of discourse, based on how they interpret the relationship of discursive and non-discursive social practices. In their book *Discourse Analysis As Theory And Method* (Jorgensen, Phillips, 2002). The theory of discourse is classified based on the comparative study of the three theoretical and methodological approaches to discourse analysis. The authors believe that this can be attributed to the general interdisciplinary field-socially-constructionist discourse analysis.

These approaches include: 1) the discourse theory of Laclos and Muff; 2) critical discourse analysis (CDA); 3) discursive psychology. In addition, the book discusses the fourth, so-called combined approach to discourse analysis, which integrates the elements of the other three approaches and represents a kind of perfect synthesis of modern discourse theories.

Two classifications of Karasik were substituted - sociolinguistic discourse (based on the feature of communication participants) and pragmlinguistic discourse (based on the feature of communicative tonality). In the framework of sociolinguistic classification, the author distinguishes personality-oriented and status-oriented discourse, and divides them into several subtypes. Personal (personal) discourse is represented by two main varieties: household and “every day”. The status-oriented discourse is an example of institutional communication, which means the verbal interaction of representatives of social groups or institutions with each other, with people who realize their status-role opportunities within the framework of established public institutions (Karasik, 2002: 193). To the institutional type, the author includes pedagogical, religious, scientific, political and medical types of discourse; to non-institutional type - existential and “every day”.

Discourse typology differentiated based on pragmatic linguistic standards can be constructed for a variety of reasons, including: 1) the one-sidedness / versatility of the meanings, 2) the givenness / openness of the reactions, 3) the seriousness / non-seriousness of communication, 4) the cooperativeness / conflictuality of

communication, 5) the priority of the content / form of communication, 6) the specificity / abstractness of the topic (Karasik, 2006). V.I. Karasik relates humorous and ritual to the pragmalinguistic types of discourse.

A.A. Kibrick believes that in discourse studies, the two basic aspects of society and cognition fulfill fundamental role, and their positions are different. On the one hand, discourse is a social phenomenon in which speakers and listeners fulfill social roles, which the processes of discursive generation and understanding are based on. On the other hand, all processing of discursive information occurs in the individual consciousness and is based on such general cognitive processes as memory, attention, consciousness, categorization, etc.

O. F. Rusakova (2006) offers three approaches to classify the theories of discourse. The first of them involves the distribution of discourse theories accordingly with the new interdisciplinary field has had a decisive influence on the formation of their theoretical and methodological foundations.

The second approach of classification based on O.F. Rusakova's discourse theory is to consider the existence of established research schools and directions (worldview, ideology, methodology) in the field of discourse analysis, that is, discourse theory is grouped by belonging to known trends: 1) postmodern discourse -analysis; 2) critical discourse analysis (CDA); 3) discursive psychology; 4) combined discourse analysis; 5) Cultural Studies; 6) Visual Studies; 7) political linguistics, etc.

In the third classification of discourse theories, which discourse objects are mainly in the focus of attention of a particular theory of discourse analysis:

1) the discourses of everyday communication (household conversations, friendly conversations, rumors, domestic conflicts, etc.);

2) institutional discourses (administrative discourse, office discourse, bank discourse, pedagogical discourse, medical discourse, army discourse, church discourse, etc.);

- 3) public discourse (discourses of civic initiatives and steps, diplomatic discourse, PR discourse, etc.);
- 4) political discourse (discourses of political ideologies, political institutions, political actions, etc.);
- 5) media discourses (TV discourse, film discourse, advertising, etc.);
- 6) art discourses (literary discourse, musical, discourse fine art, model, etc.);
- 7) discourse of business communications (discourse of business negotiations, business communications);
- 8) marketing discourses (advertising discourse, sales discourse, consumer discourse, service discourse, etc.);
- 9) academic discourses (discourses of scientific communities, discourses of scientific and humanitarian disciplines);
- 10) cultural and worldview discourses (discourses of cultural eras, discourses of various philosophical and religious movements) (Rusakova, 2006: 30).

O.N. Mironova calls such a classification in the field of communication and highlights scientific, pedagogical, political, legal, critical, ethical, military and parental discourses (Mironova, 1997: 14–15). At the same time, A.V. Anisimova takes the goal of communication as the basis for her classification and identifies discourses designed to inform, influence, express state / emotional attitude, establish and maintain contact (Anisimova, 2000: 32).

Linguists take the channel of its realization to the next level of categorization of discourse: oral - acoustic and written - visual. A. A. Kibrik refers to this classification a modes classification. In this case, verbal discourse is considered as the initial basic form of the language, while written discourse is derived from verbal. The fundamental difference lies in the conditions for making contact between the addressee and the addressee during variable and space respect. In the written discourse, there is such a connection, achieved according to fundamentally different rules, while in the context of oral discourse there is a direct involvement of the addressee and the addressee in the situation, which is reflected in the use of pronouns

of the first and second persons, indications of mental processes and emotions of both, use non-verbal means of communication, etc.

The channel / mode of communication also distinguishes between contact and distant, virtual and real types of discourse. A comparison of oral and written discourses as alternative forms of the existence of language began in the 1970s. Speech fragmentation occurs in verbal discourse: it is generated by quanta - the so-called intonation units, which are separated from each other by pauses, have a relatively complete intonation contour and usually coincide with simple predications or subordinate sentences. In written discourse, integration of predicates into complex sentences and other syntactic constructions and associations is observed.

To appreciate language in its social context, we need to focus not on language alone, but rather on.... Discourses. Discourses include much more than language. They are ways of acting, interacting, realizing, thinking, believing, speaking, and often reading and writing, accepted by specific groups of people as instantiations of particular roles...discourse is "the way of being in the world" "They are forms of life. Academic discourse refers to the way of thinking and using language existing in the academy. In other words, the academy cannot be separated from its discourses and could not exist without them.

1.2 Formation of the modern English academic discourse

The English-language academic discourse dates back to the time the first universities appeared in Great Britain in the 12th century. In the history of the development of Western European and British universities, the following stages of development are traced:

1.The Middle Ages (early: V – XI centuries, developed: XI – XIV centuries, later: XIV – XVII centuries). The development of craft and trade in Europe has contributed to the revitalization of the economy and culture. The first universities appear in Spain, Italy, France and England. In medieval universities, scientific discussions and seminars are of great importance in modern science of higher

education. For a number of reasons, a lecture was the main form of knowledge transfer. Reading and commenting on theological and scientific works was an important form of information transfer.

2.The Renaissance (XIV – XVII). Humanistic ideas gradually spread throughout Europe and reached England during the period of the Church Reformation.

By the end of the 17th century philosophers and scientists founded the academic discourse. In the academic discourse, the prose style, which focused on content through the form of presentation, replaced the extravagant rhetorical techniques used earlier. Then, the grammar system of discourse began to be rebuilt, which led to the use of concise sentences and the formation of a text structure typical of modern English-language academic discourse. Students were taught to build arguments and style of general audience based (Bennett, 2008: 106).

3.Education (XVIII – early XIX centuries). In this era, a comprehensive scientific and cultural transformation takes place.

During the XVIII and XIX centuries. the style of English prose improved and strengthened. Society became increasingly mercantile and rationalized. This was reflected in scientific texts: the referential (reference) component replaced the interpersonal, the use of dialogue and narrative was reduced, the goal was the objectivity of the presentation, which, first of all, was achieved with the help of grammatical metaphorization, focusing more on things than on processes or people. During this period of the development of academic discourse, narrative is increasingly less commonly used in scientific articles, which may have been associated with increasing depersonalization (Bennett, 2008: 129). According to D. Atkinson, although during the XVIII and first half of the XIX centuries. the position of the author of the article was clearly traced, detailed descriptions of scientific methods, tools and objects of research began to come to the fore. By the end of the XIX century. the author's dominant role was transferred to the object due to the

appearance of impersonal constructions and passive constructions without specifying an agent (Atkinson, 1999: XXIII – XXIV).

The period from the second half of the XVIII to XX centuries. considered a classic stage in the development of universities. Science comes to the forefront of university education. Academic discourse has emerged from the style of classical rhetoric of the 17th century. In contrast to knowledge based on texts presented in medieval scholasticism, the studied variety of discourse was and remains significantly oriented towards extralinguistic factors.

An evolution has also taken place in the approach to the study of academic texts. According to P. A. Duff, earlier such texts were considered as a static set of well-established rhetorical, characteristic stylistic or discursive conventions. Academic texts are now seen as social constructs created by individuals based on their own history and social context, their academic community, relationships with leaders within the community, the target audience, and assigned tasks (Duff, 2007: 1.3). British universities are called centers of enlightenment and sciences.

Academic communication has a complex structure, which is characterized by linguistic and cultural differences, variation of style in different disciplines, and genre identity. Academic English can rightfully be considered as a sublanguage of professional academic communication, where they give lectures, set out textbook materials, formulate assignments, conduct exams, student conferences, write and defend graduate theses and dissertation studies, etc.

In linguistic literature, along with the term “sublanguage”, or “professional sublanguage”, the term “sublanguage” is used.

K.Ya. Averbukh notes that at least five development trends of modern academic language can be distinguished: integration, differentiation, internationalization, unification, the law (principle) of economy. Moreover, under integration, the scientist understands the consistent convergence of different scientific disciplines and, as a result, the integration of scientific knowledge.

Differentiation in science is manifested mainly in the fact that new sciences are gradually formed during the contacts of scientific disciplines.

In modern English, the sublanguage of academic communication is characterized by the dominant use of more complex syntactic constructions than the language of everyday communication. It is defined as “the language that students need to know in order to understand academic disciplines and the ability to communicate within them. The sublanguage of academic communication includes specialized vocabulary, conditional textual structures adopted in a particular field (for example, essays, laboratory works) and other linguistic activities typical for communication in the audience (for example, expressing disagreement, discussing a problem, please clarify whatever” (Teacher Performance Assessment). Academic communication is characterized by a number of universal features that make it possible to distinguish academic discourse from many other institutional discourses.

1.3 Results

In the light of what has been mentioned previously in this theoretical part, we have defined Academic discourse is considered as a complex object of research. Firstly, this type of discourse is studied from the standpoint of genetics and appears in the form of a hierarchy of academic genres, each of which went through a certain historical path of development. At the same time, modern English-language academic discourse is a combination of classical and latest academic genres that have a significant impact on each other. Secondly, the semiotic nature of academic discourse is studied, which is based on academic / scientific texts, which are symbolic formations. The coherence of the scientific text is not observed only in the semiotic space of the text, but also between texts in the semiotic space (infosphere) of a certain science in which these texts exist as separate signs (Drozdova, 2009: 741). Academic texts are heterogeneous in nature by virtue of belonging to different genres, which explains the fact that the study of the genres of academic discourse in the context of our work acquires special significance.

Due to its specificity, academic discourse has no clear boundaries. This is due to the fact that academic communication, along with scientific communication, includes educational and educational units. In addition, each block is a separate system of interconnected and interdependent elements.

In the structure of academic communication it can be argued that academic discourse intersects primarily with scientific, as well as with didactic, educational, pedagogical and, in the realities of the present, even with advertising and sports types of discourses. Discourses present activities which regulate meaning-making in complex ways and represent particular social relations and ways of seeing the world.

CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND INFORMATION AND THE CATEGORY OF INTENSITY

2.1 Background information about intensity

The history of the study of intensity as a linguistic category. In all languages of the world, there are certain basic conceptual and linguistic categories, one of which is the category of intensity. It is based on the significance of quantitative changes that do not translate into quality (Rodionova, 2005: 152).

The term "intensity" comes from 1660s, from intense + -ity. Earlier was intenseness (1610s). A scientific term "intensity", the sense of "extreme depth of feeling" attested by 1830. The word "intense" having the meaning "great, extreme," came from old French "intense" (13c.), from Latin "intensus" having the meaning "stretched, strained, high-strung, tight," originally past participle of "intendere" in this literal sense of "stretch out, strain" (see intend). From 1630s of persons "high-strung" Related: Intensely; Intenseness. (Online Etymology Dictionary)

One of the first linguists to study in detail the concept of intensity was C. Bally (Bally, 1961). He believed that "the term intensity should be understood as all the differences, which are reduced to the categories of quantity, quantity, value, strength, etc. regardless of whether we are talking about specific ideas or abstract ideas" (Bally 1961: 202). A similar broad interpretation of the term (as a quantitative change in a trait) is shared by many modern scholars. So, for example, in the work "Intensity as a component of the semantics of a word in modern English" E. Sheigal defines intensity as "the level of development of a characteristic within the framework of this measure that does not entail a change in this quality" (Sheigal, 1981: 13). It should be noted that such a definition does not fully reflect the characteristic of intensity from the standpoint of its interaction with such concepts as graduality and the measure of a feature.

When considering the category of intensity, in our opinion, one should take into account its close relationship not only with objective categories of quality, measure

of attribute, but also with subjectively pragmatic categories of expressivity and evaluation. Despite the multicomponent nature of the intensity category, the main value is still the quantitative change of the feature and its location on the scale “below the norm, norm, above the norm”, which suggests the presence of certain language markers in the language.

Since the 20th century, a lot of research has been conducted on the use of intensifiers, that is, the use of degree words will increase or decrease the quality to a certain degree. These studies have made great contributions to the structural description and semantic classification of intensifiers. Huddleston & Pullum (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1860) argue that intensifiers are not considered to be the main grammatical or lexical categories, they possess grammatical properties, although the definitions of intensifiers are not sufficiently defined unless the functional significance is described. Some of these early studies already referred to the processes of grammaticalisation and delexicalisation, which could be defined as the reduction of the lexical content of a word (Partington, 1993: 183) so that it comes to fulfill a particular function, in our case it is intensification. More recent studies (Ito & Tagliamonte, 2003; Murphy, 2010) predominantly focused on the constant change (renewal) of intensifiers during the last decades. Renewal takes place when “existing meanings may take on new forms” (Hopper & Traugott, 1993: 122). This is usually characterized by new methods that propose roughly the same argument. For instance, the meaning of “to a high degree” can be expressed by older forms that are completely grammaticalised, such as *very*, or newer and more expressive forms, such as *extremely* and *tremendously*. The more a linguistic item is grammaticalised, the more it matches with various adjectives and verbs, thus increasing its frequency of appearance. The development of intensifiers is a good example of renewal since this process demonstrates how older and newer layers can coexist and display different meanings over time (Hopper & Traugott, 1993: 121). A large number of intensifiers can help to avoid duplication and improve expression. Méndez-Naya (Mendez-Naya, 2003: 372) notes that because intensifiers are used for a markedly

emotional function, they are especially inclined to undergo renewal, as their function of boosting decreases over time, due to, for instance, overuse. This indicates that intensifiers are only used until felt to be inadequate to create a certain kind of impact, and, consequently, new forms are adopted to place new emphasis on the expression. Hopper and Traugott (Hopper, & Traugott, 1993) state that over the past centuries *very* has alternated with e.g. *terribly, really, pretty, surprisingly, extremely, and highly*, depending on which word was in vogue at the time. The continuous evolution of degree words can be explained by the speaker's urge to "achieve expressivity" (Lorenz, 2002: 143), as well as by "the fluid patterns of language use" (Hopper & Traugott, 1993: 2). Therefore, the more unexpected and unusual an intensifier is in a given context, the more it will add expressivity to what is being said (Lorenz, 2002: 143). These linguistic elements "afford a picture of fevered invention and competition that would be hard to come by elsewhere, for in their nature they are unsettled" (Bolinger, 2013: 18). Intensifiers are, thus, continuously changing due to the diachronic and synchronic process of grammaticalisation and the speaker's need to add emphasis to what is being said. Therefore, they are utterly interesting language phenomena if one wants to gain insight into language change processes in general and grammaticalisation more specifically.

Intensity is a linguistic category that separates linguistic units that serve to enhance the utterance or part of it (Remizova, 2014: 625 - 632). Lexical intensifiers are language units which content plan is to strengthen the attribute, state, emotion, action, evaluation, quantity, quality, etc. regarding their neutral manifestation. The intensity expression plan is represented by a system of root and affix elements, as well as units that, in combination with other words, actualize the amplification value (Remizova, 2014).

Sh. Balli has a broader understanding of intensity, taking into account all possible differences related to "the category of quantity, quantity, value, strength, etc., regardless of whether it is a question of specific ideas or abstract ideas". In his opinion, "a quantitative difference, or a difference in intensity, is one of those

general categories into which we introduce any objects of our perception or our thoughts” (Sh. Balli, 1961: 202–203). Still relevant is the allocation of "affective syntax", characterized by emotionality and expressiveness.

Je. Sepir, on the one hand, expresses the idea of the interaction of intensity with the “emotional aspect” associated with hidden meanings of approval / disapproval, on the other hand, includes it in the graduation scale (Sepir, 1993: 43).

We consider that intensity as a special attribute of language units, and enhance their characteristic features. The essence of the intensity category is the expression of additional quantitative and qualitative characteristics of objects, their properties. The category of intensity is connected with the emotional aspect of the statement, with questions of expressive stylistics, categories of evaluation and argumentativeness.

In linguistic literature, qualitative intensity and quantitative intensity are distinct. According to V.G. Gak, “The qualitative intensity is the choice of a stronger word in a series of synonyms; quantitative - in the repetition of a word having an emotional connotation” (Gak, 1998: 648).

“Intensity is the quality of language which indicates the degree to which the speaker’s attitude toward a concept deviates from neutrality” (Bradac, Bowers & Courtright, 1979: 258). Due to the fact that intensity is a complex cognitive and language phenomenon, it can be quite challenging to distinguish the levels of intensity.

Intensity is usually divided into two spheres: alleviation (-intensity) and amplification (+intensity) (Edel, 1992: 602). The criterion for this division is usually the deviation from the norm, which means that intensity is described as a phenomenon upwards or downwards of the norm. However, it is further possible to distinguish between various degrees within both, the higher and the lower intensity. Studies of intensification have shown that “upward direction and location seems to be more differentiated” (Seiler, 1991: 53).

Intensifiers are used in different types of discourse as modifying elements. Their function is “to reinforce or attenuate a variable feature in the element it applies to” (Paradis, 1997: 41). This means that they occur in certain collocations with adjectives, adverbs, verbs, sometimes also nouns. Which element will be intensified “depends on the degree of intensification, the dimension they refer to, syntactic restrictions and specific lexical restrictions of collocation” (Dressler, Merlini & Barbaresi, 1994: 417). Due to the fact that there are many lexical items which can function as intensifiers (Os, 1989: 83) deals with them not as a word class but as a function class.

We give preference to the term ‘intensifier’ as a cover term to refer to those adverbs that influence, and thus strengthen or weaken the meaning of the adjective that is modified. Intensifiers bring the quality that is expressed by the adjective to a degree somewhere between the two far ends of a degree scale (Quirk et al. 1985: 589). Moreover, the intensifiers under scrutiny in this thesis only modify adjectives, and are consequently not collocated with nouns, adverbs or verbs. In this way, they fulfil “the prototypical function of adverbs, namely that of grading adjectives” (Athanasidou, 2007: 555; Lorenz, 2002: 144).

Along with these general denominations, linguists make different subdivisions within the category of degree adverbs or intensifiers (Stoffel, 1901; Quirk et al., 1985; Biber et al., 2000).

Categorising intensifiers, we should not consider these words as isolated linguistic items, but also, and above all, investigate the context in which they occur. Consequently, next to the degree of scaling and boundedness, we have to take into account the “semantic extension” of the intensifiers (Athanasidou, 2007: 561; Heine & Kuteva, 2008: 219), which Athanasidou links with the “degree of subjectivity” (Athanasidou, 2007: 561). She points out that an intensifier can take up different meanings and consequently belong to different categories, depending on the adjective it premodifies and the degree to which it is semantically bleached or delexicalised (Athanasidou, 2007: 557).

Tagliamonte (Tagliamonte, 2008: 362) states that the reason why intensification is so popular and provides researchers with an opportunity to study linguistic change is three-fold: they are “an ideal choice” because of their versatility and color, capacity for rapid change and recycling of different forms. Intensifiers should be used with great care. Although they cannot change the semantics of the discourse, they can considerably modify their meaning. Incorrect use of intensification can produce unexpected practical results.

We consider the intensity as a specific property of a linguistic unit, contributing to the strengthening or weakening of its characteristic features.

Intensifiers are linguistic means that serve to enhance the utterance or part of it. The definition of the intensifier varies from scholar to scholar, as no unified terminology has widely been accepted so far. Intensifiers, degree words (Bolinger, 2013: 18) or adverbs of degree (Backlund, 1973: 7), as they are also known, serve to “convey the degree or the exact value of the quality expressed by the item they modify” (Mendez-Naya, 2018: 213). The word ‘degree’ is often used in connection with this linguistic phenomenon, because this class of words is often said to modify gradable adjectives and signal different degrees of intensification on the intensity scale (Biber, 1999; Quirk et al 1985).

We use the linguistic term “intensifier” to name the grammatical expletives, because they function as semantically vacuous fillers. English linguists draw intensifiers from a class of words called degree modifiers, words that quantify the idea they modify. More specifically, they derive from a group of words called adverbs of degree, also known as degree adverbs. However, when used grammatically as intensifiers, these words cease to be degree adverbs, because they no longer quantify the idea they modify. Instead, they emphasize it emotionally. By contrast, the words moderately, slightly are degree adverbs, but not intensifiers. The other hallmark of prototypical intensifiers is that they are adverbs which lack the primary characteristic of adverbs: the ability to modify verbs. Intensifiers modify exclusively adjectives and adverbs.

Intensifiers are used in different types of discourse as modifying elements. Their function is “to reinforce or attenuate a variable feature in the element it applies to” (Paradis 1997: 41). This means that they occur in certain collocations with adverbs, adjectives, verbs, sometimes also nouns. Which element will be intensified “depends on the degree of intensification, the dimension they refer to, syntactic restrictions and specific lexical restrictions of collocation” (Dressler, Merlini Barbaresi 1994: 417). Due to the fact that there are many lexical items which can function as intensifiers, Van Os (1989: 83f) deals with them not as a word class but as a function class. English grammars (e.g. Biber 1999, Gelderen 2010) deal with intensifiers as modifiers (adverbs together with adjectives).

2.2. Classification of intensifiers

The definition of the intensifier varies from scholar to scholar, as no unified terminology has widely been accepted so far. Intensifiers, degree words (Bolinger, 2013) or adverbs of degree (Backlund, 1973), as they are also known, serve to “convey the degree or the exact value of the quality expressed by the item they modify” (Mendez-Naya, 2008). The word ‘degree’ is often used in connection with this linguistic phenomenon, because this class of words is often said to modify gradable adjectives and signal different degrees of intensification on the intensity scale (Biber, 1999). Various books on grammar present somewhat different views on the classification of degree adverbs, which will be discussed below:

Table 1.

Overview of classifications of intensifiers in the English language

Author(s)	Scaling upwards		Scaling downwards	
Bolinger (1979)	Boosters	Compromisers	Diminishers	Minimizers
Quirk & Greenbam	Amplifiers	Maximizers: - Boosters	Downtoners	Compromisers Approximators

(1982)		- Emphasizers		Diminishers Minimizers
Quirk et al. (1985)	Amplifiers	Maximizers Boosters	Downtoners	Approximators Compromisers Diminishers Minimizers
Biber et al. (1999)	Amplifiers / Intensifiers		Diminishers / Downtoners	

Bolinger (1972) wrote about adjectives, adverbs, nouns and verbs as “degree words” in English language. he also uses “the term intensifier for any device that scales a quality, whether up or down or somewhere between the two” (Bolinger, 1972: 17). Based on a positive scaling or negative scaling, Bolinger looks at intensifiers from different angle. He divides degree words that modify adjectives into four subclasses “according to the region of the scale that they occupy” (Bolinger, 1972: 17). Firstly, “boosters” refer to the “upper part of scale” and are used for “looking up” (Bolinger, 1972: 17). This category of intensifiers brings the quality expressed by the modified adjective to the highest possible degree. In the following example, the intensifier completely indicates that the shed was totally destroyed, and not partially. There is thus a complete state of damage. Secondly, “compromisers” often try “to look both ways at once”, and express the intensity of “the middle of the scale” (Bolinger, 1972: 17). Thirdly, “diminishers” express a meaning of “looking down” and belong to the “lower part of the scale” (Bolinger, 1972: 17). This term is also used by Biber et al. to specify “degree adverbs which decrease the effect of the modified item” (Biber, 2007: 210). Finally, “minimizers” occupy “the lower end of the scale” and downscale and minimize the quality of the adjective as much as possible (Bolinger, 1972: 17).

Biber et al., on the other hand, use “intensives, amplifiers or intensifiers” for all adverbs that “increase intensity” (Biber, 2007: 209). Along with these general

denominations, linguists make different subdivisions within the category of degree adverbs or intensifiers (Stoffel, 1901; Quirk et al. 1985; Biber et al. 2000).

According to Quirk et al. (1985) “intensifiers do not only to means whereby an increase in intensification is expressed”, rather they “indicate a point on an abstractly conceived intensity scale; and the point indicated may be relatively low or high”. Quirk et al (1985), according to degree scale, subcategorize intensifiers into amplifiers and down toners. The relatively low point on this abstract scale is referred to as downtoners, whereas the high end of the scale is called amplifiers, which may be subdivided into maximizers and boosters. Maximizers maximally intensify the sense of adjective or verb. Boosters, on the other hand, signify less than maximal intensity. The boosters function as part of attributes, part of predicates. They occur in preadjectival position.

Downtoners are considered as scaling the sense of an adjective downward from an assumed norm, often with a hedging or softening effect (Graeme, 2003). Downtoners decrease the effect of the scale word by grading downwards, resting at somewhere lower part of the scale and meaning “to a small extent” they either seek to express only part of the potential force of the item concerned or seek to imply that the force of the item concerned is limited. Four subtypes of downtoners are separately approximators, compromisers, diminishers and minimizers. Approximators are used to express an approximation to the force of the verb, while indicating that the verb concerned expresses more than is relevant. Compromizers have only a slight lowering effect and tend. Diminishers mean “to a small extent”, slightly scaling downwards. However, minimizers are negative maximizers, indicating “not to any extent”.

Traditionally, adverbs in English can be distinguished into seven categories semantically: space, time, process, respect, contingency, modality and degree. And from perspective of grammatical function, adverbs are categorized into for major types: adjunct, subjunct, disjunct and conjunct.

The subjunct includes degree adverbs, consisting of two broad categories - the wide orientation and the narrow orientation. The narrow orientation can be further divided into four sub-classes: emphasers, amplifiers, downtoners and approximators.

(1) Emphasizers express the semantic role of modality, reinforcing the truth value of a clause or part of the clause to which they apply (Quirk, et al., 1985). And Quirk and Greenbaum (1990) further note that emphasers have a general heightening effect.

There are two general groups of common emphasers in accordance with divergent norms at listed (Quirk, 1985: 583):

1) really, actually, particularly, especially, certainly, clearly, largely, obviously, easily, definitely, indeed, seriously, truly;

2). just, fairly.

Words in the former group are mainly concerned with disjuncts suggesting the truthfulness of what is being said by speakers; and items in the second group denotes that they can serve as disjuncts expressing the speakers' affirmance that their words are truth without varnishing.

(2) Amplifiers have been studied for decades and have greatly drawn the interests of linguists and scholars from a large number of linguistic fields.

According the style of the English language, Swann (1992) notes that amplifiers do not present consistent behavior in affecting powerful or powerless language style; he further states that the inconsistent behaviour of amplifiers is a result of "a danger of seeing what you want to see" (Swann, 1992: 198).

Syntactically speaking, "amplifiers occasionally function as premodifiers of determiners, pronouns and prepositional phrases" (Altenberg, 1991). It is clear that degree adverbs increasing the intensity are named as amplifiers. And some amplifiers modify the gradable adjectives and figure degrees on the scale (Biber, 2000). Basthomi (2015) hold that amplifiers are helpful to grasp people's attention, add exaggeration, and promote particular interests. Thus, they become a natural

tactic for writers to show their attitude through a set of devices which function as highlights or emphases.

And Quirk (1985) also present their view on amplifiers accurately and thoroughly, which is adopted in the paper and will be discussed in detail. They hold that amplifiers scale upwards and they are divided into (Quirk, 1985: 590):

- maximizers denoting the upper extreme of the scale and
- boosters, denoting a high degree.

The group b an open class with new expressions created continually to replace old ones. Maximizers and boosters are interrelated. But there exist few distinctions, with the most manifested one being their position in practical use.

(3) Downtoners scale down the effect of the items being modified (Biber, 2000). Usually, downtoners have a generally lowering effect on the force of the predication or the verb (Quirk, 1985).

Generally speaking, many downtoners can apply to gradable adjectives and verbs, with two broad categories typically grading the intensity as: diminishers and minimizers. “Diminisher scale downtoners and roughly mean to a small extent”, and “minimizers are negative, not to any extent” (Quirk, 1985). The diminishers can be interpreted as the opposite to the booster, and the minimizers opposite to maximizers.

Minimizers differ from diminishers in that rather than a denial of the truth value of what has been said, they provide the modification towards a version which is more firmly true (Quirk, 1985).

Besides, scholars figure out that while all other downtoners appear rarely in conversations, the downtoner *pretty* is very commonly used. In contrast, a relatively wider range of common downtoners are employed in academic prose, through none of them is particularly frequent (Dong& Chiu, 2013).

(4) Approximators express an approximation to the force of the verbs, indicating that the verb concerned expresses more than is relevant (Quirk, 1985). They serve as the denial of the verb’s real meaning in a sentence, such as: *nearly*, *almost*.

Approximators also include ‘compromisers’, which “have only a slight lowering effect and trend” (Quirk, 1985). Compromisers have the same function as approximators in the doubtfulness on the appropriateness of the concerning verb. They are characterized as being close to a supposed norm, but weaken the implication of the verb in the meantime.

More concretely, there exist two groups of approximators: scalar approximators and epistemic approximators, both of which correspond to two kinds of vagueness, that is, the scalar vagueness and the epistemic vagueness (Sauerland & Stateva, 2007). And they further comment that epistemic modals in English can also be used as approximators, although they have an evidential component that requires indirect evidence.

Biber et al. (2000), based on their understandings of degree adverbs, also classify degree adverbs into two categories generally (Biber et al., 2000: 554-556).

- a. Amplifiers (or intensifiers)
- b. Diminishers (or downtoners)

Different grammarians have different divisions of intensifiers according to the region of scales, in this study, we would like to use Quirk’s method, the method is according semantic divisions are presented below in table 2:

Table 2.
Category of intensifiers

Category	Subcategory	Typical words
Amplifiers	Maximizers	<i>Completely,</i> <i>absolutely,</i> extremely, Fully
	boosters	Very, quite, really
Downtoners	approximators	Nearly, almost
	compromisers	Pretty, rather
	diminishers	Slightly, a little
	minimizers	hardly

With the semantic category of degree, intensifiers are divided into amplifiers and downtoners, while with more specific semantic category of degree, amplifiers can be subdivided into (1) maximizers, which can denote the upper extreme of the scale and (2) boosters, which denote a high degree, a high point on the scale. Both subsets, especially boosters, from open classes, and new expressions are frequently created to replace older ones whose impact follows the trend of hyperbole in rapidly growing ineffectively.

Downtoners may be subdivided into

- (1) approximators, which serve to express an approximation to the force of the verb, while indicating that the verb concerned expresses more than is relevant;
- (2) compromizers, which have only a slight lowering effect;
- (3) diminishers, which scale downwards and roughly mean ‘to a small extent’;
- (4) minimizers, which are negative maximizers.

Paradis (1997) mentions a different way of classifying degree adverbs on degree modifiers of adjectives, which means that the roles of degree adverbs are related to the corresponding semantic features of adjectives (Paradis, 1997: 24).

- Scalar modifiers, including different parts of mental scale of degree ranging from extremely high to zero;
- Telic modifiers, relating the actual degree of the item modified to the degree for certain reasons;
- Absolute modifiers, combining with the “superlative” types of adjectives modified;
- Differential modifiers, indicating the differences of the degree among words being described.

2.3 Intensity as a multilevel system of modern English

Lexical intensifiers are language units, the content plan of which enhances the attribute, state, emotion, action, evaluation, quantity, quality, etc. regarding their neutral manifestation. The means of intensifying meanings are various elements of

the language. The lexical meaning of a word may contain an intensifying connotation, which is clearly manifested when compared with words with a neutral, unreinforced meaning (Remizova, 2015). Words containing an intensifying connotation of meaning refer to such parts of speech as verbs (increase / increase (boom / swiftly) - adjectives (tired / tired - exhausted).

When categorising intensifiers, we should not consider these words as isolated linguistic items, but also, and above all, investigate the context in which they occur. Consequently, next to the degree of scaling and boundedness, we have to take into account the “semantic extension” of the intensifiers (Athanasidou, 2007: 561; Heine & Kuteva 2008: 219), which Athanasidou links with the “degree of subjectivity” (Athanasidou, 2007: 561). She points out that an intensifier can take up different meanings and consequently belong to different categories, depending on the adjective it premodifies and the degree to which it is semantically bleached or delexicalised (Athanasidou, 2007: 557). She thus agrees with Paradis who claims that “most degree modifiers are used mainly as either scalar or totality modifiers, e.g. pretty and absolutely respectively”, however, “once they are used in combination with the element they modify, they determine the reading of the whole” (Paradis, 2008: 325).

Paradis adds that the variable semantic extension, due to the meaning of the modified adjective, may lead to confusion since “the exact degree reading may be unclear in cases where there is no degree modifier or when the degree modifier is capable of modifying both scales and boundaries” (Paradis, 2008: 325)

Intensifiers - linguistic means that serve to enhance the utterance or part thereof. The intensity in linguistics has not yet acquired a clear status: it is attributed to the particular manifestation of the categories of quantity, evaluation, expressivity (Turansky, 1990). Intensifiers are the most diverse definitions of nouns and verbs (Ubin, 1987). However, all researchers are unanimous in the fact that intensity manifests itself at different linguistic levels: phonetic (intonation), lexical, grammatical (morphological and syntactic).

2.4 Cognitive approach to the classification of the intensifiers

Cognitive approach to the analysis of intensifiers allows to identify linguistic and speech means of intensification with a dispute on the subject of speech in specific communicative situations presented in the text.

A cognitive analysis of intensifiers based on the concept of gradient allows us to talk about the existence of several semantic types of intensifiers. Prototypical (pure) intensifiers form the core of this category; they are deprived of additional semantic features due to the desemantization of qualitative and emotive components of meaning. These include very, pretty, awfully, horribly, terribly and so on. Attention is drawn to the growing popularity in recent years of the general intensifier belonging to this group: totally. It is used so often in both oral and written speech that one can talk about fashion for this intensifier in modern English, especially among young people.

Quantitative intensifiers are characterized by a combination of signs of quantity and intensification. Quantitative intensifiers combine in their semantic structure the attributes of quality in the broad sense and intensification. The term qualitativity is widely used in the syntactic analysis of linguistic units (Mukhin, 1964; Doroshenko, 1976 and others).

2.5 Results

Intensity is a complex cognitive and language phenomenon, it can be quite challenging to differentiate between degrees of intensity. It is shown that intensifiers based on the concept of gradient exist several semantic types: Prototypical (pure) intensifiers and quantitative intensifiers. In this chapter, the classification of intensifiers is given by different linguists. We will consider the semantic division is more specific and it is described in detail, by this division. The typology of adverb intensifiers are pointed as: amplifiers: maximizers, boosters; downtoners: approximators, compromisers, diminishers (lower part of the scale), minimizers (lower end of the scale).

CHAPTER THREE: INTENSITY CATEGORY ANALYSIS IN MODERN ENGLISH

In this chapter we analyze the adverb intensifiers in modern English academic discourse. The materials for the analysis are 50 scientific articles presented in English top rated open access journals, which include ‘language learning & technology’, ‘Journal of Language Contact’, ‘Studies in second language learning and teaching’, ‘Journal of Writing Research’, ‘International Journal of English Studies’.

Language Learning & Technology (LLT) is a fully-refereed, open journal which has been published exclusively online since July 1997. This journal is published triannually (February, June, and October) and it aims to disseminate research on technical and language education issues to foreign and second language educators. The Journal of LLT is not only focus on technology peers, but also on issues related to language learning and language teaching, and affects or enhances of using digital technologies.

The Journal of Language Contact (JLC) is a peer-reviewed open access journal. It focuses on the study of language contact, language use and language change in from the perspective of language contact whereby both empirical data (the precise description of languages and how they are used) and the resulting theoretical elaborations (hence the statement and analysis of new problems) become the primary engines for advancing our understanding of the nature of language. This involves linguistic, anthropological, historical, and cognitive factors. Such an approach makes a major new contribution to understanding language change at a time when there is a notable increase of interest and activity in this field.

Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching (SLLT) is a refereed journal published four times a year by the Department of English Studies, Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts, Adam Mickiewicz University, Kalisz, Poland. The language of publication is English. The journal is devoted to reporting previously

unpublished highest quality theoretical and empirical research on learning and teaching second and foreign languages. It deals with the learning and teaching of any language, not only English, and focuses on a variety of topics ranging from the processes underlying second language acquisition, various aspects of language learning in instructed and non-instructed settings, as well as different facets of the teaching process, including syllabus choice, materials design, classroom practices and evaluation.

The Journal of Writing Research (JoWR) is an international peer reviewed journal that publishes papers that describe scientific study studies of the processes by which writing is produced and or by which it can be effectively taught. The Journal primarily publishes papers that describe scientific studies of the processes by which writing is produced or the means by which writing can be effectively taught. The journal is inherently cross-disciplinary, publishing original research in the different domains of writing research.

The International Journal of English Studies (IJES) is a double-blind peer review journal which seeks to reflect the newest research in the general field of English Studies: English Language and Linguistics, Applied English Linguistics, Literature in English and Cultural studies of English-speaking countries. We will give preference to keeping the balance among st the areas and subareas belonging to English Studies whenever possible.

3.1 Semantic and statistical analysis

The class of intensifiers and frequency of using intensifiers, which will be discussed below are presented in Table 3

Table 3.

Frequency of using intensifiers

Category	Typical adverbs
Maximizers 123	fully (40) completely (22) absolutely (16) extremely (15) overly (13) thoroughly (8) totally (5) perfectly (4)
Boosters 248	very (185) really (101) quite (51) highly (49) deeply (22) greatly (9) definitely (5) awfully (2)
Approximators 50	almost (28) nearly (16) virtually (6)
Compromisers 214	rather (195) fairly (12) pretty (7)
Diminishers 41	slightly (22) a little (19)
Minimizers 9	hardly (9)

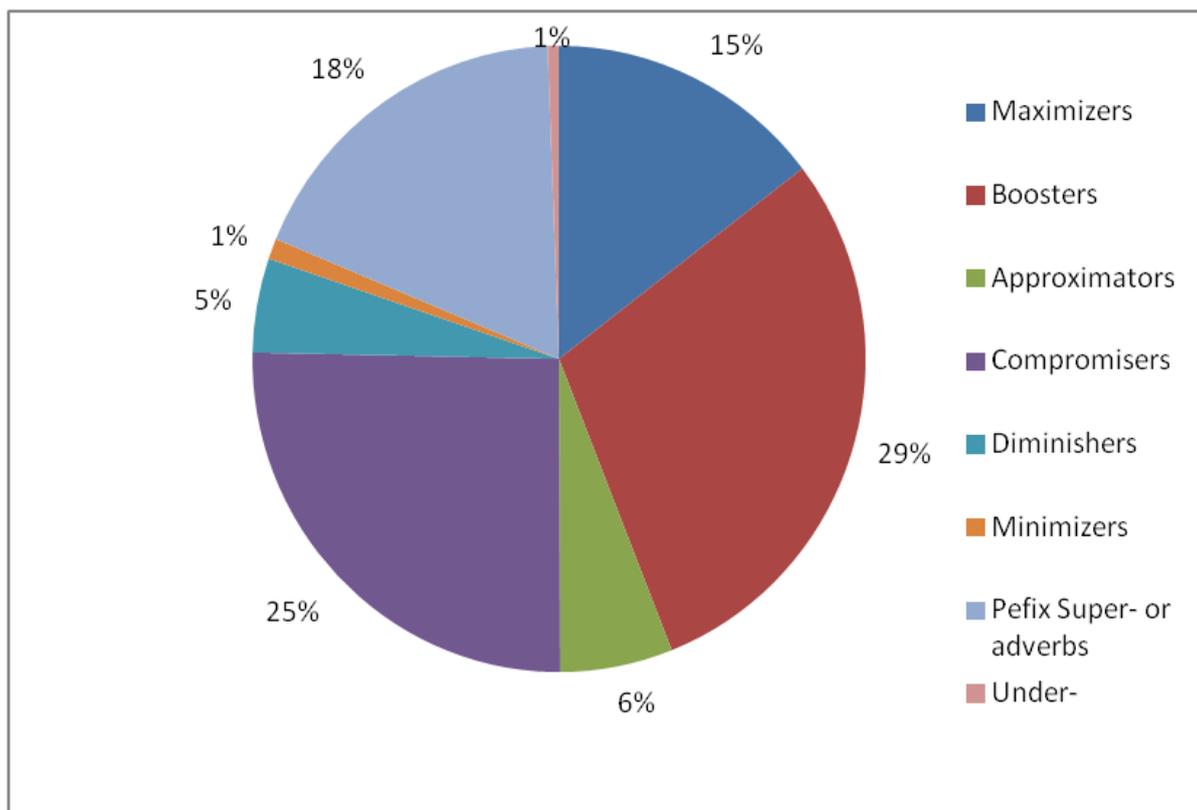
3.2 Statistic analysis of intensifiers

There are more than 800 intensifiers in the analysis materials (50 articles in the scientific journals). 123 intensifiers belong to the group of maximizers, denoting the greatest possible degree: *fully* (40), *completely* (22), *absolutely* (16), *extremely* (15), *overly* (13), *thoroughly* (8), *totally* (5), *perfectly* (4). The following 248 intensifiers belong to boosters: *very* (185), *really* (101), *quite* (51), *highly* (49), *deeply* (22), *greatly* (9), *definitely* (5), *awfully* (2). These numbers show that most intensifiers belong to boosters, which reflects the fact shown that this degree type is most creative and has emotional/expressive connotations (Simon-Vandenberg, 2008: 1530). Among them, *very* is the commonest intensifier, together with *quite* 51 and *highly*. *Very* is used most often and can have a whole range of different collocates. The maximizers modify scalar adjectives, so boosters are an open group, they have different collocations since they are used more often than intensifiers of other degree types.

The group of approximators has 50 intensifiers, they are *almost* (28), *nearly* (16), *virtually* (6). The group of compromisers found in articles counts 214 units: *rather* 195, *fairly* (12) and *pretty* (7). The most popular part of this category is intensifier *rather*. In articles the intensifiers that belong to the group of diminishers were also found in number of 40 the most frequent of which is *slightly* (22). The category of minimizers is presented only in one word *hardly* (9).

Pie chart 1.

Percentages for different types of intensifiers



It can be noticed from the chart that most percentages of the intensifiers went into boosters 29 % and compromisers 25%, the intensifiers of category boosters and compromisers occupied more than half of all the types of intensifiers. The maximizers and prefix or adverbs stood in the middle, taking prefix or adverbs 18%, maximizers 15%. By contrast, the approximators, diminishers and minimizers make smaller percentage of total intensifiers, which are 6%, 5% and 1% respectively.

CATEGORY	<u>EXAMPLES</u>
Maximizers	<p>Students may also be keen to use completely new words within a simple phrase structure.</p> <p>The positive emotions were not always possible to completely delineate due to their some-what fuzzy boundaries and their fluid nature.</p> <p>However, I discovered that I was completely wrong.</p> <p>As expected, the use of quotation marks was absolutely easy and helpful in error correction of grammar and vocabulary usage, in particular for the use of articles in the present study.</p> <p>It was their first encounter with this search technique and with how to use it for articles, which most of them found absolutely challenging in their writing.</p> <p>However, paraphrasing with Google was absolutely difficult for most of the students except for a few advanced learners.</p> <p>Some participants were not fully aware of these usages and constructed inappropriate expressions such as <i>*enter into the building</i> and <i>*enter into the school</i>.</p> <p>In order to fully express your emotions and experience, you are asked to write a minimum of 200 words.</p> <p>When I read in English, it feels totally neutral, it does not feel special in any way”</p> <p>You know what, about 16 boys sat totally quiet and just listened, no talking or laughing just sat there quiet and listening.</p> <p>The text should also be perfectly written, which meant no spelling or grammar mistakes.</p>

	<p>I read it through thoroughly and make improvements: a lot can still be changed at that point.</p> <p>Each target word was therefore incorporated into each video or text three to six times—but not more often than that, to avoid making them overly salient.</p>
Boosters	<p>I think it is very useful.</p> <p>College students search <u>on Google</u> very much.</p> <p>It was so interesting to hear different voices talking about a very important topic concerning global warming.</p> <p>Our students' reflections also showed that anonymity was highly valued during the peer review. Fear and anxiety can be highly detrimental to the learning process (Mac-Intyre, 2017).</p> <p>All of these three competences are highly interconnected and encompass self-awareness and strong interpersonal competence.</p> <p>However, such an evaluation would not greatly alter the over- all conclusions.</p> <p>Knowing more about how and when to apply a strategic approach would greatly extend this reach.</p>

	<p>Multicompetence definitely goes beyond linguistic abilities.</p> <p>What you can definitely offer to your partners is your teaching experience. She definitely played the most important role in my English learning process.</p> <p>And then my supervisor said that it could be quite important.</p> <p>It is quite possible that the language had no verbal person marking whatsoever.</p> <p>The backgrounds of students in the two classes turned out to be quite similar.</p> <p>Structural innovations are deeply rooted in the Mrkovići variety, as they were reported both in monolingual and bilingual villages.</p> <p>Temples have already been deeply rooted in the life of Taiwanese people.</p> <p>Although these tasks may not delve deeply into cultural understanding, they can function as demonstrations of pragmatic language use.</p> <p>It remains unclear, however, how the inclusion of these two views really helps to achieve that aim.</p> <p>Getting support from friends and teachers and being able to send voice memos to other people is a really good way to use my Chinese skills in practice.</p>
Approximators	<p>The first element of these toponym s is nearly always monosyllabic.</p> <p>She did nearly everything in the Weebly.</p> <p>Although the language is virtually undocumented.</p> <p>This is almost certainly a relic zone.</p>

	Initially exchanges were almost exclusively text-based, with email being used most frequently, then followed by text chat, as it became more widely available.
Compromisers	<p>However, these are fairly new areas that are beginning to be implemented on larger scales in many fields.</p> <p>The research findings might not be fairly generalized to a larger student population.</p> <p>And I was pretty new to writing literary essays, I think online friendships are great and can be pretty dangy as well.</p> <p>We met up pretty soon after.</p> <p>Second, it will be rather rewarding to focus on verb-preposition collocations in teaching</p> <p>The former is rather long and may be perceived as elusive, unless readers are already familiar with this theory; nonetheless, it lays a strong foundation for those who want to learn more about the theory.</p> <p>Her negative evaluation of her partner's feedback was rather unusual.</p>
Diminishers	<p>Sara and Younghee had slightly different ideas about what led to those advantages.</p> <p>The mean overall vocabulary gains were slightly higher from watching the blogs than from reading the blog posts.</p> <p>Although results are skewed slightly positive, I only read like articles and I guess they're a little deeper.</p> <p>I became a little shy too It's been a little while.</p>
Minimizers	I try to write a correct version of my text in one go, so that I hardly have to make any alterations when it's finished.

	<p>Obviously, these theoretical types hardly exist in pure form in the bilingual societies of the world.</p> <p>A finding which should hardly come as much of a surprise.</p>
--	---

3.3 Descriptive analysis of intensifiers

In the analyzed materials the rate of occurrence of completely was the highest. absolutely ranked second and extremely occupied the third position among all the maximizers found in the 50 scientific articles presented in English top rated open access journals.

The maximizers in the data modify adjectives, verbs and adverbs. There are further possible groupings related to the collocate, depending on the word-class of the collocate. Maximizers, which can denote the upper extreme of the scale.

Examples: *Students may also be keen to use **completely** new words within a simple phrase structure. Completely modifies adjective new and it denotes the upper extreme of the scale.*

*As expected, the use of quotation marks was **absolutely** easy and helpful in error correction of grammar and vocabulary usage, in particular for the use of articles in the present study. Absolutely intensify the adjective new and helpful.*

*In order to **fully** express your emotions and experience, you are asked to write a minimum of 200 words. Fully modifies the verb express.*

*When I read in English, it feels **totally** neutral, it does not feel special in any way". Totally modifies the adverb neutral.*

*Each target word was therefore incorporated into each video or text three to six times—but not more often than that, to avoid making them **overly** salient. Overly intensifies the adjective salient.*

The boosters modify adjectives and verbs. Adjectives are intensified with quite (quite important), really (really good), so (so interesting), so verbs with highly (highly value), greatly (greatly extend), deeply (delve deeply) and definitely (definitely go). Whereas very modifies adjective (very good) and adverbs (very much). The boosters

denoting a high degree of scale. Examples extracted from the data are shown below:

*It was **so** interesting to hear different voices talking about a **very** important topic concerning global warming.*

*Our students' reflections also showed that anonymity was **highly** valued during the peer review. Fear and anxiety can be **highly** detrimental to the learning process.*

*And then my supervisor said that it could be **quite** important.*

Maximizers and boosters are interrelated. Both subclasses, especially boosters, form open class, new expressions created continually to replace old ones whose impact follows the trend of hyperbole in rapidly growing ineffectivity.

The amplifiers definitely is used in the sentences 'What you can **definitely** offer to your partners is your teaching experience'. 'She **definitely** played the most important role in my English learning process'. The first sentence it shows a high degree, which can be considered as a booster, the second sentence, it expresses of the extreme meaning, which is used as a maximator.

Approximators can change one's understanding of the topic to the actual situation and can change the original meaning of the discourse structure. Sentences contained approximators cannot be regarded as either false or true and they help make sentences more acceptable. For example, "*she did **nearly** everything in the Weebly.*" Is different from sentence "*she did everything in the Weebly.*", in that the approximator "*nearly*" weakens the absoluteness of the action. "This is **almost** certainly a relic zone." the approximator "almost" shows the possibility of the opinion being a relic zone, but not the 100% actually. At the same time, these sentences cannot be judged simply as true or false. Approximators include adaptors and rounders. Adaptors can change the degree of truth condition of the propositions, enabling the speaker to express idea approximately and closer to facts.

Compromisers reach out towards an assumed norm but at the same time reduce the force of the verb. Compromisers have the same function as approximators in the doubtfulness on the appropriateness of the concerning verb. They are

characterized as being close to a supposed norm, but weaken the implication of the verb in the meantime. Consider the following sentence: *Her negative evaluation of her partner's feedback was rather unusual. Rather reaches out towards as assumed norm but at same time reduce the force of unusual. However, these are fairly new areas that are beginning to be implemented on larger scales in many fields. The research findings might not be fairly generalized to a larger student population. And I was **pretty** new to writing literary essays, I think online friendships are great and can be **pretty** dangy as well. We met up **pretty** soon after. Second, it will be **rather** rewarding to focus on verb-preposition collocations in teaching.*

Diminishers, which scale downwards and roughly mean 'to a small extent'(Quirk,1985). The former can be interpreted as the opposite to boosters. examples: "Sara and Younghee had **slightly** different ideas about what led to those advantages". "I only read like articles and I guess they're a little deeper".

Minimizers, which are negative maximizers, '(not) to any extent'. Minimizers differ from other down toners in providing a modification towards a version taht is more strictly true rather than a denial of the truth value of what has been said: *I try to write a correct version of my text in one go, so that I **hardly** have to make any alterations when it's finished. Obviously, these theoretical types **hardly** exist in pure form in the bilingual societies of the world.* (hardly exist = don't exist). The second clause turns the partial denial in the first clause into admitting a full denial.

The difference between diminishers and minimizers are indeed near the bottom. They are distinguished in their behavior with respect to negation. Diminishers are usually the focus of negation, minimizers are themselves negative.

3.3 Syntactic analysis of intensifiers

Syntax is the study of rules governing the ways how words, word groups and phrases are combined to form sentences in a language, or the study of the interrelationship between elements in sentence structures. The adv-intensifiers in different semantic groups are not identical in their syntactical features. Even though

many different semantic groups are not identical in their syntactical features. Even though many efforts are made, it is difficult to set up common features that apply to each member in a group, especially to the groups under the main branch downtoners, which show a great diversity in syntactic features.

Syntactic functions of intensifiers: Intensifiers of the three subgroups function as parts of attributes, parts of predicates, parts of adverbials with an adverb or an adjective and as adverbials with a verb.

Examples:

The maximizers function as part of adverbials: *The positive emotions were not always possible to **completely** delineate due to their some-what fuzzy boundaries and their fluid nature.* As part of predicates: *However, I discovered that I was **completely** wrong.* As part of adverbials: In order to **fully** express your emotions and experience, you are asked to write a minimum of 200 words.

The boosters function as part of attributes: *I think it is very useful.* As part of predicates: *It remains unclear, however, how the inclusion of these two views **really** helps to achieve that aim. Temples have already been **deeply** rooted in the life of Taiwanese people. She **definitely** played the most important role in my English learning process.*

Sometimes intensifiers can change the group of their affiliation. This is determined by the word with which the intensifier is combined. Let's consider the examples with the intensifier very. The booster *very* is widely used to modify adjectives like good, difficult, important, much. Booster commonly demote high degree of scale. However booster are also applied to weaken the degree of modified items in that communication when boosters collocate with words that have negative meaning. Examples:

*A sister branch, consisting of the **very closely related** and seriously endangered varieties Jaqaru and Cauqui, survives in a small region of Central Peru's Limadepartment.*

*Its extinction in the early 19th century (cf. Adelaar and van de Kerke, 2009: 125) and the scant documentation, virtually restricted to Oré (1607), leave much of the Puquina lexicon undocumented and the picture that can be obtained for the grammar **very incomplete**.*

*At the **very least**, students had learnt more of linguistic contents and more about the language and culture from interaction in class and through WeChat interaction and the use of other online resources such as Quizlet and Kahoot and Chinese learning apps.*

*One student reported being **Dissatisfied** and zero reported being **very Dissatisfied**.*

*One item did not score over 0.3 (ITEM41), indicating a **very weak** correlation, although the item cross-loaded similarly onto several other factors.*

*The scale used by this program ranged from -5, which was defined as **very low** enjoyment or anxiety, to +5, which was defined as very high enjoyment or anxiety.*

When **very** collocates with the words with the negative meaning, such as in sentences **very dissatisfied**, **very weak**, **very low**, **very incomplete**, **very least**, the intensifier **very** is used as diminisher, which scale down towards and means small extent.

When intensifier **very** collocates with words presenting the feature in low degree such words like **few**, **little**, then the scale **very** -booster will be changed to diminishers, see sentences below:

*Known only through **very few** words each, an Amazonian affiliation can be suggested for some of these languages.*

*Albanian and Slavic-speaking people fled to more remote and mountainous areas, where the Ottoman administration and the enemies had **very little** access, in order to escape blood feuds, islamization, or conflicts with the Ottoman beys in their native provinces.*

*This observation is confirmed in the 2017 meta-analysis of 64 DDL studies by Boulton and Cobb, which finds that **very few** studies reported on the results of*

delayed post-tests, which would be essential to understand the long-term effects of DDL on students' output.

The authors assert that vocabulary learning reflects Vygotskian internalization and Bakhtinian appropriation processes that “L2 vocabulary learning appears to be a very slow, gradual, and embodied process of learning to control semiotic resources in situated settings”.

*With **very few** exceptions, investigations have found that learners use modals less frequently, or in less-effective ways, than native speakers or instructors.*

*Such developments, however, have on the whole failed to find a reflection in research on language learning strategies (LLS) that has primarily focused on the application of strategic devices in a second or foreign language (L2), giving **very little** attention to the differences in this respect between various additional languages that learners may aspire to learn in succession, as well as the possible transfer of strategies between different languages for an overview of existing research on language learning strategies).*

3.5 Results

It is found in the analytical materials (50 articles in the scientific journals). 123 intensifiers belong to the group of maximizers, 248 intensifiers belong to boosters, The group of approximators has 50 intensifiers. The intensifiers of compromisers have found in articles 214.

The use of intensifiers in academic discourse can be noticed that most percentages of the intensifiers went into boosters 29 % and compromisers 25%, the intensifiers of category boosters and compromisers occupied more than half of all the types of intensifiers. The maximizers and prefix or adverbs stood in the middle, taking prefix or adverbs 18%, maximizers 15%. The approximators, diminishers, minimizers and prefix under- make smaller percentage of total intensifiers, which are 6%, 5%, 1% and 1% respectively.

The intensifiers include amplifiers and downtoners, amplifiers can be subclassed into two: maximizers and boosters, they are interrelated and they denote the upper and high scale degree. The downtoners include: approximators, compromizers, diminishers and minimizers. Approximators and compromizers have the same function in the doubtfulness on the appropriateness of the concerning verb. They are characterized as being close to a supposed norm, but weaken the implication of the verb in the meantime. Diminishers can be interpreted as the opposite to boosters. Minimizers are negative maximizers. However, in some cases the boosters can be regarded as diminishers when they collocate with words with negative meaning or the words presenting features in low degree.

CONCLUSION

In this paper we start from the concept of discourse in modern linguistics, which we show the development of the theory of discourse and give definition of the term discourse. Discourses are situated activities which regulate meaning-making in complex ways and represent particular social relations and ways of seeing the world. The problem with formation of the modern English academic discourse has also mentioned.

In the second part we show the background information and the main concepts about intensity. The typology of intensifiers proved to be very wide. And we also make classifications of intensifiers from different linguists. The classification of intensifiers by Quirk (1985) is included: amplifiers (denoting the upper and high degree) and downtoners (denoting the low degree). Amplifiers subclass maximizers and boosters, Downtoners include approximators, compromisers, diminishers and minimizers. Intensifiers always modify lexical collocations, adjectives, adverbs and verbs.

In the practical part, in order to show the particularities of using intensifiers in academic discourse 50 scientific journal articles were analyzed based on classification intensifiers by opinion Quirk (1985), it is found that most percentages of the intensifiers went into boosters 29 % and compromisers 25%, the intensifiers of category boosters and compromisers occupied more than half of all the types of intensifiers. The meaning of boosters are considered high degree of scale, but in some cases when the booster collocates with the words with negative meaning or the words presenting the feature in low degree, the booster can be interpreted as diminisher.

The syntactic functions of intensifiers were analyzed with the sentence-examples, in which intensifiers of the three subgroups function as parts of attributes, parts of predicates, parts of adverbials with an adverb or an adjective and as adverbials with a verb.

References

1. Anisimova T. V. Typology of genres of business speech (rhetorical aspect). Krasnodar, 2000.
2. Atkinson D. 1999. Scientific Discourse in Sociohistorical Context: The Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. New Jersey & London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates; P. 1675–1975.
3. Athanasiadou, Angeliki. “On the Subjectivity of Intensifiers.” *Language Sciences* 29.4 (2007):554-565. Web 7 March 2011. <<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0388000107000198>>.
4. Abramova A. G. Linguistic features of electronic communication: on the material of French, English and Russian: Dis. ... cand. philological science. 2005. URL:[#ixzz3L8nAUt1G">http://www.dissercat.com/content/lingvisticheskie-osobennosti-elektronnogo-obshcheniya-na-materiale-frantsuzskogoangliiskogo #ixzz3L8nAUt1G](http://www.dissercat.com/content/lingvisticheskie-osobennosti-elektronnogo-obshcheniya-na-materiale-frantsuzskogoangliiskogo) (accessed 06.06.2017).
5. Backlund U. The Collocation of Adverbs of Degree in English. – Uppsala : Almqvist and Wiksell, 1973. – 310 p.
6. Backlund U. The Collocation of Adverbs of Degree in English. – Uppsala : Almqvist and Wiksell, 1973. – 310 p.
7. Bennett K. English Academic Discourse: Its Hegemonic Status and Implications for Translation (with refererce to Portugaese), 2008. URL: http://repositorio.ul.pt/bitstream/10451/583/1/20794_ulsd055469_tese.pdf (дата обращения: 12.05.2015).
8. Benvenist E. General Linguistics / Ed. Yu.S. Stepanova. М .: Progress; 1974. 448 p.
9. Biber D., Johansson S., Leech G., Conrad S. and Finegan E. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. – Harlow : Longman, 1999. – 1204 p.
10. Biber D., Johansson S., Leech G., Conrad S. and Finegan E. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. – Harlow : Longman, 1999. – 1204 p.

11. Bolinger D. Degree Words. – The Hague : Walter de Gruyter, Inc., 2013. – 324 p
12. Bolinger D. Degree Words. – The Hague : Walter de Gruyter, Inc., 2013. – 324 p.
13. Burmakina N. G. Discursive-integrative and cultural-conventional characteristics of academic communication: author. diss. Candidate of Philological Sciences, Krasnoyarsk, 2014.
14. Chernyavskaya V. Ye. Discourse of power and power of discourse: problems of speech exposure. M. : Flint, 2006.
15. Dijk T. A. van. Introduction: Discourse Analysis as a New Cross-discipline // Handbook of Discourse Analysis. 1985. V.1. Disciplines of Discourse.
16. Dijk T.A. Van. To the definition of discourse / per. from English / A. Deryabin 1999.URL: [psyberlink.flogiston.ru/internet/bits/ andijk2.htm](http://psyberlink.flogiston.ru/internet/bits/andijk2.htm) (accessed: 12/10/2016).
17. Doroshenko V.A. Qualitative elements in sentences of the modern English language. Avtozef.dis. ... Candidate of Philological Science. L., 1976.
18. Drozdova T.V. On some manifestations of the semiotic nature of a scientific text // Horizons of Modern Linguistics: Traditions and Innovation. Sat. in honor of E.S. Kubryakova. M.: Languages of Slavic cultures, 2009.S. 736-744.
19. Duff P. A. Problematising Academic Discourse Socialization // Learning Discourses and the Discourses of Learning, edited by Marriot, H; Moore, T, Spencer Brown, R. Melbourne: Monash University. ePress, 2007.
20. Fairclough N. Language and Power. URL: http://www.npu.edu.ua/%21e-book/book/dju/A/iif_kgpm_Fairclough_Language_and_Power_pdf.pdf(accessed 06.06.2015).
21. Galichkina E. N. Specificity of computer discourse in English and Russian (based on the material of the genre of computer conferences): Author. dis. ... cand. filol. sciences. Volgograd, 2001.

22. Gillett A. Using English for Academic Purposes: A Guide for Students in Higher Education. 1999 – 2018. URL: <http://www.uefap.com/writing/writfram.htm> (date accessed: 08.07.2015).
23. Grigoryeva V. S. Discourse as an element of the communicative process: pragmalinguistic and cognitive aspects: monograph. Tambov: Publishing house of Tamb.gos. tech. University, 2007.
24. Habermas J. Moral consciousness and communicative action: Per. take off. / Comp. D.V. Sklyadneva. St. Petersburg: Science, 2000.
25. Hopper P. & Traugott E. Grammaticalization. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 1993. – 276 p.
26. Huddleston R. & Pullum G. Adjectives and Adverbs: The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2002. –1860 p.
27. Hyland K. Hedging in Scientific Research Articles // Pragmatics & Beyond (John Benjamins).: New series (T. 54). John Benjamins Publishing, 1998.
28. Ito R. & Tagliamonte S. Well weird, right dodgy, very strange, really cool: Layering and recycling in English intensifiers // Language in Society. – 2003. –32(2). – P. 257–279.
29. Karasik V. I. On the categories of discourse. 2006. URL: <http://homepages.tversu.ru/~sik> V.I. On categories of discourse. 2006. URL: <http://homepages.tversu.ru/~ips/JubKaras.html> (accessed: 10/15/2015).
30. Kibrik A. A. Is the concept of “media discourse” justified? URL: ilingran.ru/kibrik/Media_discourse@Orel_2008.pdf (accessed July 17, 2016).
31. Kibrik A. A. Modus, genres and other parameters of classification of discourses // Problems of Linguistics. M., 2009. No. 2. C. 3–21.
32. Kirilina A.V. Gender specificity of Russian and German oral academic communication // Language, consciousness, communication: Sat. articles. M .: MAKS Press, 2010. Issue. 40. S. 96–102.

33. Kuteva, Tania and Bernd Heine. "On the explanatory value of grammaticalization." *Linguistic Universals and Language Change*. Ed. Jeff Good. New York: Oxford University Press, 2008. 215-228.
34. Klushina N.I. From style to discourse: a new turn in linguistics // *Language, communication and social environment*. Vol. 9. Voronezh, 2011. S. 26–33. URL: www.philology.ru/linguistics2/klushina-11.htm.
35. Kozhemyakin E. A. Discourse analysis as an interdisciplinary methodology: historical aspect // *Scientific reports Belgorod. state un-that. Ser. : Humanities*. Vol. 2; T. 15. 2008. S. 5–12.
36. Lorenz G. Really Worthwhile or Not Really Significant? A Corpus-based Approach to the Delexicalization and Grammaticalization of Intensifiers in Modern English // *New Reflections on Grammaticalization / I. Wischer and Gabriele Diewald (eds.)*. – Amsterdam : Benjamins, 2002. – P. 143–161.
37. Lutovinova O. V. Linguocultural characteristics of virtual discourse: Author. diss. ... dr. filol. sciences. Volgograd, 2009.
38. Makarov M. L. *Fundamentals of the theory of discourse*. M.: Gnosis, 2003.
39. Mendez-Naya B. On intensifiers and grammaticalization: The case of swipe // *English Studies*. – 2003. – 84. – P. 372–391.
40. Mendez-Naya B. On intensifiers and grammaticalization: The case of swipe // *English Studies*. – 2003. – 84. – P. 372–391
41. Mendez-Naya B. Special issue on English intensifiers // *English Language and Linguistics*. – 2008. – 12 (2). – P. 213–219.
42. Mironova N. N. *Discourse analysis of evaluative semantics*. M.: NVI – TESAURUS, 1997.
43. Mukhin A.M. *Functional analysis of syntactic elements*. M., L., 1964
44. Ozhegov S.I. and Shvedova N.Yu. *Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language: 80,000 words and phraseological expressions*. - 4th ed., Ext. - M., 2013.

45. Paradis, Carita. "Configurations, construals and change: Expressions of degree." *English Language and Linguistics* 12.2 (2008): 317–343. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Web 10 May 2011.
46. Partington A. Corpus evidence of language change: The case of intensifiers // *Text and Technology: In Honour of John Sinclair / Baker M. et al. (eds.)*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1993. – P. 177–192.
47. Polyakova S. V. Features of blog discourse // *Bulletin of Ross. state un-taym. I. Kant*. 2010. Issue. 2. C. 41–45.
48. Quirk R., Greenbaum S., Leech G. &, Svartvik J. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. – London : Longman, 1985. – 1779 p.
49. Raspopina E. Yu. Differential and genre features of computer Internet discourse // *Vestnik IGLU. Irkutsk*, 2010. No. 1. C. 125–132.
50. Remizova, V. F. Intensifiers in English and Russian: features of use [Electronic resource] / V. F. Remizova // *University complex as a regional center of education, science and culture. Materials of the All-Russian scientific method. conf. (with international participation)*. –Orenburg: OSU, 2015. - P. 1890-1895.
51. Rodionova S. E. Realization of the category of intensity in scientific discourse // *Studies in semantics: Interuniversity scientific collection*. Ufa: RIC of BashSU, 2008. Issue. 24. P. 467-475.
52. Rodionova S.E. Intensity semantics and its expression in modern Russian. M., 2005 .-- S. 150-166.
53. Rusakova, O. F. Modern theories of discourse: the experience of classifications // *Modern theories of discourse: multidisciplinary analysis. Ser: Discourse*. Yekaterinburg: Discourse-Pi, 2006.
54. Sheigal E.I. Intensity as a component of word semantics in modern English: Dis. Cand. ... filol. sciences. M., 1981. - S.8-22.
55. Sirotinina O.B. Good speech: shifts in the idea of the standard // *Russian today. Active language processes at the end of the 20th century*. - M., 2003.

56. Sirotinina O.B. Russian language: system, Uzus and the risks they create. - Saratov, 2013.
57. Smirnov F. O. National-cultural features of electronic communication in English and Russian: Abstract. disc. ... cand. philological science. Yaroslavl, 2004.
58. Stepanenko A. A. Academic discourse on the example of lectures in Chinese // Youth and Science: collection of articles. Mater. IX All-Russian scientific conf. students, graduate students and young scientists with international participation, dedicated to the 385th anniversary of the founding of Krasnoyarsk. Krasnoyarsk: Siberian Federal University, 2013. URL: <http://conf.sfukras.ru/sites/mn2013/section052.html> (date of growth: 08.08.2017).
59. Stoffel C. Intensives and Down-toners: A Study in English Adverbs. – Winter's universitätsbuchhandlung, 1901. – 156 p.
60. Tagliamonte S. A. So different and pretty cool! Recycling intensifiers in Toronto, Canada // English Language and Linguistics, 2008. – 12(2). – P. 361–394.
61. Temnova EV. Modern approaches to the study of discourse // Language, consciousness, communication: Sat. articles / ed. V.V. Krasnykh, A.I. Izotov. M.: MAX Press, 2004. Issue. 26.
62. Temnova EV. Modern approaches to the study of discourse // Language, consciousness, communication: Sat. articles / ed. V.V. Krasnykh, A.I. Izotov. M.: MAX Press, 2004. Issue. 26.
63. Tsymbal A. Yu. Intonational features of presentations in the English-language academic discourse // Philological Sciences. Questions of theory and practice. Tambov: Diploma, 2013. No. 1 (19). S. 199-202. URL: [www / gramota.net / materials / 2/2013/1 / 57.html](http://www/gramota.net/materials/2/2013/1/57.html) (accessed: 04/06/2016).
64. Turansky I.I. Semantic intensity category in English. - M.: High School, 1990. - 173 p.

65. Turansky I.I. Semantic intensity category in English. M., 1990.-- S. 7-21.
66. Ubin I.I. Lexical means of expressing the category of intensity (on the material of the Russian and English languages): Abstract dis. Cand. philologist. sciences. M. 1974.- 33s.
67. Urbin I.I. Dictionary of amplification phrases of the Russian and English languages. - M.: Russian language, 1987.-- 304 p.
68. Van Dijk, Teun A. ed. 1997. Discourse as Structure and Process. Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction. Vol. 1, 2. L., Thousand Oaks, New Delhi:SAGE Publications.
69. Vetrova O. G. Culture of scientific communication: hedging in academic discourse, 2012. URL: gisap.eu/ru/node/5638
70. Vinogradov V.V. Russian language: Grammar doctrine of the word. - M., 1986. Theory of Functional Grammar: Qualitativeness, Quantification / Ed. By A.V. Bondarko. - SPb., 1996.
71. Zubkova Ya. V. A sign of institutionalism in academic discourse. Vestn. Volgogr. state un-that. Ser. 2. 2010. No. 2 (12). S. 84–89.